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Transformational Leadership and Employee Innovative Behaviour in The Egyptian Travel Agents: A Mediation Moderation Model

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TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND EMPLOYEE INNOVATIVE BEHAVIOUR IN THE EGYPTIAN TRAVEL AGENTS: A MEDIATION – MODERATION MODEL

by

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Author's Declaration

At no time during the registration for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy has the author been registered for any other University award without prior agreement of the Doctoral College Quality Sub-Committee.

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Dedication

This work is devoted to the soul of my lovely mother

To my great father and my lovely brothers and sisters

To my amazing friends, lecturers, and colleagues

Thank you for your care, love, sacrifice, and support. Always thankful for your patience. You made my dream come true

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Transformational Leadership and Employee Innovative Behaviour in The Egyptian Travel Agents: A Mediation – Moderation Model

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Abstract

The tourism industry is one of the largest and fastest growing industries in the world. Specifically, tourism is a vital industry in the Egyptian economy as it is an essential source of its national income. Unfortunately, since 2010, tourism has been severely affected in Egypt due to terrorist attacks, attacks against tourist areas, and recently, the devastating impact of COVID-19, impacting Egypt as a tourist destination. Accordingly, to encounter these challenges, frontline employees' innovative behaviour (EIB) is significantly needed as they personally engage with clients and meet their needs, and so, their input is crucial to the tourism industry's survival. Particularly, as EIB becomes critical to organisations' survival, transformational leadership (TL), innovative self-efficacy (ISE), and perceived organisational support (POS) have been found to impact EIB. Nevertheless, there is a lack of models linking TL, EIB, ISE, and POS within tourism travel agents in general and Egypt in particular.

Therefore, this study aims to explore the impact of TL on EIB through the mediating role of ISE and the moderating role of POS among frontline employees in the Egyptian travel agents. A mixed methods approach with triangulation via interviews was used in this study. 320 valid responses were collected in the quantitative stage to analyse the causal relationships between the study variables through employing partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS – SEM). Next, 25 interviews were conducted with frontline employees in the qualitative stage and were thematically analysed to explain the unexpected findings from the quantitative stage. The quantitative stage's results revealed that TL's dimensions; idealised influence (charisma) (II.C), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individualised consideration (IC) positively impacted EIB except for the dimension of inspirational motivation (IM). Moreover, ISE positively impacted EIB. Also, all TL's dimensions positively influenced ISE. Additionally, the mediating role of ISE was significant only regarding the influence of both II.C and IM on EIB. Moreover, the moderating role of POS was significant only concerning the impact of II.C on EIB. Finally, the qualitative results justified the quantitative stage's results.

These results contribute significantly to the theory regarding the direct and indirect associations between TL and EIB through the mediating role of ISE and the moderating role

of POS. Additionally, the findings provide a better clarifications of these relationships in the tourism industry within developing countries, specifically Egypt, a context that has been overlooked in previous studies. Regarding practical implications, the findings provide several recommendations for leaders and practitioners, frontline employees, and travel agents concerning how to improve TL's behaviours, stimulate frontline employees' IBs, and develop travel agents' organisational support practices so as to have a competitive advantage and survive in the future against competitors. Finally, limitations and suggestions for future research were provided.

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List of Abbreviations

Full Term	Abbreviations
Employee Innovative Behaviour	EIB
Innovative Behaviour(s)	IB(s)
Innovative Self-Efficacy	ISE
Perceived Organisational Support	POS
Transformational Leadership	TL
Idealised Influence (Charisma)	II.C
Inspirational Motivation	IM
Intellectual Stimulation	IS
Individualised Consideration	IC
Transactional Leadership	TrL
Empowering Leadership	EL
Servant Leadership	SL
Authentic Leadership	AL
Creative Self-efficacy	CSE
Social Exchange Theory	SET
Social Cognitive Theory	SCT
Leader-Member Exchange Theory	LMX
Conservation of Resources Theory	COR
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire	MLQ
Empowering Leadership Questionnaire	ELQ
Egyptian Travel Agents Association	ETAA
Cronbach’s alpha	α
Average Variance Extracted	AVE
Composite Reliability	CR
Statistical Package for the Social Sciences	SPSS
Common Method Bias	CMB
Structural Equation Modelling	SEM
Confirmatory Factor Analysis	CFA
Average Path Coefficient	APC
Average R-squared	ARS
Average Variance Inflation Factor	AVIF
Full Collinearity Variance Inflation Factor(s)	VIF(s)
Variance-Based Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling	PLS-SEM
Covariance-Based Structural Equation Modelling	CB–SEM
Path Coefficient	β
Q-squared coefficients	Q^2
R-squared coefficients	R^2
Statistical Significance Value	P
Middle East and North Africa	MENA
Principal Component Analysis	PCA
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin	KMO
Standard Deviation	SD
Effect Size	f^2
Variance Accounted For	VAF
Coronavirus	COVID-19
Analysis of Moment Structures	AMOS

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Research Background

The tourism industry is recognised as one of the largest and fastest growing industries in the world (Sipahutar, 2019; Xu et al., 2022). Further, the tourism industry is very important to the world economy (Erol et al., 2022) and its significance for the economy of several countries has progressively increased (Comerio and Strozzi, 2019). Particularly, tourism has a vital and wide-reaching economic impact as it generates growth through increasing capital and enhancing exports (Comerio and Strozzi, 2019). Moreover, tourism generates employment opportunities faster than other sectors or industries (Roudi et al., 2019). Specifically, this study is applied on the Egyptian tourism industry. Tourism is a crucial industry in the Egyptian economy as it is a significant source of national income and it provides many employment opportunities and accounts for 10% of jobs (Ahmed et al., 2018), and plays a huge impact on Egypt's economic and social fields (Haiying, 2020). Moreover, international tourism arrivals in Egypt increased from 2.6 million in 1990 to 12.8 million in 2008, the direct and indirect impact of tourism in Egypt in 2010 contributed by 13% of Egypt's total GDP (Ibrahim, 2013), and Egypt recorded its highest revenues in 2019, specifically $13 billion (Selim et al., 2020).

Particularly, in tourism, travel agents are regarded as the pillar of all the dynamics of this industry (Ribeiro et al., 2020a). In fact, Goeldner and Ritchie (2009) highlighted tourism travel agents as an essential sector of the tourism industry and they represent a business or a person selling the travel services to consumers in which they associate consumers and travel suppliers together through airlines, cruise lines, and railways. More specifically, the study is applied on the Egyptian tourism travel agents as they represent a significant sector within the travel and tourism industry in which they connect tourists and travel suppliers together through hotels and airlines (Elsetouhi et al., 2018; El-Sisi et al., 2020). Moreover, travel agents are essential to the development and success of the Egyptian tourism industry as it is perceived as a significant stakeholder in this sector (Elbaz and Haddoud, 2017). Interestingly, Albu (2015) conditioned that to attract tourists, there were vital investments in innovation in the Egyptian tourism industry to make sure that the tourists feel perfectly during their stay. Furthermore, because of the growing competitive pressure on the tourism industry, it is acknowledged that travel agents are crucial for business development in which frontline employees can play a significant role in dealing with problems they face in their jobs (Elsetouhi et al., 2018).

Stock (2015) defined frontline employees as those who have regular personal interactions with customers, have a major role in influencing the tourism industry, and participate in achieving a huge competitive advantage. Generally, frontline employees play a major role in service encounters and directly impact consumer satisfaction (Yao et al., 2022). Specifically, in the tourism industry, frontline employees have frequent intense face-to-face or voice-to-voice interactions with customers as a main characteristic of the service process (Choi et al., 2014). Also, tourism organisations strive to recruit and retain exceptional employees as they are regarded as the source of innovation (Sainaghi et al., 2017). Furthermore, tourism leaders depend on frontline employees to deliver high-quality services for meeting and exceeding customer expectations (Johnson and Park, 2020). Significantly, the tourism industry has to be fuelled with competent frontline employees to ensure its success and sustain its powerful impact on the economy and deliver its services effectively (Johnson and Park, 2020). Additionally, frontline employees who are highly involved in tourism are expected to demonstrate positive work outcomes (Suhartanto et al., 2018), and innovative behaviour (IB) could be one of these positive outcomes. In fact, Selden and MacMillan (2006) validated that the frontline employee innovative behaviour (EIB) can contribute to the firm's innovative image. Additionally, EIB is vital for enterprises to develop their core competitiveness and ensure their survival (Deng et al., 2022).

Unfortunately, globally, the tourism and hospitality industry faced several challenges such as low job status, unequal treatment, unstable employment, poor pay, and bad working conditions, resulting in high staff turnover (Aynalem et al., 2016). Also, further challenges included cross-cultural issues (Bakir et al., 2017), financial difficulties, huge competition, security threats, and health issues (Blake et al., 2003; Devi, 2019), unplanned economic development (Elshaer and Marzouk, 2019), economic fluctuations, violence, wars, terrorism, and natural disasters/crises (Maditinos and Vassiliadis, 2008). Particularly, travel agents within the tourism and hospitality industry are vulnerable to crises that could harm their existence (Alsetoohy and Marzouk, 2021). For instance, over the past two decades, the tourism and hospitality industry faced several crises such as September 11 terrorist attacks against the United States in 2001, the SARS epidemic in 2003, and the financial crisis of 2008 (Alsetoohy and Marzouk, 2021) which caused a deep recession in 2008 and 2009 (UNWTO and ILO, 2013).

Recently, the devastating pandemic of COVID-19 hit the world causing several damaging consequences such as harming the development of tourism activities worldwide (Gössling et al., 2020), limiting the mobility of citizens through imposing widespread lockdowns, social distances, orders to stay at home, and travel restrictions which significantly harmed the tourism and hospitality industry (Almeida and Silva, 2020; Bartik et al., 2020;

Baloch et al., 2022), and resulted in dropping international arrivals in 2020 by 74% (UNWTO, 2021). Additionally, further challenges caused by COVID-19 included closing several businesses such as hotels and travel agents which led to major losses such as losing skilled workforce and causing large-scale unemployment (ILO, 2020; Baloch et al., 2022). Moreover, employees were asked to take paid or unpaid leave and accept reduced wages (Gautam, 2021), and their psychological well-being was harmed and their turnover increased (Salem et al., 2022). Besides, the spread of COVID-19 caused a major health crisis and restructured the global economic order (Lee and Song, 2020), resulted in a complete market failure (Thams et al., 2020), declined sales volumes (El-Gohary, 2020), and caused uncertainty and chaotic conditions in the tourism and hospitality industry (Gautam, 2021).

More specifically, the tourism and hospitality industry in Egypt faced similar challenges such as managing diverse workforce (Badran and Khalifa, 2016), realising sustainable performance (Elzek et al., 2021), achieving sustainable tourism development (Shaalan, 2005), and vulnerability to safety and security threats such as terrorism, crimes, theft, and other hazards (Ahmed and Akther, 2013; Ghazi, 2016). A prominent example to safety and security threats is manifested in the Egyptian revolutions that occurred on 25th of January 2011 in which Egypt experienced one of the worst political crises in its history as Egypt suffered from violent incidents, terrorist attacks, political instability events, clashes, labour strikes, and large protests (Albu, 2015; Ghazi, 2016). Also, several countries evacuated their citizens from Egypt and others warned their citizens about traveling to Egypt which was regarded as an insecure destination for travel and tourism activities (Mohammad et al., 2012; Nassar, 2012), and so, the tourists' numbers have decreased significantly impacting the revenues from the tourism and hospitality industry (Albu, 2015).

Recently, like other countries around the world, Egypt was impacted by the damaging COVID-19 outbreak (Sobaih et al., 2021). Specifically, international flights to and from Egypt were suspended to avoid infection, which severely impacted its economy (Selim et al., 2020). Similarly, due to Covid-19, the international travel restrictions reduced tourism to Egypt (Breisinger et al., 2020) as there were several confirmed cases and many fatalities, and a rapid tendency toward the increase of the virus in Egypt (Ibrahim and Sheikhany, 2022). Additionally, the Egyptian government closed its touristic sites and cleared all tourist areas (Abdelsalam and Elbelehy, 2020), its airports were closed (Rezk et al., 2020), and its travel agencies were severely harmed due to the crucial slowdown in transactions (Abay et al., 2020). Moreover, social distancing, staying at home orders, and community lockdowns were imposed which impacted the Egyptian tourism and hospitality industry (Bama et al., 2022). Likewise, closing the borders fully collapsed the international tourism to Egypt with a major loss in GDP and employment (Hamdy Ayad et al., 2020).

Interestingly, to face the challenge of COVID-19, the Egyptian government started a program to control the COVID-19 infection by designating $6.3 billion for recovery purposes, instituting tax cuts for tourism organisations, reducing the expenses of gas and electricity to the businesses, and giving salaries to full-time employees (Sobaih et al., 2021). Furthermore, globally, the committee of the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2020) generated a list of recommendations to support governments and host communities to face the damaging impacts of COVID-19 (Hamdy Ayad et al., 2020). Additionally, the tourism and hospitality industry did its best to salvage resources and survive the COVID-19 consequences through applying extensive cost reduction practices and conducting robust negotiations with suppliers for mutual sustenance (Kaushal and Srivastava, 2021). Moreover, several hospitality and tourism businesses made substantial changes to their operations in the COVID-19 business environment so as to ensure employees' and customers' health and safety and enhance customers' willingness to support their business (Gössling et al., 2020; Gursoy and Chi, 2020).

From another point, COVID-19 pandemic stimulated the tourism industry's pursuit for innovation in which COVID-19 changed how people interact with each other and perform several daily life transactions (Bama et al., 2022). Moreover, COVID-19 led to significant changes in consumers' behaviours and their preferences (El-Gohary, 2020; Thams et al., 2020), and so, understanding consumers' behaviour will have a crucial role in limiting the negative impact of COVID-19 on company's performance (El-Gohary, 2020). Consequently, to address these challenges in the tourism industry, understand consumers' behaviours and know how to meet their various needs, and encourage innovation in the tourism industry, the researcher believes that it is essential to explore EIB in the Egyptian tourism industry and investigate how frontline employees could be encouraged to perform IBs in travel agents and attract more consumers (tourists) in an innovative way. In the next section, the researcher clarifies the research rationale.

1.2. Research Rationale

The main rationale for this study is to address some of the gaps in tourism, leadership, innovation, self-efficacy, and organisational support literature. This is done through three main aspects. The first aspect highlights the significance of frontline EIB and why it is crucial in the tourism industry, especially travel agents. Then, the second aspect considers the importance of leadership, especially transformational leadership (TL), in the tourism industry and its direct relationship with EIB. Next, the third aspect emphasises the mediating role of innovative self-efficacy (ISE) and the moderating role of perceived organisational support (POS) in the relationship between TL and EIB.

1.2.1. Employee Innovative Behaviour (EIB) in The Tourism Industry

It is crucial to investigate the IB of employees, especially frontline employees. Frontline employees play a vital role in every service encounter and are essential in realising and changing clients' outcomes (Suhartanto et al., 2018). Also, having motivated frontline employees as service firms' representatives in their interactions with customers is significant (Cheng et al., 2022). Moreover, having engaged frontline employees should be a priority in the tourism industry (Park et al., 2019).

Concerning EIB, previous studies explored IB and its significance in the tourism industry (Chou et al., 2018; Rastrollo-Horrillo and Rivero Díaz, 2019; Shouk et al., 2019, Abukhait et al., 2019; Luu, 2019b; Hammad, 2020; Elsetouhi et al., 2022), and it is reviewed in chapter two. Dagogo and Barasin (2020) confirmed that the growing interest in EIB stems predominantly from the need to remain competitive and so, it can be considered as having strategic and functional implications for the organisation, and it is explicitly expected to result in an innovative output. Essentially, there is an emerging consensus that continuous innovation is mainly driven by EIB (Afsar et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2021). Moreover, the employees' innovation ability directly determines the competitiveness' level of the organisation (Xiao, 2020). Additionally, exploring what stimulates frontline employees to contribute innovative behaviours is a major goal for research (Palmer, 2006).

However, research conducted on EIB does not mean that the results would be profitable for organisations in all circumstances as it can also result in a loss for the organisation (Malik et al., 2020). Specifically, regarding tourism, Vargas-Sevalle et al. (2020) highlighted that the tourism industry is a fast-paced and high-pressure environment which can be harmful to employees and can cause serious issues like fatigue, burnout, and stress, making employees unhappy which can lead to poor service. So, with all these challenges, it is crucial to investigate frontline EIB in the tourism industry and assess their impact in the Egyptian travel agents. Furthermore, for addressing these challenges, managers and supervisors require an extraordinary leadership ability to inspire and motivate their employees to achieve organisational success and ensure that their employees are satisfied with their jobs (Vargas-Sevalle et al., 2020). Similarly, in order for frontline employees to conduct IBs, they should have leaders who encourage them to do these behaviours.

1.2.2. Leadership in The Tourism Industry

Several studies investigated the major role of leadership in tourism and its importance (Tuan, 2020; Amor et al., 2020; Figueroa-Domecq et al., 2020; Khan et al., 2020b; Chang et al., 2020; Rao and Zaidi, 2020; Hoang et al., 2021a; Elsetouhi et al., 2022; Wang and Li, 2022; Tran et al., 2023). Also, leadership has been reviewed in chapter three. Fischer et al. (2017) acknowledged that leadership influences employee behaviour by leveraging current employee assets such as motivation or promoting new ones (Lee et al., 2020a). Furthermore, effective leaders foster employees by supporting their improvement, sharing their feelings, and taking care of their concerns (Chang et al., 2020). Additionally, Petkovski (2012) stressed that good leadership skills are the main factor for development and efficient and effective functioning of tourism organisations. Moreover, one vital element to have a successful tourism business is to have leaders who guide and encourage their employees to think outside the box, make good decisions, and solve problems (Bennett, 2009). Besides, since the tourism industry is dominated by services and experiences, employees play an important role in delivering a quality product, and to stimulate and get the best performance from those employees, the role of effective leaders is significant (Weber and Ladkin, 2010).

Particularly, concerning the role of TL in the tourism industry, Bass (1985) acknowledged that TL leads people to perform beyond the level of expectations, which is essential for the tourism industry as motivated employees who go beyond the expectations can create a unique experience for customers which is a basis for customer satisfaction and firms' competitive advantage (Vargas-Sevalle et al., 2020). Further, TL is essential in empowering conditions for employees at work in the tourism industry (Amor et al., 2020). Also, in the tourism industry, transformational leaders aim to shape their employees' values (Wang and Li, 2022).

Importantly, concerning IB, Hughes et al. (2018) recognised the essential role of leadership as catalyst for employee innovative performance due to its capability of shaping work environment and control over resource allocation (Lee et al., 2020a), and this line of research has widely focused on TL (Afsar and Masood, 2018; Amankwaa et al., 2019). TL fosters better employee relationships and provides opportunities for creativity, which may improve innovation performance, and this is likely to happen in the tourism industry (Khan et al., 2020a). Additionally, Lee et al. (2020a) confirmed that transformational leaders are beneficial for innovation as they motivate and inspire their followers by expressing an energizing vision which in turn stimulates their employees to do their best (Avolio and Bass, 1988). Also, transformational leaders' intellectual stimulation encourages followers to question assumptions, think divergently, take risks (Bass, 1985), and generate new ideas and solutions (Hughes et al., 2018).

Specifically, the researcher chooses TL in this study for various reasons. For instance, Judge and Piccolo (2004) described TL as the most influential leadership theory. Furthermore, TL is the most researched leadership style investigated in tourism and hospitality leadership research in comparison with transactional, empowering, servant, and authentic leadership, confirming its importance (Hughes et al., 2018; Sung et al., 2019; Qiu et al., 2019; Boukis et al., 2020; Qiu et al., 2020; Idris et al., 2022; Belias et al., 2022; Ribeiro et al., 2020b; Yilmaz and Konaklioglu, 2022; Shehawy, 2022; Tuan, 2022). Specifically, many studies tried to compare between the impacts of TL and the other 4 styles, namely, transactional leadership (Lee and Ding, 2020; Alrowwad and Abualoush, 2020; Belias et al., 2022; Yilmaz and Konaklioglu, 2022), empowering leadership (Jada and Mukhopadhyay, 2019; Lee and Ding, 2020; Srivastava and Pinto, 2022), servant leadership (Andersen, 2018; Xie, 2020; Shi and Zhou, 2023), and authentic leadership (Baquero et al., 2019b; Grošelj et al., 2021; Korku and Kaya, 2022), emphasising the significance of TL among other leadership styles and the extensive research concerning its impacts on several different outcomes.

However, although Lee et al. (2020a) confirmed the major impact of TL on innovation, it is unclear that TL would foster EIB in the Egyptian travel agents as Hughes et al. (2018) stressed that creativity and innovation might seem different across different contexts. Therefore, it is essential to investigate the impact of TL, particularly its four behavioural dimensions; idealised influence (charisma) (II.C), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individualised consideration (IC) on frontline EIB in the Egyptian tourism industry to determine how these behavioural dimensions influence EIB and provide richer information about the association between TL and EIB.

1.2.3. Innovative Self-Efficacy (ISE) and Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

Empirically examining the indirect effect of TL on EIB through the mediating role of ISE is crucial to determine whether employees' belief in producing innovative outcomes alongside working with their transformational leaders would indirectly stimulate their IBs or not. ISE highlights people's strong internal belief that they can optimistically perform with superior innovation (Dörner, 2012). Also, ISE is expected to impact people's primary decision to engage in IB, their extent of persistence when they encounter difficulties in their work, and the effective utilisation of the competencies they have concerning IB (Dörner, 2012).

Accordingly, if employees believe that they can produce innovative outcomes and work under the supervision of transformational leaders, this significantly could stimulate them to conduct IBs. Therefore, it is vital to explore how ISE might mediate the association between TL and EIB in the Egyptian tourism industry.

Moreover, the moderating role of POS in the association between TL and EIB is examined to see if employees' perceptions of organisational support would strengthen or deteriorate the influence of TL on EIB. Eisenberger et al. (1990) suggested that high levels of POS result in employees' higher engagement in voluntary behaviors, which are more valuable to the organisation. Particularly, Gregory et al. (2010) proposed that when employees perceive that the organisation cares for them, gives honest feedback about their work, and supports their activities, they become motivated to solve more current and future problems, initiate creative ideas, transform their creative inputs into actions, and increase their innovative output. Thus, if employees perceive that their organisation takes care of them and their well-being, and they get support from their transformational leaders, they would be more encouraged to show IBs. Consequently, it is essential to examine how POS might moderate the relationship between TL and EIB in the Egyptian tourism industry.

A review of existing literature in relation to EIB and leadership reveals that several gaps exist. Firstly, regarding EIB, there is a lack of insight into how EIB is realised in the Egyptian tourism industry, which is addressed in this study by examining EIB in the Egyptian travel agents (Sundbo et al., 2007; Chou et al., 2018; Elsetouhi et al., 2022). Addressing this gap would help in providing a better understanding of frontline EIB which is beneficial for travel agents in attracting more customers and achieving a competitive advantage because most travel agents' work depend on frontline employees who are in a constant encounter with customers (Elsetouhi et al., 2022; Yao et al., 2022). Moreover, EIB is explored more in the hospitality industry (Kim et al., 2021; Luu, 2021; Tuan, 2021; Yang et al., 2022; Kumar et al., 2022; Hoang et al., 2022), while it is investigated less in the tourism industry (Sundbo et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2010; Chou et al., 2018; Rastrollo-Horrillo and Rivero Díaz, 2019; Goulaptsi et al., 2019; Elsetouhi et al., 2022), which is addressed in this study by applying on the Egyptian tourism industry, adding more contribution to innovation and tourism literature. That is because the tourism industry is a major pillar impacting Egypt's economy (Selim et al., 2020; Elsetouhi et al., 2022), and so, investigating frontline EIB could benefit the Egyptian tourism industry and add more to its economy because of its main dependance on frontline employees (Yao et al., 2022). Additionally, methodologically, quantitative methods (Deng et al., 2022; El-Kassar et al., 2022; Elsetouhi et al., 2022) are the dominant methods used in the EIB research in comparison with qualitative methods (Chou and Walker-Price, 2018; Zhou and Velamuri, 2018; Kwon and Kim, 2020) and mixed methods (Sundbo et al., 2007; Li and Hsu, 2017). However, in this study, the researcher uses a mixed methods approach by utilising structured questionnaires with triangulation via semi-structured interviews (Decrop, 1999; Saunders et al., 2019; Bans-Akutey and Tiimub, 2021). That is because operationalising IB in quantitative studies should be performed carefully, and this could be enabled by conducting a qualitative study in the specific organisational context (Tuominen and Toivonen, 2011). Particularly, examining EIB in the Egyptian travel agents should be supported by a qualitative analysis as this would help in understanding the nature of IB in this different organisational context and would allow new insights to emerge from the empirical data (Tuominen and Toivonen, 2011).

Secondly, concerning leadership, the researcher has found several leadership styles, including transformational, transactional, empowering, servant, and authentic leadership in which these five styles are the most commonly associated with creativity and innovation (Chang et al., 2015; Hughes et al., 2018; Nasir et al., 2022; Lee et al., 2020a; Baskoro, 2022; Lang et al., 2022; Zarei et al., 2022; Cahit Korku and Sıdıka Kaya, 2022; Lv et al., 2022). However, EIB is not extensively explored by these leadership styles, particularly in the tourism industry, which requires further investigation due to its significance. Accordingly, the researcher addresses this gap by exploring the impact of TL on EIB in the Egyptian travel agents. Exploring the impact of TL on EIB would contribute greatly to the Egyptian tourism industry by examining how transformational leaders stimulate their employees to conduct IBs in this context, adding a competitive advantage to travel agents due to the essential role of TL in influencing IB.

Another gap is that most of TL studies explored its role in general and overlooked the impact of its dimensions (Su et al., 2020; Grošelj et al., 2021; Chung and Li, 2021; Rafique et al., 2022; Lim and Moon, 2022; Korku and Kaya, 2022) which is addressed in this study by examining the impact of TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) on EIB. The researcher specifically investigates TL's dimensions as according to Hughes et al. (2018), failing to analyse the sub-factors of TL leads the impact estimates of this leadership style to be sub-optimal and investigating more contemporary and narrowly specified leader variables tends to have greater impacts than do broad measures of leader variables. Additionally, leadership styles are not evaluated from employees' perspective (Clark et al., 2009). In fact, estimating both managers' and employees' perceptions of leadership styles might have been beneficial in terms of cross-validation (Clark et al., 2009), in which the researcher addresses this gap by investigating how employees perceive TL and its impact on their IB. Besides, the role of TL is not extensively examined in the Egyptian tourism industry (Mohamed, 2016; Atia et al., 2017; Elbaz and Haddoud, 2017; Fouad, 2019) which is addressed in this study by exploring its influence in the Egyptian travel agents. Particularly, exploring the dimensions of TL would benefit the Egyptian travel agents by providing valuable information about how leaders stimulate, motivate, encourage, mentor, coach, and support their employees, increasing their IB. Furthermore, in addition to transformational leadership theory, social exchange theory (SET) is used briefly to support the relationship between TL and EIB in chapter four (conceptual framework).

Thirdly, regarding ISE, although several previous studies investigated the relationship between creative self-efficacy (CSE) and IB (Afsar and Masood, 2018; Abdullah et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2022; Han et al., 2022), few studies examined the relationship between ISE and EIB (Dörner, 2012; Ma et al., 2016; Putri and Etikariena, 2022), highlighting a main literature gap, which is addressed in this study. Specifically, in order for frontline employees to express IBs, they should have the belief and confidence in themselves to do so (Dörner, 2012; Putri and Etikariena, 2022). Accordingly, examining the influence of ISE on EIB would determine whether employees' belief in themselves to provide innovative outcomes could foster them to conduct IBs or not, adding a main contribution to this study. Moreover, in addition to using self-efficacy theory, social cognitive theory (SCT) is employed briefly to explain how ISE might influence EIB which is highlighted in chapter four (conceptual framework).

Fourthly, Ma et al. (2016) examined the mediating role of ISE in the relationship between person-organisation fit and IB and Putri and Etikariena (2022) explored the mediating role of ISE in the association between knowledge sharing behaviour and IB. Nevertheless, no study (according to the researcher's knowledge) investigated the mediating role of ISE in the association between TL and EIB, offering a novel contribution to this study. The researcher believes that the role of ISE is essential because when leaders foster and encourage their employees who believe in themselves to provide innovative outcomes (Dörner, 2012), this could stimulate employees indirectly to conduct IBs, benefiting travel agents. However, without ISE, leaders may or may not foster employees who do not believe in themselves to conduct IBs. Therefore, the mediating role of ISE is examined to assess its influence in the Egyptian travel agents.

Finally, several studies examined the relationship between POS and EIB (Afsar and Badir, 2017; Nazir et al., 2018, 2019; Mathafena and Grobler, 2021; Musenze and Mayende, 2022; Park and Kim, 2022; Muñoz et al., 2023). However, only one study (according to the researcher's knowledge) investigated the moderating role of POS in the relationship between

TL (in general without its dimensions) and EIB among Korean workers (Choi et al., 2016), signifying a main literature gap. The researcher addresses this gap by examining the moderating effect of POS specifically between TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) and EIB among Egyptian frontline employees, adding another contribution to this study. The researcher believes that when employees are supported by their organisations combined with motivation and guidance from their leaders, this would stimulate them even further to provide positive outcomes, including IBs (Choi et al., 2016), adding more advantage to travel agents.

1.3. Research Aim and Objectives

For addressing the previous gaps, this main aim of this study is to investigate the direct and indirect relationship between TL and EIB in the Egyptian travel agents. Frontline employees' contributions are crucial for developing the tourism industry in Egypt, especially in times of crises. During economic and political crises, frontline employees face huge difficulties in dealing with customers, and so they need guidance from their leaders, support from their organisations, and belief in their innovative capabilities to perform their duties efficiently and express IBs. Thus, the study adopts the following objectives;

1) To critically review and investigate the relationship between TL and EIB.

2) To critically examine the mediating role of ISE and the moderating role of POS in the relationship between TL and EIB.

3) To quantitatively estimate the relationship between TL and EIB, the mediating role of ISE, and the moderating role of POS in the relationship between TL and EIB.

4) To provide qualitative insights from frontline employees through triangulation via interviews regarding how TL, ISE, and POS impact EIB.

5) To provide recommendations for travel agents' leaders (owners), frontline employees, and travel agents regarding how to stimulate IBs.

1.4. Significance of The Research

Tourism is acknowledged as one of the most essential industries to the Egyptian economy (Alkathiri and Soliman, 2022) as it is a major source of Egypt's national income and it provides several employment opportunities (Ahmed et al., 2018). Further, tourism has many direct benefits including generating foreign exchange, creating jobs, and contributing to revenues, which result in reducing poverty and improving people's well-being and health (Haiying, 2020). Accordingly, based on the significance of the tourism industry, this study is expected to contribute to tourism, leadership, innovation, self-efficacy, and organisational support research by uncovering the direct and indirect impact of TL on EIB through the mediating role of ISE and the moderating role of POS among frontline employees in the Egyptian travel agents.

Furthermore, this study is expected to provide empirical data regarding TL, EIB, ISE, and POS which can be utilised by future researchers. Moreover, this study intends to provide further insights for future researchers about TL and EIB based on the reviews conducted in chapters two and three. Additionally, the study's results are expected to provide major implications for theory and practice by highlighting what is required from transformational leaders and practitioners in the Egyptian travel agents to foster and stimulate their frontline employees' ISE and IBs. The study's results also intend to emphasise what frontline employees should do to efficiently perceive their transformational leaders' behaviours and their travel agents' organisational support, enabling them to improve their ISE and IBs and engage innovatively with clients. Finally, the study's results are expected to highlight how travel agents should enhance their organisational support practices in order to stimulate their frontline employees' ISE and IBs and overcome the challenges they face in Egypt.

1.5. Structure of The Thesis

This thesis is divided into nine chapters clarified as follows. Chapter one introduces the study's background, the research rationale, the research gaps, the research aims and objectives, the research significance, and finally ends with the structure of the whole thesis.

Chapter two reviews the research in EIB. It starts by conceptualising EIB and distinguishing between employee creativity and EIB. Then, it reviews the main themes in EIB research, its measures, factors impacting EIB, and its methodological trends including research methods, data collection methods, sampling methods, and data analysis methods. Further, it clarifies the gap and limitation in the EIB research and finally ends with a conclusion about the content of this chapter.

Chapter three reviews the research in leadership. It begins by conceptualising leadership and reviewing its various styles. Next, it reviews the leadership research in the tourism and hospitality industry including leadership's main themes, its significance, characteristics, skills, competencies, frameworks, models or measures, issues and challenges, and antecedents and outcomes. Further, it reviews the methodological trends in leadership research including research methods, data collection methods, sampling methods, and data analysis methods. Additionally, it highlights the gap and limitation in leadership research in tourism and hospitality industry and finally provides a conclusion about this chapter's content.

Chapter four presents the conceptual framework of this thesis. It starts by exploring the direct relationship between TL and EIB. Then, it examines the direct relationship between ISE and EIB, and the direct relationship between TL and ISE. Moreover, it investigates the mediating role of ISE and the moderating role of POS in the relationship between TL and EIB, and finally gives a conclusion about the content of this chapter.

Chapter five covers the research methodology which starts by exploring the research philosophy, and emphasising whether this research is deductive, inductive, or abductive. Also, this chapter clarifies the research design of this thesis. Afterwards, it examines the research approach whether quantitative, qualitative, or mixed. Next, it highlights data collection methods including questionnaires' design and layout, translation, pilot testing, validity, and reliability in addition to interviews' design and layout, validity, and reliability. After that, it emphasises the sampling technique procedures including the population, sampling frame, sampling size, and sampling technique regarding both quantitative and qualitative data collection. Subsequently, it highlights quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods. Then, it demonstrates the research ethics, and finally mentions the limitations in the research methodology and provides suggestions for future research.

Chapter six presents the quantitative stage's analysis and findings. This involves analysing the demographic data on the respondents and testing the reliability and validity of the model using SPSS 20. Then, it reveals the hypotheses testing of the causal relationships and their findings using variance-based Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) and ends with a conclusion about the chapter's content.

Chapter seven reports the qualitative stage's analysis and findings, and their linking to the quantitative results, especially concerning the unexpected findings from the quantitative stage, through conducing a thematic analysis using NVivo 9. Next, a conclusion about the chapter's content is provided.

Chapter eight discusses both the quantitative and qualitative findings in relation to previous literature sources (which are reviewed in chapters two, three, and four) to provide the study's overall findings.

Chapter nine reveals the study's conclusion. It summarises the study's findings and provides implications for theory and practice. Finally, this chapter highlights the study's limitations and offers suggestions for future research. In the next chapter, the researcher reviews the research in EIB.

CHAPTER TWO: EMPLOYEE INNOVATIVE BEHAVIOUR

2.1. Introduction

Employee innovative behaviour (EIB), among different levels of innovation is regarded as a fundamental driver of firm innovation (Kallmuenzer, 2018). Also, Yuan and Woodman (2010) declared that EIB is crucial for business success in service industries. Further, Hoang et al. (2022) confirmed that firms are searching for various ways to stimulate EIB to realise their innovation goals and meet their customers' demands. However, according to Gjerald et al. (2021), EIB received less scholarly attention, and previous research had focused more on EIB in manufacturing industries (Javed et al., 2019). Nonetheless, Sheehan (2006) stated that there should be more research on EIB in services, which might be distinguished than that in manufacturing firms. Accordingly, investigating EIB in service context has begun (Li and Hsu, 2016a). In fact, EIB has recently received a significant attention due to a highly complex, competitive, and dynamic economic environment (Škudienė et al., 2018). Furthermore, companies admitted the fact that overall organisational innovation highly relies on promoting individual EIB (Škudienė et al., 2018). So, the ways and possibilities of EIB in the workplace improvement are still a vital topic among practitioners and scholars (De Jong and Den Hartog, 2010).

Therefore, this chapter explores EIB literature. Particularly, as a structure to this chapter, the researcher firstly conceptualises EIB by elaborating the differences between employee creativity and EIB and analysing all relevant definitions and determining the similarities and differences between them. Secondly, the researcher investigates the research in EIB by demonstrating its major themes from the literature including its review, measures, and antecedents. Thirdly, the researcher examines the key underlying theories and major methodological trends containing the research methods, data collection methods, sampling methods, and data analysis methods in order to determine the main gaps and limitations in EIB research. Finally, the researcher concludes this chapter. In the next section, the researcher conceptualises EIB.

2.2. Conceptualising Employee Innovative Behaviour (EIB)

In this section, the researcher differentiates between employee creativity and EIB to give a clear understanding and distinguishing between the two constructs. After that, the researcher classifies the various definitions of EIB in order to give a clear conceptualisation to the concept. The next section starts by differentiating employee creativity and EIB.

2.2.1. Distinguishing Employee Creativity and Innovative Behaviour

Before defining EIB, the researcher in this section distinguishes between employee creativity and EIB because sometimes innovation and creativity have been used interchangeably in the literature (Basadur, 2004). However, El-Kassar et al. (2022) acknowledged that EIB differs from employee creativity and De Jong and Den Hartog (2007) announced that differences between creativity and IB have been identified and discussed. Particularly, Scott and Bruce (1994) declared that creativity is commonly represented as an idea creation while innovation is demonstrated as an idea implementation. Moreover, unlike creativity, IB aims at generating some kind of benefit (Schuh et al., 2018). Interestingly, creativity is often regarded as an element of innovation (Omri, 2015). Specifically, according to Fadaee and Alzahrh (2014), creativity is stated as an individual’s ability that can lead to an invention or idea by the creative person, while innovation is represented as implementing the creative ideas resulted (Hunter et al., 2006).

Importantly, IB can be differentiated from employee creativity for two key reasons. First, creativity is concerned only with idea generation, while IB involves employee’s behaviours relevant to innovation including creation, promotion, and implementation (De Spiegelaere et al., 2014). Second, creativity is typically related to something of absolute novelty, whereas IB is concerned with something of relative novelty (De Spiegelaere et al., 2014).

Moreover, according to Shin and Zhou (2003), innovation is not only a concept concerned with creating new products or services, but also is a broader view directed toward producing novel ideas into the organisational context which are beneficial to consumers. Also, Khan et al. (2015) declared that innovation comprised creativity, novelty, research, and organisational propensity to support novel ideas for achieving competitive advantages in changing contexts. Confirming that, Amabile and Pratt (2016) highlighted that creativity is crucial for IB at work. Likewise, innovation at the individual level has been improved and altered by individuals at different organisational levels (Axtell et al., 2006). Thus, in this context, from the individual approach of innovation, the concept of EIB emerged as a significant concept for competitiveness and companies’ long-term survival (Runco, 2004), making innovative employees the essential asset for several organisations (De Spiegelaere et al., 2014).

2.2.2. Definitions of Employee Innovative Behaviour

After clarifying the differences between employee creativity and EIB, the researcher analyses different definitions of EIB. Numerous definitions to the concept of EIB have been demonstrated by several scholars (Scott and Bruce, 1994; Janssen, 2000; Kleysen and Street, 2001; Van der Vegt and Janssen, 2003; Åmo and Kolvereid, 2005; De Jong and Den Hartog, 2007; Yuan and Woodman, 2010; De Jong and Den Hartog, 2010; De Spiegelaere et al., 2014; Odoardi et al., 2015; Kao et al., 2015; Contreras et al., 2017; Elsetouhi et al., 2022) and many others. The researcher explores these definitions as presented in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1. Definitions of Employee Innovative Behaviour

Author	Definition
Scott and Bruce (1994) Elsetouhi et al. (2022)	A concept encompassing three unified non-sequential behavioural tasks, namely, idea creation, idea promotion, and idea realisation, which is regarded as a one-dimensional variable.
Janssen (2000) Odoardi et al. (2015)	The deliberate production, promotion and implementation of new ideas within a work role, group or organisation to benefit role performance, the group, or the organisation, and represents an extra-role or discretionary behaviour that goes beyond arranged role expectations which is not required from employees.
Kleysen and Street (2001) De Spiegelaere et al. (2014)	All individual behaviour directed at generating, promoting and or realising beneficial novelty at any organisational level such as developing new product ideas or technologies, or applying new ideas or technologies to work processes aimed to significantly improve their efficiency and effectiveness.
Van der Vegt and Janssen (2003)	The interrelated and un-sequential mix of intentional idea generation, idea promotion, and idea realisation to improve performance within a work role, work group, or organisation, and represents a broader and much more complex concept than creative behaviour.
Åmo and Kolvereid (2005)	An initiative from employees regarding producing new products, new markets or combinations of them into the organisation.
De Jong and Den Hartog (2007)	A behaviour including identifying problems and initiating and deliberately creating creative and valuable ideas within a work role, group, or organisation regarding products, services, and work methods, in addition to a set of behaviours necessary to improve, launch, and apply these ideas with the goal of enhancing business.
Yuan and Woodman (2010)	Individual actions focused at creating, processing, and applying new ideas, procedures, and work processes to increase the organisation's effectiveness and success.
De Jong and Den Hartog (2010)	A process encompassing four dimensions; exploration, generation, championing, and implementation of ideas.
Kao et al. (2015)	A frontline employee's creation or realisation of new ideas and skills to his/her customers.
Contreras et al. (2017)	An employee's action directed toward the creation, application and realisation of novel ideas, processes, products, and methods from his/her job position, department unit, or organisation.

Clearly, based on these previous definitions, it is noticed that most of these definitions are similar in which EIB includes idea creation, promotion, and implementation. Also, a scholar consensus existed concerning that EIB is a concept that focused on employees' outcomes via a set of behaviours that are deliberate and could be performed from different organisations' levels (Contreras et al., 2017).

However, despite the similarities in these definitions, there are some differences. For example, Janssen (2000) and Odoardi et al. (2015) stressed that EIB is an intentional and extra-role or discretionary behaviour provided willingly to produce, promote, and implement novel ideas whether in a work role, group or organisation to benefit role performance, the group, or the organisation. On the other hand, Kleysen and Street (2001) and De Spiegelaere et al. (2014) declared that EIB is all individual's behaviours that are directed toward realising a beneficial novelty at any level. This beneficial novelty did not include benefiting performance only like Janssen (2000) and Odoardi et al. (2015) suggested, but also it included developing or achieving novel product ideas or technologies directed toward improving their efficiency and effectiveness. This definition was similar to Yuan and Woodman (2010) who declared that EIB focused on producing, promoting and realising not only novel ideas, but also new procedures to realise organisational success and effectiveness.

Moreover, Åmo and Kolvereid (2005) realised that EIB is a behaviour initiated by employees on their own to only produce novel products, markets, or a mix of them altogether for achieving organisational success. On the other hand, Contreras et al. (2017) agreed that EIB highlights employees' actions directed toward not only producing, but also applying and realising new ideas, products, and methods from their job position, department unit, or organisation. However, the definition of Kao et al. (2015) stated that EIB is a behaviour performed specially by frontline employees to create and realise new ideas, skills, technologies, and procedures, while the definitions of Åmo and Kolvereid (2005) and Contreras et al. (2017) described the IB of all employees in general and not frontline employees specifically.

Importantly, Van der Vegt and Janssen (2003) described EIB as a unified and un-sequential mix of idea creation, promotion, and implementation for improving performance within a work role, work group, or organisation and stressed that this behaviour is broader and a much more complex concept than creative behaviour because EIB involves the creation, the promotion, and the implementation of an idea, while creative behaviour involves only idea creation. That is why Scott and Bruce (1994) and Elsetouhi et al. (2022) simplified EIB by treating it as a one-dimensional construct comprising idea creation, promotion, and realisation. Firstly, idea creation represents the beginning of IB in which employees identify a problem or an opportunity and create new ideas and solutions either adopted or novel (Carmeli et al., 2006; Hoang et al., 2022). Secondly, idea promotion is the stage where employees find support from their leaders or colleagues for the new ideas and find ways to promote their ideas and solutions (Carmeli et al., 2006; Hoang et al., 2022). Finally, idea realisation represents the stage where employees implement the ideas and solutions by generating a model of innovation and then applying it to a task, team, or the organisation as a whole so that the organisation can conduct tests and launch new products, services, or processes (Scott and Bruce, 1994; Carmeli et al., 2006; Hoang et al., 2022).

From another point, De Jong and Den Hartog (2007) addressed EIB as a behaviour encompassing identifying problems and deliberately initiating and producing creative and novel ideas within a work role, group, or organisation concerning products, services, and work methods, as well as a set of behaviours essential for improving and applying these ideas with the goal of enhancing business. From this definition, De Jong and Den Hartog (2007) focused on defining IB as two major stages; initiation and application, not three like Scott and Bruce (1994) stated. Regarding the initiation stage, employees produce ideas by involving in behaviours aimed at exploring opportunities, determining performance gaps, or producing solutions for problems (De Jong and Den Hartog, 2007). Concerning the application stage, employees play a vital role by exhibiting a behaviour oriented toward idea application. For instance, employees who are personally and strongly committed to a certain idea might be able to persuade others of its significance and could exert substantial effort to develop and examine that idea (De Jong and Den Hartog, 2007).

Interestingly, after three years, De Jong and Den Hartog (2010) defined EIB as a multidimensional process comprising four dimensions; ideal exploration, idea generation, idea championing, and idea implementation. Firstly, regarding idea exploration, initiating an innovation process usually has an element of chance like finding an opportunity or exploring some problems (Kanter, 1988). Basadur (2004) defined idea exploration as finding ways to enhance current products, services or processes, or attempting to dwell on them in alternative ways. Secondly, idea generation signifies producing novel products, services or processes, improving current work processes, or generally, providing solutions to identified problems (Kanter, 1988; Amabile, 1988). Further, combining and recognising information and existing concepts for solving problems or improving performance are the keys to idea generation (Kanter, 1988). In fact, those who are good in generating ideas handle problems or performance gaps from different viewpoints and not traditional ones (De Jong and Den Hartog, 2010). Thirdly, after the idea has been generated, championing the idea has become more relevant.

According to Howell et al. (2005), idea championing comprises finding support from leaders or colleagues and establishing coalitions by demonstrating confidence and enthusiasm regarding the success of the innovation, being tenacious, and making the right people involved. Also, Kanter (1988) emphasised that most ideas require championing as they usually are not compatible regarding what is already used in the work group or organisation. Fourthly, ideas should be implemented. In order to make ideas a reality, a substantial effort is required and an attitude oriented toward results is crucial (Kanter, 1988). Idea implementation emphasises making innovations a part of regular work processes (Kleysen and Street, 2001), and it includes behaviours such as developing novel products or work processes and examining and developing them (Kanter, 1988).

Importantly, regarding whether to consider EIB as a process or a concept, EIB's definition presented by De Jong and Den Hartog (2010) focused on incremental, process-related innovations. These innovations have been described using the concepts of individual IB (De Jong and Kemp, 2003) and EIB (Ramamoorthy et al., 2005). Also, Tuominen and Toivonen (2011) stated that a process perspective is usually employed to analyse innovation and change activities empirically. Likewise, according to Slappendel (1996), innovation, as a process, included activities aimed at creating innovation and highlighted the sequential sequence and interface between these activities, and these activities included opportunity exploration, generativity, championing, formative investigations, and application of ideas, in which these activities were seen as micro-level actions conducted in the innovation process (Tuominen and Toivonen, 2011). However, this research departed from typical process studies mentioned above, as the researcher's focus is on the dimensions or types of IBs instead of individual innovation processes, which agreed with the study of (Tuominen and Toivonen, 2011). The primary interest of the researcher is not to describe how individual innovation or change processes continue. Instead, the researcher aims at presenting EIB as a concept including three dimensions or types, namely, idea creation, promotion and implementation, not as a process matching with the studies of Tuominen and Toivonen (2011) and Contreras et al. (2017). In fact, IB studies focus on informal innovative actions in contrast to formal innovation processes (Tuominen and Toivonen, 2011). Moreover, EIB regularly contrasts with prescribed (in-role) work behaviours which refer to those activities that are expected from a person playing a specific organisational role (Katz and Kahn, 1978). Therefore, EIB has been regarded as one type of extra-role behaviour (Odoardi et al., 2015; Gjerald et al., 2021). Besides, as previously mentioned, Contreras et al. (2017) announced that there is a scholar consensus confirming that EIB is a concept focusing on employees' outcomes through a mixture of intentional behaviours that could be performed from various organisation's levels. Thus, the researcher has regarded EIB as a concept, not a process to get a broad view of EIB more than the view that could be gained by a process analysis, matching with the study of (Tuominen and Toivonen, 2011).

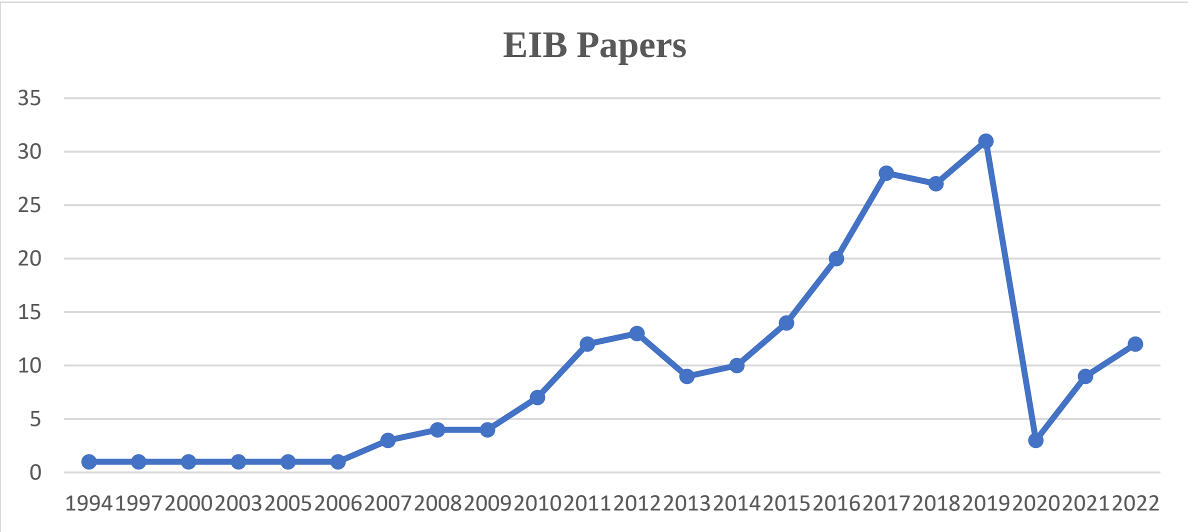
Consequently, based on the analysis of the above definitions and for the research purposes, the researcher adopts and combines the definitions of Janssen (2000) and Kao et al. (2015) and conceptualises EIB as 'a frontline employee's extra-role or discretionary behaviour aimed at intentionally creating, promoting and implementing novel ideas and skills within a work role, group or organisation to benefit role performance, the group, or the organisation'. The researcher has combined these two definitions for two reasons. Firstly, in this research, the researcher is not focusing on the IB of all employees but focusing on frontline EIB in particular because Suhartanto et al. (2018) acknowledged that frontline employees play a vital role in every service encounter and are crucial in realising and changing clients' outcomes. Also, Onsøyen et al. (2009, p. 82) emphasised the significance of frontline employees and highlighted their interactions with organisations' customers as "the core activity". Accordingly, the researcher adopts the definition of Kao et al. (2015). Secondly, the chosen definition described IB as an intentional and extra-role or discretionary behaviour according to Janssen (2000). Specifically, although IB is not a part of employees' daily work, they perform it in order to improve their performance and realise organisational success (Eldor and Harpaz, 2016), highlighting the significance of IBs to these employees despite not being a part of their work requirements. From another point, as previously mentioned, EIB includes generating, promoting, and realising ideas (Scott and Bruce, 1994), but Wang et al. (2015) stated that several studies use EIB as a one-dimensional construct because the multidimensionality of the concept has yet to be proven. Accordingly, EIB is used as a one-dimensional construct in this study, not as a multidimensional construct.

2.3. Research in Employee Innovative Behaviour

In this section, after conceptualising the concept of EIB, the researcher explores the research in EIB by conducting a review to analyse its major research themes, theories, and methodological trends including the research methods, data collection methods, sampling methods, and data analysis methods. This assists in clarifying the major gaps in EIB research and provides a broad view on the concept of EIB. Particularly, the review is based on 212 journal articles whose content has been carefully analysed. Several steps were taken in reviewing the studies. Firstly, the researcher depends on two databases as data sources, namely, the Scopus and Google Scholar based on the criteria that the chosen databases should cover most peer-reviewed journals that focus on innovation (Tranfield et al., 2003). Scopus is regarded as one of the most comprehensive databases of peer-reviewed journals in social sciences, and Google Scholar is one of the largest databases available (Bos-Nehles et al., 2017).

The researcher gathered most papers relevant to EIB during the period 1994 to 2022 as shown in figure 2.1. The 1994 starting year is selected because research on IB has become prevalent since the influential paper of Scott and Bruce (1994). However, the greatest share of the papers collected are focused on the period from 2011 till 2022 totaling 188 papers (see Table 2.2). The papers collected from 1994 till 2010 are fewer (24 papers) and are used as a basis for this review. Specifically, these 24 research papers are categorised as follows: 7 papers in the year 2010, 4 each in the years 2008 and 2009, 3 in the year 2007, and 1 each in the years 1994, 1997, 2000, 2003, 2005 and 2006. Secondly, all papers are explored using a combination of keywords such as ‘employee innovative behavio(u)r’, ‘innovative behavio(u)r’, innovation’, and ‘innovative work behaviour’ which are included in the titles, keywords or abstracts of the papers.

Figure 2.1. Journal Articles Investigated in “Employee Innovative Behaviour”



(Source; The researcher’s own data).

After the entire process, and since the researcher is focusing only on EIB research that is published in journal articles, 257 studies are excluded as they are related to conferences, master theses, doctoral theses, book chapters, and papers about managers’ IB and firm innovation, which did not relate to the research purposes. Eventually, 212 papers are retained. Further, the researcher has collected the journals that are repeated three times or more and the number of papers employed in these journals (85 papers) are represented in Table 2.2. The rest (127 papers) are mentioned once or twice such as Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality &

Tourism, Academy of management journal, Creativity Research Journal, Human Resource Management journal, Journal of Personnel Psychology, Journal of Business Research, Journal of Sustainable Tourism, Journal of Management, Journal of business ethics, Journal of Management Research, Journal of Vocational Behavior, and other various journals. Moreover, regarding collecting papers from these journals, the researcher has gathered all related papers in EIB from Scopus and Google scholar in order. Then, repeated papers from both databases are excluded besides the studies that did not relate to the research purposes. So, there are not any specific selection criteria in choosing these papers. The researcher just collected them randomly.

Table 2.2. Publication Details in Employee Innovative Behaviour Research

Journal name	Number of articles
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	7
International Journal of Hospitality Management	6
Journal of Product Innovation Management	6
International Journal of Innovation Management	6
Sustainability	6
Tourism Management	5
Creativity and Innovation Management	5
The Journal of Creative Behavior	5
Journal of Managerial Psychology	4
European Journal of Innovation Management	4
Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal	4
Journal of Organizational Behavior	4
Personnel Review	4
African Journal of Business Management	4
Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources	3
The International Journal of Human Resource Management	3
Frontiers in Psychology	3
International Journal of Manpower	3
Journal of Applied Social Psychology	3
Total	**85**

Year of Publication	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022
Numbers of Publications	12	13	9	10	14	20	28	27	31	3	5	16

The research papers are classified into two main themes. The first theme contains nine papers that reviewed EIB, while the second theme includes 203 papers focusing on the antecedents of EIB. All 212 papers were read, and data patterns were demonstrated based on a frequency count. Therefore, in the next section, the researcher examines these two main research themes that are employed in these 212 papers.

2.3.1. Key Themes in Employee Innovative Behaviour

One of the earliest studies in EIB date back to the study of Scott and Bruce (1994) in which they stated that IB comprised idea generation, promotion, and implementation. Scott and Bruce (1994) also provided a model of IB consisting of four interacting systems; individual, leader, work group, and climate for innovation. After that, in the next two decades, the research on EIB gained extensive attention by researchers and several authors tried to measure it. So, after exploring 212 papers in EIB from the period 1994 till 2022, the researcher classifies these studies into two major themes; reviewing EIB and its measures, and factors impacting EIB. In the next section, the researcher reviews EIB and its measures.

2.3.1.1. Reviewing Employee Innovative Behaviour and Its Measures

Nine papers out of 212 are related to the first theme of reviewing EIB and its measures (Sundbo et al., 2007; De Jong and Den Hartog, 2010; Meneses and Teixeira, 2011; Tuominen and Toivonen, 2011; Medvedeva, 2012; Li and Hsu, 2016a; Lukes and Stephan, 2017; Bos-Nehles et al., 2017; Kwon and Kim, 2020). Regarding reviewing EIB, Li and Hsu (2016a) performed a comprehensive review on EIB literature using 143 studies published during the period 1995 till 2014, summarised the conceptualisation, operationalisation, antecedents and consequences of EIB, and reviewed the role of job characteristics in impacting EIB in services. Furthermore, Bos-Nehles et al. (2017) conducted a systematic literature review of EIB using 27 studies and explored the impact of human resource management practices on EIB. Additionally, Kwon and Kim (2020) performed an integrative literature review of 34 empirical studies to provide a comprehensive understanding concerning the association between employee engagement and IB through employing the JD-R model and construct a conceptual framework based on empirically validated factors and their associations, in addition to their relevant theories.

Further, Sundbo et al. (2007) examined EIB in tourism firms in Denmark and Spain and developed an innovation model of three levels in the tourism industry; firm level, network level and system level. After 4 years, Meneses and Teixeira (2011) also explored EIB in tourism firms, but focused on the economic significance of tourism, examined tourism competitiveness and innovation, and determined innovation in services and tourism. Moreover, Medvedeva (2012) tried to develop an innovative style of IB in Russia and highlighted the capability to produce innovations and how to make transformations by managing social innovations and using some facilitation methods. From another point, Tuominen and Toivonen (2011) investigated innovation in knowledge-intensive business service (KIBS) firms from the perspective of IB and used it as a conceptual tool in the study of these firms.

Concerning EIB's measures, De Jong and Den Hartog (2010) developed a multi-dimensional measure of EIB with four potential dimensions; idea exploration, generation, championing, and implementation, and the results showed that the evidence for the distinctiveness of these four dimensions was weak, emphasising that EIB is a one-dimensional concept (which is adopted in this study). Seven years after that, Lukes and Stephan (2017) reviewed the existing scales of EIB, developed an integrative model of EIB across cultures, and highlighted that EIB includes idea creation, idea search, idea communication, idea implementation, and involving others and overcoming difficulties. In the next section, the researcher examines the factors impacting EIB.

2.3.1.2. Factors Impacting Employee Innovative Behaviour

The second theme is related to exploring the antecedents of EIB. 203 papers out of 212 focused on the factors impacting EIB. Based on the studies of Anderson et al. (2004) and Zennouche et al. (2014), the researcher classifies the factors impacting EIB based on three main levels of analysis; individual, group and organisational factors.

Firstly, individual factors are defined as those certain factors that relate to individuals which are perceived as antecedents of innovation in organisations (Zennouche et al., 2014). Individuals are more likely to innovate when they do tasks that are fundamentally exciting and represent a meaningful work rather than a limited piece of assembly line functioning (West, 1987). Moreover, individuals are more likely to innovate when they have enough autonomy and control over their work to be able to try out novel and improved ways of doing things (West, 1987).

Secondly, West (2001) defined group factors as those factors that sufficiently integrate the group to facilitate coordinated effort for initiating and sustaining implementation of innovation. Innovation is a vital reason for people to work in groups, and in fact, creativity and innovation in groups usually appear when the group members' desires to belong are fulfilled by group dynamics, creating a shared intent, a sense of safety, high positive interaction levels, and support for exploration (West, 2001).

Thirdly, organisational factors refer to the factors that facilitate forming several interaction networks between employees of all levels, which improve diffusing innovations in the organisation (Kabasheva et al., 2015). Also, organisational factors are described as the organisational components necessary for overall innovation, represent organisational features, and constitute the work environment for individuals working in the organisation (Amabile, 1996a). The researcher has classified these three factors as expressed in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3. Factors Impacting Employee Innovative Behaviour

Level of Analysis	Papers
Individual Factors (68 Papers)	(Basu and Green, 1997; De Jong and Kemp, 2003; Cho and Lee, 2007; Lee, 2008; Chang and Liu, 2008; Knol and Van Linge, 2009; Carmeli and Spreitzer, 2009; Jafri, 2010; Chen et al., 2010; Pundt et al., 2010; Michael et al., 2011; Slåtten et al., 2011; Slåtten and Mehmetoglu, 2011a; Vinarski-Peretz et al., 2011; Slåtten, 2011; Singh and Sarkar, 2012; Jafri, 2012; Romero and Martínez-Román, 2012; Fernandez and Moldogaziev, 2012; Shi, 2012; De Spiegelaere et al., 2012; Xerri and Brunetto, 2013; Bysted, 2013; Wang, 2013; Luoh et al., 2014; De Spiegelaere et al., 2014; Li and Zheng, 2014; Wu et al., 2014; Odoardi et al., 2015; Bysted and Hansen, 2015; Siddiqi, 2015; Afsar and Rehman, 2015; Afsar et al., 2015; Slåtten and Mehmetoglu, 2015; Wisse et al., 2015; Hakimian et al., 2016; Giebels et al., 2016; Weiwei et al., 2016; Ng and Lucianetti, 2016; Alkhodary, 2016; Afsar, 2016; Khalili, 2016; Montani et al., 2017; Fauzia et al., 2017; Li and Hsu, 2017; Wang et al., 2017; Waheed et al., 2018; Afsar and Masood, 2018; Chou et al., 2018; Li and Hsu, 2018; Chang et al., 2018; Tang et al., 2019; Singh and Sarkar, 2019; Helmy et al., 2019; Yusof et al., 2019; Abukhait et al., 2019; Sidharta et al., 2019; Stock et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2021; Tuan, 2021; Wang et al., 2022a; Kumar et al., 2022; Deng et al., 2022; Liang et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022; Verma and Singh, 2022; Aboobaker et al., 2022).
Group Factors (27 Papers)	Hu, 2009; Yuan and Woodman, 2010; Slåtten and Mehmetoglu, 2011b; Aryee et al., 2012; Chang et al., 2013; Mura et al., 2013; Kim and Lee, 2013; Park et al., 2014; Agarwal, 2014; Madrid et al., 2014; Leung et al., 2014; Lai et al., 2016; Li and Hsu, 2016b; Eldor, 2017; Lin et al., 2017; Du et al., 2017; Escriba-Carda et al., 2017; Jung and Yoon, 2018; Afsar et al., 2018; Chou and Walker-Price, 2018; Bani-Melhem et al., 2018; Song et al., 2018; Nazir and Islam, 2019; Eva et al., 2019a; Yang et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022b; El-Kassar et al., 2022).
Organisational Factors (108 Papers)	(Scott and Bruce, 1994; Janssen, 2000; Janssen, 2005; Carmeli et al., 2006; De Jong and Den Hartog, 2007; Reuvers et al., 2008; Tang, 2008; Noefer et al., 2009; Pieterse et al., 2010; Imran et al., 2010; Zhu and Wang, 2011; Imran and Anis-ul-Haque, 2011; Chao et al., 2011; Zhou et al., 2011; Sagnak, 2012; Al-Saudi, 2012; Young, 2012; Streicher et al., 2012; Kessel et al., 2012; Schermuly et al., 2013; Yidong and Xinxin, 2013; Bi and Wang, 2013; Afsar et al., 2014; Ma Prieto and Pilar Perez-Santana, 2014; Kao et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015; Topcu et al., 2015; Pundt, 2015; Ren and Zhang, 2015; Abid et al., 2015; Jiun-Lan and Jeng-Hwan, 2015; Choi et al., 2016; Feng et al., 2016; Dhar, 2016; Kör, 2016; Akram et al., 2016a; Akram et al., 2016b; Kang et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2016; Birdi et al., 2016; Bammens, 2016; Sethibe and Steyn, 2017; Contreras et al., 2017; Garg and Dhar, 2017; Kim and Koo, 2017; Gu et al., 2017; Tian and Sanchez, 2017; Wihuda et al., 2017; Hou, 2017; Hsu and Chen, 2017; Shanker et al., 2017; Afsar and Badir, 2017; Dedahanov et al., 2017; Rhee et al., 2017; Haq et al., 2017; Naranjo-Valencia et al., 2017; Shin et al., 2017; Korzilius et al., 2017; Bagheri, 2017; Bednall et al., 2018; Tayal et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Škudienė et al., 2018; Park and Jo, 2018; Nazir et al., 2018; Newman et al., 2018; Miao et al., 2018; Hou et al., 2018; Luo et al., 2018; Kruft et al., 2018; Zhou and Velamuri, 2018; Lipych et al., 2018; Engelen et al., 2018; Sanders et al., 2018; Bruccoleri and Riccobono, 2018; Yu et al., 2018; Al-Shammari and Khalifa, 2019; Hansen and Pihl-Thingvad, 2019; Li et al., 2019; Pradhan and Jena, 2019; Su et al., 2019; Qi et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019a; Wang et al., 2019b; Opoku et al., 2019; Fang et al., 2019; Javed et al., 2019; Khaola and Coldwell, 2019; Dedahanov et al., 2019; Oluwafemi et al., 2019; Laguna et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2019; Bos-Nehles and Veenendaal, 2019; Nazir et al., 2019; Goulaptsi et al., 2019; Rastrollo-Horrillo and Rivero Díaz, 2019; Hernaus et al., 2019; Zhu and Zhang, 2020; Su et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021b; Luu, 2021; Li et al., 2021; Guo and Zhu, 2022; Hoang et al., 2022; Bagheri et al., 2022; Elsetouhi et al., 2022; Norouzinik et al., 2022; Contreras et al., 2022).

From the table, 68 papers focus on individual factors which contribute greatly to this body of knowledge with (33.50%) of the 203 papers. These factors include topics in employees' organisational commitment (9 papers), psychological empowerment (7 papers), job autonomy (6 papers), self-efficacy (5 papers), employee empowerment (4 papers), 3 papers each for psychological capital, person-organisation fit, motivation, and creativity, 2 papers each for intellectual capital, customer participation, and personality, and one paper each totalling 19 papers for passion, cognition, job design, subjective relational experiences, thriving, core self-evaluation, workplace negative gossip, absorptive capacity, perceived insider status, emotional intelligence, joy, felt obligation, end-user computing satisfaction, artificial intelligence awareness, artificial intelligence enabled task characteristics, regulatory mode, workplace spirituality, customer green involvement, and mobile workplace stress.

Further, concerning work group factors, 27 papers representing (13.30%) that cover various topics are used; work engagement (10 papers), knowledge sharing behaviour (5 papers), knowledge transfer (2 papers), and 10 papers are concerned with other group factors such as mood, coworker support, performance and image outcome expectation, customer-employee exchange, relational orientation, team identification, perceptions of high-performance work systems, knowledge hiding, team reflexivity, and group extraversion and openness diversity.

Moreover, the organisational factors have a central contribution to this body of knowledge with 108 papers representing (53.20%) of the 203 papers, indicating that several authors concentrate more on organisational factors, while individual factors come in second place, and then group factors. These 108 papers investigate many topics related to organisational factors such as organisational climate (13 papers), support (10 papers), organisational justice (3 papers), 2 articles each for organisational structure, rewards, reward fairness, human resource practices, and supervisor feedback, 1 article each totalling 12 papers for social capital, organisational culture, organisational care, organisational trust, innovation job requirement, multiculturalism, operational guidelines, abusive supervision, leader–follower relationship quality, human resource flexibility, organisational compassion, and job demands like job complexity and job innovation requirements, and lastly leadership styles are explored the most (60 papers).

Indeed, leadership styles have a key significance and the majority of studies focused on investigating leadership styles (O'Regan and Ghobadian, 2006). The researcher has gathered most papers related to leadership under a single category called ‘leadership styles’ as there are several types of leadership styles. For example, the researcher has classified leadership styles as follows; transformational leadership (19 papers), leader-member exchange (7 papers), servant leadership (6 papers), entrepreneurial leadership (4 papers), 3 papers each for inclusive leadership and leadership in general, 2 papers each for paternalistic, empowering, ethical, humorous, and self-leadership, and one paper each totalling eight papers for destructive, disruptive, ambidextrous, authentic, relational, participative, narcissistic, and exploitative leadership.

From another point, the researcher has noticed that most of these factors whether individual, group, or organisational are related to internal factors impacting EIB. The external factors did not get much attention from these 203 papers. Only customer participation (Li and Hsu, 2018), customer-employee exchange (Li and Hsu, 2016b), and consumer value co-creation behaviour (Chou et al., 2018) are considered external factors, but several external factors (according to the researcher’s knowledge) have been ignored such as the role of suppliers, cooperation with competitors, the role of subsidies, and changing customers’ needs and wants.

Accordingly, based on exploring these previous factors, in the next chapter (leadership), the researcher explores leadership and its styles in the tourism and hospitality industry, highlighting leadership as a major antecedent to EIB and because it is explored extensively among organisational factors (60 papers). Furthermore, the researcher chooses another two factors other than leadership, which may explain the association between leadership and EIB indirectly, and these two factors are innovative self-efficacy (ISE), which relates to self-efficacy, and perceived organisational support (POS). The researcher specifically chooses these two factors as they have a main role in influencing EIB (Dörner, 2012; Abid et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2016; Afsar and Badir, 2017; Nazir et al., 2019). Accordingly, these two factors are explored in the next sections.

2.3.2. Innovative Self-efficacy (ISE) and Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

Previous studies acknowledged that ISE and POS have a major role in impacting EIB (Dörner, 2012; Abid et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2016; Afsar and Badir, 2017; Nazir et al., 2019). However, before exploring the relationship between ISE and EIB and the mediating role of ISE in the relationship between TL and EIB, the researcher firstly reviews the concept of self-efficacy, its significance, its relation to innovation and tourism, and its types in order to identify the concept of ISE, and secondly provides a literature review regarding ISE. Furthermore, before investigating the moderating role of POS in the relationship between TL and EIB, the researcher reviews POS, its significance, and its role regarding innovation and tourism. Thus, in the next section, the researcher starts by reviewing self-efficacy and its significance to better understand the concept of ISE.

2.3.2.1. Self-Efficacy and Its Significance

Self-efficacy is one of the most essential concepts in contemporary psychology research (Judge et al., 2007), and has been studied extensively in organisational research (Bandura, 1997; Stajkovic and Luthans, 1998). The concept of self-efficacy is developed by Bandura (1997, p. 3) which refers to "the beliefs in one's capabilities to organise and execute the courses of action needed to produce desired results" (cited in Dörner, 2012). Also, according to Uppathampracha and Liu (2022), the idea of self-efficacy highlights that individuals assess their abilities to handle various situations that have occurred to them. Moreover, self-efficacy represents one's perceived competence, one's conviction that he or she can perform the action needed to reach a goal, and an optimistic evaluation of one's likelihood of success (Hughes et al., 2011). Therefore, self-efficacy is not about the number of skills people have, but rather it emphasises individuals' beliefs about what they can do with what they have under different circumstances (Bandura, 1997).

According to Bandura (1977), self-efficacy theory influences the choice of activities and behavioural settings. Furthermore, the amount of effort exerted and the persistence to overcome obstacles are determined by individuals' efficacy expectations (Mokhber et al., 2016). Besides, self-efficacy signifies the belief that individuals have perfect control over their behaviours, actions, and social surroundings or environments (Mustafa et al., 2022). Additionally, Bandura (1991) stated that the main function of self-efficacy is controlling and regulating behaviour and influencing individuals' performance through behavioural regulation. Also, self-efficacy is a reliable indicator of motivation and work performance (Berlanda et al., 2017). Moreover, self-efficacy impacts individuals' mode of thinking and determines their handling of difficulties and setbacks (Bandura, 1986).

Moreover, self-efficacious employees are very determined and enthusiastic in completing their work effectively (Yusof et al., 2019). Also, according to Santoso and Furinto (2019), employees with high self-efficacy are more active, feel more satisfied in their work, and have autonomy in their pursuit toward positive results. Further, individuals with high self-efficacy are more confident and perceive difficulties as challenges (Chen and Zhang, 2019), are capable of delivering good performance in doing their work (Liu et al., 2017), are able to think creatively and actively seek novel ideas for their company's progress (Mustafa et al., 2022), perform more challenging activities that encompass new and creative practices (Bandura, 1997), and solve problems in an innovative manner (Phelan and Young, 2003). Likewise, efficacious individuals are more flexible in gaining information and new experiences (Gong et al., 2009) and show higher levels of intrinsic motivation for developing creativity (Wang et al., 2014). Conversely, employees with low self-efficacy are uncertain about their competence, have low self-evaluation of their capabilities, have negative outcomes (Chen et al., 2016), and believe that tasks are more difficult than they actually are and focus their thoughts on their lacking abilities (Dörner, 2012). In the next section, the researcher reviews self-efficacy in the context of innovation and tourism, and also explores its different types.

2.3.2.2. Self-Efficacy in The Context of Innovation and Tourism, and Its Types

The pivotal role of self-efficacy in the context of innovation has been highlighted from a social cognitive perspective (Farr and Ford, 1990; Bandura, 1997). For instance, Bandura (1997, p. 239) stated that "innovativeness requires an unshakable sense of efficacy". Similarly, Farr and Ford (1990, p. 67) argued that "since change and innovation in a work role might include both uncertainty about future outcomes and possible resistance from others who are influenced by that change, the individual who do not acquire a reasonable amount of self-efficacy faces considerable barriers" (cited in Dörner, 2012). Furthermore, Axtell et al. (2000) indicated that self-efficacy is linked to innovation-related behaviours, and Mustafa et al. (2022) acknowledged that self-efficacy can be productive toward innovation. Likewise, Momeni et al. (2014), Ghosh et al. (2019), and Uppathampracha and Liu (2022) found that self-efficacy is positively associated with EIB.

Concerning tourism, the concept of self-efficacy has been investigated in various fields of the tourism research (Huh et al., 2009; Jaiswal and Dhar, 2015; Fatima et al., 2017; Chang, 2018; Kornilaki et al., 2019; Sharma et al., 2022). For example, Chang (2018) found that creativity related self-efficacy positively influences IB in the tourism industry. Also, Sharma et al. (2022) realised that self-efficacy effectively moderates the impact of various consumers' confusions on their decision postponement in the online tourism domain. Similarly, Jaiswal and Dhar (2015) found a significant moderating role of creativity related self-efficacy in the relationship between innovation climate and employee creativity in tourist hotels. Also, self-efficacy acts as a positive force for adopting tourism based technologies (Huh et al., 2009). Particularly, self-efficacy makes it easier for individuals to adopt tourism products or services and also it impacts individuals to be highly optimistic about the usefulness of a new tourism product or service (Fatima et al., 2017). Further, according to Kornilaki et al. (2019), awareness of, and concern for, tourism impacts affect participants' self-efficacy indirectly by influencing their feelings regarding the need to control events in order to reduce negative impacts.

Interestingly, concerning its types, self-efficacy research distinguishes between two types of self-efficacy; general self-efficacy and task-specific self-efficacy (Chen et al., 2000). General self-efficacy reflects a generalised competence belief in a wide variety of situations (Chen et al., 2004), while task-specific self-efficacy refers to expectations concerning one's ability to conduct a specific behaviour (Chen et al., 2000). Particularly, two types of task-specific self-efficacy exist; creative self-efficacy (CSE) and innovative self-efficacy (ISE), which are an expanded parts of self-efficacy, and since the focus is on ISE in this study, therefore, task-specific self-efficacy should be tailored to the specific domain under study (Bandura, 1986; Gist and Mitchell, 1992), which is the Egyptian tourism industry in this study.

Firstly, the concept of CSE is developed by Tierney and Farmer (2002), following the inspiration and roots of CSE of Bandura (1997), and Gist and Michell's (1992) conceptualisation of self-efficacy (Shamim et al., 2019). CSE is defined as "the belief that one has the ability to produce creative outcomes" (Tierney and Farmer, 2002, p. 1138). Secondly, according to Dörner (2012), the concept of ISE is developed based on the general concept of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986, 1997) and the concept of CSE (Tierney and Farmer, 2002). ISE is defined as a person's belief in his or her abilities to generate innovative outcomes (Dörner, 2012), in which innovative outcomes refers here to EIB. Therefore, the researcher adopts the definition of (Dörner, 2012) because of its strong relation to EIB, matching with this study's objectives. Particularly, since ISE is an innovation-specific, it differs from general self-efficacy that reflects a generalised capability belief in a wide variety of situations (Chen et al., 2004), and also it differs from CSE which is related to creativity that includes idea creation (Scott and Bruce, 1994), while ISE is related to innovation that encompasses not only idea creation, but also idea promotion and idea implementation (De Spiegelaere et al., 2014). Confirming this point, although research has highlighted CSE to be associated with idea creation (Tierney and Farmer, 2002; Gong et al., 2009), EIB (the focus of this study) might require more than CSE alone, as EIB involves idea promotion and implementation in addition to idea creation (Ng and Lucianetti, 2016). Therefore, the researcher specifically selects ISE as it will be more relevant to EIB than CSE.

Furthermore, concerning ISE's significance, Gu and Peng (2010) stated that ISE comprises completing tasks and goals in an innovative way and the confidence of overcoming difficulties in the job (cited in Ma et al., 2016). Moreover, according to Jäkel (2019), employees' ISE results from a strong perception of empowerment, high proactivity levels, and a high job satisfaction levels. Unfortunately, although Bandura (1997) and Farr and Ford (1990) proved that self-efficacy is essential in the context of innovation, a good understanding of ISE and how it impacts EIB is scarce (Dörner, 2012), indicating a major research gap. Therefore, the researcher addresses this gap by further investigating the association between ISE and EIB and the mediating role of ISE in the relationship between TL and EIB in chapter four (conceptual framework). In the next section, POS, its significance, and its role in the context of innovation and tourism are examined.

2.3.2.3. POS, Its Significance, and Its Role in The Context of Innovation and Tourism

POS has attracted a substantial attention among researchers (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Allen et al., 2008; Krishnan and Mary, 2012; Adil et al., 2020; Wang and Wang, 2020; Musenze and Mayende, 2022; Muñoz et al., 2023). Generally, the concept of POS describes the association that employees have with their organisation as a whole (Allen et al., 2003). Additionally, the concept of POS reflects the relationship between employees and their organisations from the perspective of employees and can have important benefits for both employees and employers (Muñoz et al., 2023). Particularly, POS is defined as employees' deepest feelings that their organisation cares for their well-being, emphasises and values their contributions toward the organisation, and helps them with their socio-emotional needs by giving them recognition, respect, and support (Eisenberger, 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002; Allen et al., 2008; Krishnan and Mary, 2012). The researcher adopts this definition because it shows that employees' perceptions regarding organisational support come from their deepest feelings, indicating that employees actually believe that the organisation cares for them and their well-being, recognises and respects them, and helps them to realise their needs and face stressful situations, which are necessary for conducting IBs, matching with the study's objectives. Confirming that point, POS is regarded as an assurance that help will be available from the organisation when necessary to complete one's job effectively and to deal with stressful situations (George et al.,1993).

Interestingly, Adil et al. (2020) described POS as a tangible or intangible support from the organisation toward its employees, and Wang and Wang (2020) stated that the key aim of POS is to provide employees with support and encouragement through intangible or tangible methods. Accordingly, POS creates a normative obligation on these employees by stimulating them to take care of the organisational welfare and help the organisation realise its goals (Rhoades et al., 2001). Further, POS is positively related to positive obligation to the organisation, in which employees with greater POS feel that they are obliged to repay the employing organisation by performing beyond their job description (Perugini et al., 2003; Luksyte and Spitzmueller, 2016), and by developing behaviours and attitudes that are valuable to the organisation (Wójcik-Karpacz et al., 2020). Moreover, employees are more likely to share their knowledge and ideas when they perceive that their organisation rewards them for sharing their knowledge and ideas, supports them, and creates a favourable environment for them (Muñoz et al., 2023).

Concerning its significance, POS increases employees' affective organisational attachment and improves their expectancy that greater effort toward achieving organisational goals will be rewarded (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Additionally, when employees perceive organisational support, they experience positive feedback at work and feel confident that they can complete their work by themselves (Chiang and Hsieh, 2012), while when they do not perceive any support, they adopt a passive attitude toward their work, reducing their efficiency (Wang and Wang, 2020). Moreover, previous studies found that POS is positively associated with organisational citizenship behaviour (Van Knippenberg et al., 2013), employee performance (Riggle et al., 2009), and employee well-being and proactive behaviour (Caesens et al., 2016). Further, Kurtessis et al. (2017) highlighted POS as a key element in employees' willingness to contribute to organisation's success (cited in Musenze and Mayende, 2022).

More specifically, regarding innovation, as cited in Musenze and Mayende (2022), POS is a significant subject to innovation literature (Mokhber et al., 2018). Moreover, POS is considered as a crucial factor for providing necessary and sufficient resources for innovation activities (Suifan et al., 2018). Also, a positive relationship exists between POS and innovation (Eisenberger et al.,1990), and participation in innovative activities (Choi et al., 2016). Particularly, employees need to get the support and recognition from their organisation to explore innovative solutions for problems (Pemberton et al., 2007). Additionally, through ensuring the supportive mechanism, POS fosters employees to be fully devoted to performing innovation activities in the organisation and contribute to organisational innovation by realising creative ideas (Choi et al., 2016). However, when employees perceive low organisational support, they reduce their engagement in innovation activities (Bos-nehles and Veenendaal, 2019).

Furthermore, concerning tourism, Guan and Huan (2019) contributed to the tourism literature by revealing that POS stimulates the impact of human resource management practices, leading to expressing more proactive behaviours from tour guides. Likewise, Demirdelen Alrawadieh and Alrawadieh (2022) confirmed that POS improves tour guides' quality of work life and reduces their burnout levels. Additionally, according to Yim et al. (2018), if tour leaders in travel agencies perceive that they will receive support and rewards on a reciprocal basis, they will voluntarily exert more effort and be loyal to the organisation. Moreover, Page et al. (2018) proved that POS is positively associated with job satisfaction among employees in the visitor economy which is drawn primarily from the tourism and hospitality industry. Also, POS encourages work engagement and task-related behaviours and reduces quitting intentions among employees working in four and five-star hotels (Karatepe et al., 2022). However, POS and its relation to TL and EIB in the tourism industry is not extensively investigated, signifying a major literature gap. Therefore, in this study, the researcher addresses this gap by further exploring the moderating role of POS in the association between TL and EIB in chapter four (conceptual framework). In the next section, the researcher investigates the methodological trends including the research methods, data collection methods, sampling methods, and data analysis methods employed in EIB research.

2.3.3. Methodological Trends

2.3.3.1. Research Methods

After investigating the underlying theories in the EIB research, the researcher conducts a frequency analysis to determine the research methods adopted. The results, as exhibited in Table 2.4, acknowledged that quantitative methods dominated the EIB research. Among the 212 papers examined, 199 papers (93.87%) utilised quantitative methods, while 11 papers (5.19%) and 2 papers (0.94%) employed qualitative methods and mixed methods, respectively.

Table 2.4. Research Methods Employed in Employee Innovative Behaviour Literature

Research methods	Frequency	Percent
Quantitative methods	199	93.87
Qualitative methods	11	5.19
Mixed methods	2	0.94
Total	212	100%

2.3.3.2. Data Collection Methods

After analysing the research methods, another frequency analysis, as demonstrated in Table 2.5, was performed for the data collection methods employed in EIB research. The results revealed that, among the 199 papers which used quantitative methods, the questionnaire survey (198, 93.40%) was the most popular data collection method and only one paper used both a questionnaire and an experimental study (1, 0.48%).

On the other hand, regarding qualitative methods, two papers (0.94%) used questionnaire survey (open-ended questions) and two papers (0.94%) conducted interviews. Also, seven papers (3.30%) provided a literature review, and accordingly, no data collection methods were provided. Thus, the researcher has named them "Non-applicable" in table 2.5. Finally, concerning mixed methods, two papers (0.94%) used questionnaire survey and interviews.

Table 2.5. Data Collection Methods Employed in Employee Innovative Behaviour Literature

Research methods	Data collection methods	Frequency	Percent
Quantitative methods	Questionnaire survey	198	93.40
	Questionnaire survey and experimental study	1	0.48
Qualitative methods	Questionnaire survey	2	0.94
	Interviews	2	0.94
	Non-Applicable	7	3.30
Mixed methods	Questionnaire survey and interviews	2	0.94
Total		212	100%

2.3.3.3. Sampling Methods

After stating data collection methods, the researcher examines sampling methods employed in EIB research. Sampling method is an essential feature of the data collection process as it not only represents the target populations of research papers, but also it clarifies whether the findings of a study can be generalised or not (Berndt, 2020). Also, frequency analyses are established for target population, sampling method and sample size.

A detailed review of research samples focuses on the target population in EIB research. As exemplified in Table 2.6, the frequency analysis of the target market showed that China is the most widely target population researched (58, 27.36%), followed by Korea, India, and Taiwan with 13 papers examined for each (6.13%), and then the Netherlands (12, 5.66%). Other target populations receive a considerable attention like Pakistan (8, 3.77%), United states of America (USA) (6, 2.83%), Germany and Norway with five papers investigated for each (2.36%), and Italy and Indonesia with four papers explored for each (1.89%).

Moreover, the category "other" in Table 2.6 includes 46 papers covering other different regions that receive a little attention and are mentioned in less than four papers. For instance, three papers each (1.42%) are explored for the regions including Malaysia, Africa, Vietnam, Thailand, Iran, Israel, Spain, and Turkey, while two papers each (0.94%) are examined for the target population in United Arab Emirates (UAE), Denmark, Jordan, Belgium, Australia, and Portugal. Additionally, the least explored target population involve Lebanon, Egypt, Venezuela, Bahrain, Greece, Croatia, Asia, United Kingdom (UK), Ukraine, and Colombia since only one paper (0.47%) for each region is examined.

Interestingly, 12 papers (5.66%) include mixed target populations. For example, Engelen et al. (2018) use target populations from Germany, China, Australia, Greece, Hungary, Korea, Malaysia, the Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Thailand, Turkey, and United Kingdom (UK), while Lukes and Stephan (2017) investigate the target population including Switzerland, Germany, Italy and the Czech Republic. Also, Sundbo et al. (2007), Bysted and Hansen (2015), Birdi et al. (2016), Khalili (2016), Bednall et al. (2018), Kruft et al. (2018), Newman et al. (2018b), Sanders et al. (2018), Škudienė et al. (2018), and Laguna et al. (2019) examine mixed target populations.

Finally, 13 papers (6.13%) did not specifically determine the location of the target population. Thus, the researcher has marked them as "Non-Applicable". Accordingly, from this analysis' results, the researcher concludes that the Egyptian tourism industry is underrepresented in EIB literature. This finding justifies the researcher's investigation into the Egyptian tourism industry.

Table 2.6. Target Population in Employee Innovative Behaviour Literature

Target population (Location)	Frequency	Percent
China	58	27.36
Korea	13	6.13
India	13	6.13
Taiwan	13	6.13
The Netherlands	12	5.66
Pakistan	8	3.77
United States of America (USA)	6	2.83
Germany	5	2.36
Norway	5	2.36
Italy	4	1.89
Indonesia	4	1.89
Mix	12	5.66
Other	46	21.70
Non-Applicable (N/A)	13	6.13
Total	212	100%

Another frequency analysis is employed for the sampling methods in the EIB literature. Unfortunately, according to the results, 128 papers did not mention the sampling methods; (117, 55.19%) for quantitative research, (10, 4.72%) for qualitative research, and (1, 0.47%) for mixed methods research, and so, the researcher has labeled them as "Non-Applicable". Although this phenomenon is understandable in qualitative research as it mostly conducts literature review research, this piece of information is indeed missing in many quantitative papers that use questionnaire surveys.

For quantitative research, random sampling is the most popular sampling method whether it is simple random sampling (49, 23.11%) or stratified random sampling (7, 3.30%). Convenience sampling is the second popular sampling technique with 17 papers (8.02%), followed by purposive sampling (5, 2.36%), and then snowball sampling (3, 1.42%). Further, only one paper (0.47%) used mixed sampling methods. Particularly, Jafri (2012) utilised convenience sampling and snowball sampling.

On the other hand, regarding qualitative research, only one paper (0.47%) utilised purposive sampling which is used by (De Jong and Den Hartog, 2007). Finally, for mixed methods research, only one paper (0.47%) employed mixed sampling methods. Particularly, Li and Hsu (2017) employed convenience sampling and quota sampling. The summary regarding the frequency analysis of the sampling methods is shown in Table 2.7.

Table 2.7. Sampling Methods Employed in Employee Innovative Behaviour Literature

Research Methods	Sampling Method	Frequency	Percent
Quantitative Methods	Simple Random Sampling	49	23.11
	Stratified Random Sampling	7	3.30
	Convenience Sampling	17	8.02
	Purposive Sampling	5	2.36
	Snowball Sampling	3	1.42
	Mix	1	0.47
	Non-Applicable	117	55.19
Qualitative Methods	Purposive Sampling	1	0.47
	Non-Applicable	10	4.72
Mixed Methods	Mix	1	0.47
	Non-Applicable	1	0.47
Total		212	100%

In the end of this section, the researcher also analyses and demonstrates the sample size of the EIB papers as exhibited in Appendix 2.1. This analysis combined the sample size with the factors of research methods (quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods) and the sampling category (i.e., hospitality industry, tourism industry, manufacturing industry, health sector, knowledge sector, technological sector, educational sector, mix of them, and other sectors).

As shown in Appendix 2.1, regarding sample size, several quantitative papers utilised a sample size larger than 200 (48 papers), followed by a sample size larger than 100 (38 papers) and then a sample size larger than 300 (36 papers). One the other hand, only three qualitative papers used a sample size that falls within 1 and 100 and eight other qualitative papers did not mention the sample size as most of them depended on literature review and did not use any primary or secondary data. So, the researcher has put them as "Non-Applicable" in the appendix.

Concerning the sampling category, many quantitative papers employed samples from "mix" or "other" categories. The category "Mix" (65 papers) includes several sectors/ industries that are explored together in several papers such as manufacturing companies, health sector, technological sector, service sector, hospitality and tourism industry, SMEs, and other sectors. On the other hand, the category "other" (32 papers) contains other sectors that are not researched greatly like the textile industry, industrial companies, clothing industry, banks, retail industry, engineering companies, beauty salons, automobile sector, fashion houses, food sector, public sector, construction organisations, and other sectors.

Interestingly, a substantial number of quantitative papers collected data from the hospitality and technological sectors/industries (29 papers each), manufacturing and health sectors/industries (12 papers each), and educational sector (10 papers). Tourism and knowledge sectors/industries are the least categories researched (5 papers each). On the other hand, regarding qualitative research, two papers collected data from the knowledge sector, while only one paper collected data from the manufacturing industry, and eight papers did not clarify the sector researched, and so, they are labelled as "Non-Applicable". Finally, concerning the mixed methods research, one paper used a sample size larger than 500 from the hospitality industry and one paper utilised a sample size larger than 600 from the tourism industry.

2.3.3.4. Data Analysis Methods

Data analysis techniques represent another crucial methodological component for all research papers. After inspecting data collection and sampling methods employed in EIB research in the previous sections, the researcher examines data analysis methods in the literature in this section. Reviewing EIB literature determined 44 quantitative data analysis methods, which are clarified in Table 2.8. A frequency analysis is conducted for the identified quantitative methods. Generally, the 44 identified quantitative analysis methods appeared 667 times in the 199 papers.

The frequency analysis shows that descriptive statistics are the most commonly employed data analysis method for quantitative papers (163, 24.44%), followed by correlation (155, 23.24%), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (83, 12.44%), structural equation modelling (SEM) (66, 9.90%), and regression analysis (32, 4.80%). Also, other data analysis methods are used in more than three papers such as multiple regression analysis and hierarchical regression analysis (21 papers each, 3.14%), path analysis and common method bias (CMB) (14 papers each, 2.10%), exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and hierarchical linear modelling (HLM) (12 papers each, 1.80%), hierarchical multiple regression analysis (10, 1.50%), analysis of variance (ANOVA) (8, 1.20%), T-test and multilevel structural equation modelling (MSEM) (6 papers each, 0.90%), and Pearson correlation and ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analysis (4 papers each, 0.60%).

From 1994 till 2003, the major focus was on descriptive statistics, correlation, path analysis, and regression analysis. In the recent years, these methods are still used, but also several other methods have been employed such as structural equation modelling, exploratory factor analysis, analysis of variance, t-test and other methods. Although the researcher did not compare the quantitative data analysis methods employed in different periods statistically, this phenomenon is confirmed through the literature review process because the recently published papers are inclined to cover a more holistic analysis by employing multiple data analysis techniques.

On the other hand, concerning qualitative data analysis methods, most of the papers researched depend on literature review, and thus the most commonly utilised data analysis method is coding. This phenomenon is noticed by Hung and Lu (2016, p. 141), as they state in their study that “coding is the main strategy employed for extracting and processing data from the transcripts”. Further, Hung and Lu (2016) demonstrate different terms in their writing such as “indexing”, “coding”, “theming”, and “interpretive thematic analysis”. In the next section, the researcher determines research gap and limitation.

Table 2.8. Quantitative Data Analysis Methods in The Employee Innovative Behaviour Literature

Quantitative data analysis methods	Frequency	Percent
Descriptive statistics	163	24.44
Path analysis	14	2.10
Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)	83	12.44
Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)	12	1.80
Explanatory factor analysis (EFA)	1	0.15
Analysis of variance (ANOVA)	8	1.20
Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA)	1	0.15
Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)	66	9.90
Multilevel Structural Equation Modelling (MSEM)	6	0.90
Latent Growth Modelling (LGM)	1	0.15
Covariance Based Structural Equation Modelling (CB-SEM)	3	0.45
Hierarchical Linear Modelling (HLM)	12	1.80
Correlation	155	23.24
Pearson Correlation	4	0.60
Spearman Correlation	2	0.30
Bivariate Correlation	2	0.30
Intraclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC)	3	0.45

Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs)	1	0.15
Chi-Square Statistics	1	0.15
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	1	0.15
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	1	0.15
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	1	0.15
Tucker–Lewis Coefficient (TLI)	1	0.15
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	1	0.15
Multilevel Random Coefficients Model (MRCM)	1	0.15
Univariate statistics	1	0.15
T-test	6	0.90
Sobel test	3	0.45
Shapiro-Wilk test	1	0.15
Mann-Whitney U test	1	0.15
Common Method Bias (CMB)	14	2.10
Regression analysis	32	4.80
Logistic regression analysis	2	0.30
Bivariate regression analysis	1	0.15
Constrained nonlinear regression (CNLR) analysis	1	0.15
Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analysis	4	0.60
Ordered logit model (OLM) regression analysis	1	0.15
Ordered probit model (OPM) regression analysis	1	0.15
Multilevel Logit Regression analysis	1	0.15
Multiple logistic regression analysis	1	0.15
Multiple regression analysis	21	3.14
Hierarchical Regression Analysis	21	3.14
Hierarchical Multiple regression analysis	10	1.50
Hierarchical multiple stepwise regression analysis	1	0.15
Total	667	100%

2.4. Gap and Limitation in EIB Research

Indeed, EIB has a great contribution in research as demonstrated by previous researchers. However, despite the extensive research in EIB, some gaps existed in the literature. For instance, although reviewing 212 papers is thorough, it is still by no means exhaustive. The sorting process performed by the researcher may have neglected some related papers and some recent papers could not be retrieved. Further, regarding EIB's definitions, as mentioned in table 2.1, several definitions are given to EIB and some of them have similarities to each other and also differences. However, there is no unified definition for EIB. The researcher concludes that no unified definition is given as some researchers define IB as a process (De Jong and Den Hartog, 2010) and some others define it as a concept (Tuominen and Toivonen, 2011) which result in different definitions. Nevertheless, for the research's purposes, the researcher defines EIB as a concept. This is essential because according to Tuominen and Toivonen (2011), defining EIB as a concept would provide a clearer and broader view of EIB than the view that could be obtained by a process analysis.

Furthermore, EIB with comparison to group or firm innovation, receives less attention (Li and Hsu, 2016a), and earlier research is inclined to focus on manufacturing rather than service industries (Ramamoorthy et al., 2005; Javed et al., 2019). The researcher determines that earlier research focuses more on manufacturing industries maybe because it is easier to deal with tangible products that can be stored (Albu, 2015). Also, Birdi et al. (2016) and Montani et al. (2017) claim that EIB is more relevant in manufacturing departments. However, in producing a service, things are different as the service is intangible and cannot be stored (Albu, 2015). In this research, the researcher addresses this gap by exploring EIB in the service industry, especially in the tourism industry because there is a specific feature of service called "simultaneity of production and consumption", meaning that in services' innovation, customers could also be involved in the service, leading to meeting their desires quickly and accurately more than manufacturing industries (Albu, 2015).

Regarding EIB's measures, many researchers consider EIB as a one-dimensional concept and few regard it as a multi-dimensional concept. However, there is not enough evidence confirming that one dimension is better than several dimensions. Moreover, the multidimensionality of the EIB concept has not been proven yet (Wang et al., 2015). Also, until now, researchers are still trying to measure the concept effectively. Therefore, further research is needed to determine what is the best measure that would represent EIB effectively whether it is a one-dimensional measure or a multi-dimensional measure. Additionally, a few studies made a review about the concept of EIB (Li and Hsu, 2016a; Kwon and Kim, 2020) which necessitates further investigating from future researchers to clarify the concept further and provide more valuable insights.

Concerning factors impacting EIB, most research focuses on exploring the organisational and individual factors, but group factors did not get the same attention as the other factors, necessitating further investigation by future researchers as groups have major roles in the organisational functioning. Additionally, most previous research investigates only internal factors and few mentions the impact of external factors. Therefore, future research should focus more on examining group factors and also giving more attention to external factors for clarifying the concept better. Another point is that several studies consider EIB as the dependent variable and investigate its antecedents (Bagheri et al., 2022; Elsetouhi et al., 2022). However, few studies explore EIB's outcomes (Deng et al., 2022; El-Kassar et al., 2022) which should be focused on in the future by future researchers for gaining further insights about EIB and its impacts.

Regarding the methodological trends, firstly, as for research methods demonstrated in Table 2.4, quantitative methods are the dominant methods used (93.87%), and few papers use either qualitative methods or mixed methods. The researcher concludes that previous research use quantitative methods more often maybe because it is easier to depend on collected data to justify the results. However, in this study, the researcher uses mixed methods using questionnaires and interviews. According to Tuominen and Toivonen (2011), operationalising IB in quantitative studies should be made cautiously, and this could be enabled by conducting a qualitative study in the specific organisational context. Particularly, in this research, there is a lack of insight into how EIB is perceived in the Egyptian tourism industry. Therefore, examining EIB in the Egyptian travel agents should be supported by qualitative analyses, and this would help in understanding the nature of IB in this different organisational context and would allow new insights to emerge from the empirical data (Tuominen and Toivonen, 2011).

Secondly, regarding the target population demonstrated in Table 2.6, the researcher finds that several studies are conducted in China (27.36%), Korea, India, and Taiwan (6.13% each), and the Netherlands (5.66%). However, there are other locations that did not get much attention such as United Kingdom (UK), Ukraine, and Bahrain with one paper each (0.47%), and many other locations including Egypt, which is the researcher's focus, representing a major gap in literature, in which the researcher addresses by conducting this study in Egypt. Particularly, tourism mainly depends on the existence of numerous tourist attractions, whether they are cultural, historical, or natural, to provide unique tourist experiences for tourists during their stay in tourist destinations (Perera, 2013), and Egypt is a significant example of these tourist destinations. Specifically, Egypt's natural geographical position, exceptional tourist attractions and facilities, beautifully pleasing landscape and climate, and unique culture and history are perceived as the most significant satisfying attributes for tourists (El-Said and Aziz, 2019; Elsayeh, 2020; Marzouk, 2022). Furthermore, according to Avraham (2016), Egypt is a strong tourism brand providing numerous types of tourism resources and destinations that attract millions of tourists every year, making tourism its primary industry. For instance, in Egypt, there are several Roman, pharaonic, and Greek antiquities which have made whole cities to look like open museums (El Gohary, 2012). Particularly, the Grand Egyptian Museum is regarded as one of the most significant museums in the current century due to its unique location, features, and cultural importance (Abdelmoaty and Elmohmady Abd El-Hady Salama, 2021).

Moreover, Egypt has several historical, cultural, and natural resources and attractions to charm and attract tourists to visit Egypt including the Red Sea and its amazing excursions such as safari tours, snorkelling, diving, and beach buggy (Hilmi et al., 2018; Hasan, 2018; Barakaat et al., 2018), gorgeous beaches such as Sahl Hasheesh and Makadi Bay (Sharaan et al., 2020), beautiful resorts in Hurghada and Sharm El-Sheikh (Radwan and Radwan, 2017; Khalaf et al., 2020), delicious food (Rady et al., 2021), and historical and ancient sites to explore such as the pyramids (Logan, 2021; Bierbrier, 2022), the Sphinx (Sharan, 2022), exquisite tombs in Luxor (Abd Eljalil, 2015), Abu Simbel temple (Zivaljevic-Luxor and Pasternak, 2022), and the Nile River as a natural heritage place (Shetawy, 2017).

Additionally, Egypt has a set of innovative practices in the tourism industry, contributing significantly to realising a competitive advantage for Egypt and attracting several tourists with their various classes and categories to visit Egypt, and these innovative practices include providing new tourism products and services to satisfy tourists' needs and desires in addition to training young people to work through innovative training programs (Elzek et al., 2020b). Accordingly, Egypt is considered as a significant tourist attraction source, and so, it is vital to explore how to stimulate frontline employees' IBs to attract more tourists to visit Egypt and enjoy its magnificent attractions.

From another point, as shown in Appendix 2.1, another gap highlights that several studies are conducted in the hospitality industry which is explored 30 times (29 quantitative papers and 1 mixed methods paper), while the tourism industry is investigated only six times (5 quantitative papers and 1 mixed methods paper). Therefore, the researcher addresses this gap by applying on the Egyptian tourism industry, adding more contribution to EIB literature.

2.5. Conclusion

This chapter aims to give a detailed examination of EIB literature. After exploring 212 papers, this chapter states the differences between employee creativity and IB and conceptualises the concept of EIB. Moreover, EIB is reviewed alongside its measures and antecedents. After that, various theories are examined and methodological trends are explored by analysing the research methods, data collection methods, sampling methods, and data analysis methods. Finally, gaps and limitations in EIB research are elaborated and potential solutions to some of these gaps are presented. In the next chapter, the researcher explores and reviews leadership research in the tourism and hospitality industry as it is considered a major antecedent to EIB.

CHAPTER THREE: LEADERSHIP

3.1. Introduction

The role of leadership in an organisation is to establish a vision and set the overall objectives (Ho et al., 2022), and to give directions, and motivate others and give them purpose (Bavik and Koseoglu, 2022). Also, Diaz-Saenz (2011) and Dubrin (2012) acknowledged that leadership behaviours are vital determinants of organisational success and Yukl (2013) declared that leadership is the solution to most organisational problems. Specifically, Riaz and Haider (2010) stated that effective leaders lead organisations to success by focusing more on expected future events. Moreover, Liden et al. (1997) confirmed that leaders form the working environment and the nature of work tasks. Additionally, Nicholson et al. (2020) stated that leaders are prepared to take risks and support others to be risk takers. Further, leadership plays an essential role in establishing high-performing teams and is one of the critical factors in promoting organisational performance (Betroci, 2009), and has been identified as one of the main elements in stimulating innovation (Jung et al., 2003). Besides, leaders are responsible for the well-being and performance of their followers (Kelemen et al., 2020) and Fischer et al. (2017) acknowledged that leaders influence employee behaviour by leveraging employees' assets such as motivation (Lee et al., 2020a). Likewise, effective leaders foster employees by supporting their improvement, sharing their feelings, and taking care of their concerns (Chang et al., 2020).

Particularly, regarding the role of leadership in the tourism and hospitality industry, Petkovski (2012) confirmed that tourism is considered as a vital factor in determining the general development of a state or a society and its core characteristic is the regional, local, and global mobility of people, whereas Chang et al. (2020) acknowledged that hospitality is a labour-intensive industry concentrating on employee performance. Additionally, Petkovski (2012) stressed that tourism and hospitality industry impact the exchange of goods globally and demonstrate a bridge uniting people and cultures from all over the world, and so, as it is the case with any other economy sector, good leadership skills are the main factor for development and efficient and effective functioning of tourism and hospitality organisations. Further, Bavik and Koseoglu (2022) acknowledged that leadership is significant in tourism and hospitality as treating employees as valued partners is essentially associated with guest satisfaction. Also, Wang and Jing (2009) revealed that tourism and hospitality organisations encounter many difficulties and these difficulties continue to pressure them to do more with less resources. Therefore, as hospitality and tourism organisations continue to face struggles in providing service standards with decreasing resources, Testa and Sipe (2012) proposed a service-leadership competency model as a vital tool for leaders to enlarge their employees' efforts and directly affect the guest service experience. Furthermore, Adams and Waddle (2002) realised that selecting and promoting future leaders are necessary survival tasks for most tourism organisations. Besides, since the tourism industry, which is the researcher's focus, is dominated by services and experiences, employees play an important role in delivering a quality product, and to stimulate and get the best performance from those employees, the role of effective leadership is significant (Weber and Ladkin, 2010).

Consequently, in this chapter, the researcher focuses on critically reviewing leadership literature as it is regarded as a crucial antecedent of EIB because leaders influence employees' behaviours by stimulating their learning and motivation (Fischer et al., 2017; Hoang et al., 2022). Also, this chapter provides a major basis in the conceptual framework of this study. Specifically, as a structure to this chapter, the researcher firstly reviews a range of definitions in leadership so as to conceptualise the working definition of leadership for this research. Secondly, the researcher explores different leadership styles to determine which style is mostly researched and which style will be most suitable for impacting EIB. Thirdly, the researcher reviews leadership research in the tourism and hospitality industry by examining its key themes, underlying theories, and major methodological trends in order to determine the gap in leadership literature. Finally, the researcher provides a conclusion to this chapter. In the next section, the researcher begins by conceptualising leadership.

3.2. Conceptualising Leadership

Despite the extensive research on leadership, no agreed definition of leadership has been reached and that is due to the various schools of thoughts that provide different perspectives on its nature (Yukl, 2010; Wang and Li, 2022). For example, according to Huber (2014), in the late 1950s, the definition of leadership was divided into two themes; classical definition and human relations' definition.

The classical definition highlighted that that a man is static and passive, and so, he can be controlled by specific leadership traits and transactional systems (Huber, 2014). The leader's power here come from role tenure, while rewards are based on economic and physiological needs (Lee and Lawrence, 2013; Miller, 2014). On the other hand, according to the human relations' definition, the leader's power here come from norms cultivated with a group, the ability to control one's own self, and the ability to train, whereas rewards focus on realising social and psychological needs such as self-esteem or the need for approval (Lee and Lawrence, 2013; Miller, 2014). Furthermore, several definitions have appeared in the past and some of them are summarised in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Definitions of Leadership

Author	Definition
Bernard (1927)	Leadership guides the attention of group members into the desired direction.
Knickerbocker (1948)	Leadership comprises a relationship between an individual and a group.
Stogdill (1950)	Leadership is the process of influencing or impacting the activities of an organised group in its effort toward goal setting and goal accomplishment.
(Bavik and Koseoglu, 2022).	
Belias et al. (2022)	
Bass (1961)	Leadership is an individual's effort to change the behaviour of others.
Burns (1978)	Leadership involves transforming followers, creating visions of the goals that may be achieved, articulating ways for the followers to achieve those goals, and mobilising resources to stimulate, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers.
Yukl (1981)	Leadership encompasses essential processes that impact subordinates' actions.
Bass (1990)	Leadership is defined as an interaction between two or more group members which frequently involves constructing or reconstructing the situation, the perceptions, and expectations of members.
Handy (1992)	Leadership involves forming and sharing a vision which gives direction to the work of others.
Bennis and Townsend (1995)	Leadership is the capacity to produce a powerful vision and to translate vision into organisational realities.
Daft (1999)	Leadership is the influential association that occurs between leaders and followers who seek to make changes that indicate their shared purposes.
Robbins and Coultar (2005)	Leadership is a process including the effects of individuals and the group towards the realisation of goals.
Kofman (2006)	Leadership is a process by which a person sets a goal for others to follow and inspires them to seek it with effectiveness and full commitment.
Schermerhorn (2008)	Leadership is a process that fosters others to work hard to achieve tasks.
Oke et al. (2009)	Leadership is a social process taking place in a group context in which leaders impact their followers' behaviours to achieve required organisational goals.
Dubrin (2012)	Leadership is the leaders' ability to foster confidence, encouragement, and support among their followers who are required to achieve the organisational goals.
Yukl (2013)	Leadership is defined as a trait, behaviour, impact, or relation between a leader and followers, or the role associations of an administrative position.
Callahan and Grunberg (2018)	Leadership is an impact on individuals and groups by promoting behaviours (actions), cognitions (perceptions, thoughts, and beliefs), and motivations (reason behind acting) to accomplish goals that benefit the individuals and groups.
Grunberg et al. (2019)	Leadership is defined as the social psychological processes, interpersonal and group dynamics, and impacts on all aspects of psychology; behaviours, cognitions, and motivations of others.
Northouse (2021)	Leadership is a process in which an individual impacts a group of individuals to achieve certain goals.

Over the last 100 years, several definitions have been given to leadership as shown in Table 3.1. However, Bass and Bass (2008) argued that the search for a single definition of leadership may be futile as the correct definition of leadership depends on the interest of the researcher and the type of situation or problem being studied (McCleskey, 2014). Therefore, the researcher summarises some of these definitions in order to conceptualise a leadership definition to adopt in this study.

Mainly, Bratton (2020) clarified that leadership is defined as a trait, a behaviour, a power, and a process. Particularly, leadership as a trait is defined as "an interaction between certain traits of one person and other traits of the many in such a way that the actions of the many are altered by the one's actions" (Bogardus, 1934, p. 3) (cited in Bratton, 2020). Also, Galton (1869) defined leadership as an exceptional property of remarkable individuals whose decisions radically alter the streams of history occasionally (cited in Zaccaro, 2007). Furthermore, as a behaviour, leadership is defined as "an individual's behaviour involving in directing group activities" (Hemphill and Coons, 1957, p. 7) (cited in Bratton, 2020). Besides, as a power, leadership is considered "a specific type of power relationship demonstrated by a group member's perception that another group member has the right to impose behaviour patterns for the former regarding his/her activity as a certain group member" (Janda, 1960, p. 358). Moreover, as a process, leadership is defined as "a formal or informal contextually imbedded and goal-influencing process that takes place between a leader and a follower, groups of followers, or institutions" (Antonakis and Day, 2018, p. 5). This shows the diversity in defining leadership.

Furthermore, Antonakis et al. (2004) summarised the leadership definitions of previous scholars like Bernard (1927), Knickerbocker (1948), Stogdill (1950), Bass (1961) and Burns (1978) (See Table 3.1) in one broad definition. Antonakis et al. (2004) stated that leadership, in principle, could be defined in terms of an influencing process and its outcomes that occur between a leader and followers, how this influencing process is clarified by the leader's characteristics and behaviours, followers' perceptions and attributions of the leader, and the context in which the influencing process happens. This definition given by Antonakis et al. (2004) is a multifaceted definition which is mainly leader-centric in showing one-way impacts associated with the personal dispositional characteristics of a leader, but it also includes features of the interaction between leaders and followers concerning perceptions and attributions and a definition of leadership as an impact regarding the subsequent outcomes like goal achievement. This definition also acknowledged that leadership is embedded in a context, which may impact the leadership type emerged and whether it would be effective or not (Liden and Antonakis, 2009).

Accordingly, this broad definition of leadership incorporates the most frequently used definitional features; the leader as person (dispositional characteristics), leader behaviour, the impacts of a leader, the interaction process between a leader and followers, and the significance of a context (Bass and Bass, 2008). Also, Yukl (2002) and Northouse (2021) found the same common characteristics of leadership. Furthermore, Kellerman (2014) confirmed that by expressing leadership as a symmetrical triangle comprising three sides; the leader, the followers, and the context (Volckmann, 2012). This means that Kellerman (2014) recognised the significance of the leader, but also confirmed that the followers are as important as the leader, as was suggested by Bass (1990) (See Table 3.1), and the context is added as an equally essential component of the leadership process. Accordingly, it is remarkable that 100 years old leadership definitions are still not outdated, and the definitions of various leadership theorists share the same characteristics (Ronald, 2014). Confirming that, Bavik and Koseoglu (2022) and Belias et al. (2022) still use the definition suggested by Stogdill (1950) (See Table 3.1).

Specifically, many leadership definitions have been signified as an influencing process. For instance, House et al. (1999, p. 184) suggested that "leadership is the ability of an individual to influence, encourage, and assist others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisation". Although the concept of influence signifys the social relationship between the leader and the follower, that relationship is not necessairly charactarised by control (Bass, 1990). This is because of the undefined nature of employment relationship which makes motivating and managing individual performance a continuing leadership theme (Bratton, 2020). Interestingly, Blanchard (2018) defined leadership as the process of influencing others by unleashing the power and potential of people and organisations for the greater good, allowing the accomplishment of valuable results while acting with respect, care, and fairness for the well-being of all people involved. Blanchard (2018) stated that when the definition of leadership focuses on goal accomplishment, it may be thought that leadership is only about results. However, accomplishment is not enough. Leadership should not be performed only for a personal gain or goal accomplishment; it should have a much higher objective than that. Developing people is also of equal significance to performance. Accordingly, the focus in leading at a higher level is on long-term results and human satisfaction (Blanchard, 2018).

Moreover, Silva (2016) provided a new definition of leadership; leadership is the process of collaborative influence that happens when, in a given context, some people approve someone as their leader to accomplish common goals. This definition implies that leadership is a process and not just a personal quality. Also, the leadership process is characterised by influence, not only the leader's influence upon followers, but also the collaborative influence between the leader and the followers, as first suggested by Bass (1990). Moreover, the leadership process occurs in a given context and if the context is altered, the leadership process will also be different (Kellerman, 2014). Particularly, Avolio (2007), Javidan et al. (2010), and Kellerman (2014) highlighted the influence of the context in the leadership process. Additionally, the leadership process requires that people and followers approve someone as their leader. Leaders could be approved or accepted because they benefit from the power to exercise influence on followers, as admitted by Kellerman (2014), or could be willingly approved, as proposed by Kotter (1988), as followers perceive that the leader is the appropriate person to lead them in a particular context. If followers decide not to continue following their leader, the leadership process could end (Silva, 2016). Besides, the purpose of the leadership process is to achieve shared goals between a leader and followers, as declared by Stogdill (1950), Tannenbaum et al. (1961), and Rost (1993). If followers perceive that the leader is not acting on their behalf, the leadership process could be impacted (Silva, 2016). This definition fits properly to the modern concept of leadership, which gives the leader, the followers, and the context a very essential role in the leadership process and provides an understanding to what leadership is (Silva, 2016).

Therefore, based on the earlier discussion of different definitions regarding leadership and to realise the research purposes, this research conceptualises leadership by combining the two definitions provided by Silva (2016) and Blanchard (2018). Consequently, in this study, leadership is conceptualised as "the process of interactively influencing others by releasing the potential and power of organisations and people for the greater good, which arise when some people approve someone as their leader, enabling the realisation of valuable outcomes while performing with fairness, care, and respect for all people involved and their well-being". The researcher combines these two definitions to provide this study's definition because the researcher believes that these two definitions complement each other in which this definition highlights the main leadership features; a behaviour, an influence, a process, the context, the importance of followers, and realising goals, not only in the short term but also in the long term which achieves the greater good, not the leader's personal gain. However, this research does not highlight how the leadership occurs as a process but focuses on the influence itself as the researcher is investigating the influence of leadership style or behaviour itself on EIB, not the process.

3.3. Leadership Styles

The research on leadership styles has been increasingly growing in various cultures (Thanh et al., 2022). Particularly, Vidal et al. (2017) confirmed that leadership styles are always developing regarding the context that leaders encounter, with newer elements supplementing, perfecting, and associating more traditional styles. In fact, Furu (2012) declared that what makes leaders effective depends on the context around them more than what is commonly recognised. Additionally, leadership styles are defined by how decisions are made in the organisation (Schreiber and Carley, 2006). Moreover, with the right behaviour, leadership has the best opportunities to prosper as a certain type of performance at a particular context could foster employees to provide a clear direction to realise purposes and objectives, share creative opinions and ideas, and demonstrate the highest commitment toward accomplishing the outcomes anticipated from their effort (Koryak et al., 2015; Bhargavi and Yaseen, 2016; Dunne et al., 2016).

Furthermore, not only leadership styles are essential, but also employees' perceptions of their superiors' leadership styles are crucial as they could impact several outcomes (Drzewiecka and Roczniewska, 2018). Also, Hogan et al. (1994) stressed that employees' perception that their leaders have trustworthy attributes is an essential measure of leaders' effectiveness (Jo et al., 2015). Further, leadership perception theories which are originally suggested by Lord et al. (1986) and developed further by Gerstner and Day (1994) realised that effective leadership depends on subordinates' acceptance of their leaders (Shafer et al., 2005). Specifically, according to Shaw (1990), subordinates accept those leaders who match positively with prototypes that are already created in their subconscious. This suggests that leadership styles perceived by employees will influence and foster them to exert more effort depending on their perception of their leaders (Jo et al., 2015), which is the focus of this study.

Clearly, numerous leadership styles exist and have various impacts on different outcomes (Lee et al., 2020a). Also, several studies attempted to identify whether leadership styles are distinct and in which circumstances the distinct elements are essential (Lee et al., 2020a). For example, five meta-analyses studies explored whether ethical (Ng and Feldman, 2015), empowering (Lee et al., 2018), servant (Lee et al., 2020b), and authentic leadership (Banks et al., 2016) clarify incremental variance over and above other established variables like transformational leadership (Hoch et al., 2018) concerning different employee outcomes. These studies confirmed that various leadership styles are more crucial than transformational leadership for some outcomes but not others.

Importantly, since the focus of this study is exploring the association between leadership styles and EIB, the researcher focuses only on the most commonly studied leadership styles that explain the association between leadership and creativity and innovation, matching with the study of (Hughes et al., 2018), as there is an increasing number of leadership styles which is difficult to examine them all in one study. The leadership styles emphasised in this study are, namely, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, empowering leadership, servant leadership, authentic leadership, and leader-member exchange (LMX). However, according to Anderson and Sun (2017), LMX is not a leadership style, but rather a concept that emphasises the strength and the relationship type between leaders and followers. Therefore, LMX is reviewed later as a theory in section 3.4.2.3.

3.3.1. Transformational Leadership Style (TL)

Northouse (2007) confirmed that TL is one of the approaches that have attracted the attention of many researchers and has been described as the most influential leadership theory (Judge and Piccolo, 2004), and it is constantly gaining ground in all kinds of workplaces (Belias et al., 2022). TL is introduced by Burns (1978) who stressed that it occurs when one or more individuals engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers elevate one another to a higher level of morality and motivation. Also, Burns (1978) argued that TL goes beyond the straightforward exchange association between leaders and followers and provide deeper connection levels and higher levels of performance, commitment, and morality of both leaders and followers. Particularly, over the last three decades, TL has been defined in several ways. For instance, Dubinsky et al. (1995) acknowledged that the concept of TL is a reflection of several leaders' characteristics including handling long-term problems and organisational issues from a broad perspective and increasing followers' awareness concerning the significance and value of specific job outcomes (Saad Alessa, 2021). Furthermore, TL is defined as a leadership style that can inspire followers to rise above self-interest by changing their spirit, interests, ideals, and values to realise higher performance (Pieterse et al., 2010; Koh et al., 2019; Gui et al., 2020). Moreover, TL is described as a style that highlights meeting followers' basic needs and higher desires though inspiring them to create a better workplace and provide newer solutions to problems (Patiar and Mia, 2009; Ghasabeh and Provitera, 2017). Additionally, Kotamena et al. (2020) defined TL style as a partnership based on appreciation and confidence between leaders and followers in which transformational leaders pursue communal respect, cooperation and teamwork among followers to achieve individual and organisational goals.

Further, Bass (1985) built on Burns' (1978) work and developed a full range leadership model which categorises leadership styles into three types; transformational leadership; transactional leadership; and laissez-faire leadership. Bass' (1985) full range model of leadership describes TL as containing four main dimensions; idealised influence (charisma) (II.C), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individual consideration

(IC). Firstly, II.C represents "the degree to which the leader behaves in admirable ways that lead followers to identify with their leader" (Judge and Piccolo, 2004, p. 755). Similarly, Idris et al. (2022) confirmed that II.C relates to the leader's charisma as a person who is admired and trusted by his employees. Leaders who have II.C consider followers' needs over their own needs (Bass et al., 2003). Also, leaders with charisma attract subordinates with their high standards of moral and ethical conduct (Northouse, 2007). Further, according to Bass (1985), as role models for subordinates, charismatic leaders stimulate emotion, promote shared values and vision, and foster enthusiasm among employees. Secondly, IM is defined as "the degree to which the leader articulates a vision that is inspiring and appealing to followers and challenges them with high standards, provides meaning for the task at hand, and communicates optimism about future goal attainment" (Hoyt et al., 2006; Judge and Piccolo, 2004, p. 755). Further, IM includes changing and convincing employees' views concerning the significance of organisational goals (Idris et al., 2022). Leaders with IM develop team spirit among subordinates and stimulate them to realise more than they would in their own self-interest (Northouse, 2007). Also, transformational leaders arouse followers' spirits by providing meaning and challenge to their work and foster them to envision attractive future states (Bass et al., 2003). Thirdly, IS is characterised as "the degree to which the leader takes risks, solicits followers' ideas, challenges assumptions, and stimulates creativity in followers" (Judge and Piccolo, 2004, p. 755). Additionally, IS refers to fostering employees to be rational and resolve problems with new approaches rather than conventional techniques (Burns, 1978; Idris et al., 2022). Further, IS relates to a leader's ability to intellectually challenge followers to be innovative and creative in problem solving and to become active participants in group decision making (Hoyt et al., 2006; Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008). Also, leaders intellectually stimulate their followers by encouraging them to generate new ideas and creative solutions when facing a problem (Bass et al., 2003). Fourthly, IC is described as "the degree to which the leader acts as a mentor or coach to the follower, satisfies each follower's needs, and listens to the follower's concerns and needs" (Hoyt et al., 2006; Judge and Piccolo, 2004, p. 755). Also, Idris et al. (2022) defined IC as the understanding and attention of a leader to each subordinate's abilities and potentials. Consideration for subordinates is an essential aspect of the leader-subordinate relationship as it relates to subordinates' satisfaction with their leaders and to their productivity (Bass, 1985). Moreover, leaders with IC create new learning opportunities and develop their followers to higher potential levels (Bass et al., 2003).

Moreover, regarding whether transformational leadership and charismatic leadership are distinct styles, since charisma (idealised influence) is a one dimension of TL, Anderson and

Sun (2017) stated that charismatic leadership is highlighted by leaders who convey an inspirational vision of a desirable future which stimulates followers to sacrifice their self-interests and dedicate exceptional effort to the causes promoted by their leaders. Also, leaders who behave charismatically are likely to show conviction and appeal emotionally to their employees (Gao et al., 2020). Interestingly, according to Anderson and Sun (2017), most researchers agree with Fiol et al. (1999, p. 451) who stated that "the similarities among transformational and charismatic leadership are far greater than their differences". Likewise, various papers have combined studies of transformational and charismatic leadership (Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Walter and Bruch, 2009; Van Knippenberg and Sitkin, 2013), emphasising that "the findings from studies of transformational, charismatic, and visionary leadership generally converge" (Walter and Bruch 2009, p. 1428). Moreover, according to Rowold and Heinitz (2007), empirical comparisons of the dominant measures of transformational and charismatic leadership reveal that TL as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and charismatic leadership as measured by the Conger–Kanungo Scale (Conger and Kanungo 1994) are significantly correlated. Thus, based on the virtual consensus by scholars and the empirical evidence of their high intercorrelations, Anderson and Sun (2017) believed that it is time for scholars to leave the distinction between transformational and charismatic leadership. Accordingly, the researcher in this study considers transformational leadership and charismatic leadership as the same and uses them interchangeably, matching with the study of (Anderson and Sun, 2017).

Essentially, regarding TL's measures, the MLQ is the most frequently used leadership measure in organisational practice (Bajcar and Babiak, 2022). Furthermore, the (MLQ – From 5X) is capable of capturing several leadership styles into a single measurement instrument (Batista-Foguet et al., 2021). Particularly, the MLQ has been mainly acknowledged as reflecting a full scale of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles (Antonakis et al., 2003; Bajcar and Babiak, 2022). In details, the MLQ (Form – 5X) is a 36-item questionnaire that measures TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC), transactional leadership's dimensions (contingent reward, active and passive management-by exception), and laissez-faire style (Avolio and Bass, 2004). Besides, regarding the significance of the MLQ, Dimitrov and Darova (2016) confirmed that the MLQ (Form – 5X) shows efficient psychometric qualities and its factor structure has been proven and its theoretical assumptions have been confirmed. Additionally, the MLQ has been utilised extensively in previous studies and it demonstrates a well-validated measure of TL (Avolio and Bass, 2002; Diaz-Saenz, 2011; Belias et al., 2022; Idris et al., 2022; Yilmaz and Konaklioglu, 2022). However, the MLQ has some critiques including its lack of connection with theory, its questionable multidimensional structure and the vague way in which various sub-dimensions of the MLQ combine to structure a unitary model (Batista-Foguet et al., 2021). Similarly, Judge and Piccolo (2004) addressed that the MLQ has an elusive multidimensional structure. Moreover, Yukl (1999) argued that the MLQ overlooks significant transformational behaviours displayed by leaders, including empowering, inspiring, and developing behaviours. The MLQ is explained further in chapter five (section 5.5.5.1).

From another point, regarding the context, Vargas-Sevalle et al. (2020) stressed that working in the tourism and hospitality industry is challenging because it is a highly labour-intensive industry with a high pressure on employees which can be harmful to them and can cause grave physical and mental issues such as fatigue, stress, and burnout, which could damage their health and well-being and make them unhappy and provide poor services to customers. To address these challenges, extraordinary leaders are required to impact and motivate their employees to realise the success of their organisations and ensure that their employees are satisfied with their jobs (Vargas-Sevalle et al., 2020). Particularly, transformational leaders stimulate their followers to perform beyond their required level of expectations (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 1989) which is significant for the tourism and hospitality industry because stimulated employees who perform beyond the required expectations can generate unique experiences for customers which is the basis for firms' competitive advantage and customer satisfaction in the tourism and hospitality industry (Vargas-Sevalle et al., 2020). Moreover, in the tourism and hospitality industry, TL plays a vital role in promoting creativity (Liu, 2017), and enhancing employees' job satisfaction and well-being by providing healthy working conditions (Vargas-Sevalle et al., 2020). Furthermore, the art of navigating tourism in an ambiguous future necessitates TL (Cave et al., 2022). Additionally, TL has a high validity for clarifying behavioural, attitudinal, and relational perception outcomes of employees in the hospitality industry (Gui et al., 2020). Also, several hospitality studies have used TL and acknowledged its positive impacts on subordinates such as job performance (Lee et al., 2011), life satisfaction (Kara et al., 2013), employee dedication and pro-social behaviour (Gill and Mathur, 2007; Liang et al., 2017), organisational commitment (Dai et al., 2013), and service innovative behaviour (Schuckert et al., 2018).

Generally, concerning TL's overall importance, Wang et al. (2011) acknowledged the significance of TL and found that it is strongly associated with job performance types (task, contextual, and creative), satisfaction with the leader, team and organisational performance, motivation, and organisational commitment. Additionally, other studies have confirmed that

TL is related to employees' job satisfaction (Belias et al., 2022), employees' creativity and performance (Nasir et al., 2022), employees' commitment to change (Herold et al., 2008), leader effectiveness (DeRue et al., 2011; Piccolo et al., 2012), work engagement (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014), and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Moreover, according to Anderson and Sun (2017) and Grant (2012), TL has stronger motivational influences when followers engage with people who are impacted by their work like clients and customers. Also, TL involves actions that change the attitudes and perceptions of employees related to the organisation's objectives and strategies (Somboonpakom and Kantabutra, 2014). Besides, according to Popli and Rizvi (2015), employees who perceive their superior's leadership style as transformational are more engaged and accordingly are more service oriented. Particularly, regarding creativity and innovation, Nasir et al. (2022) confirmed that transformational leaders are regarded as the main drivers of employee creativity and innovation in which they encourage their employees to think creatively, analyse their challenges from various perspectives, and generate novel and innovative solutions. Further, Lee et al. (2020a) confirmed that TL is beneficial to creativity and innovation for two main reasons. Firstly, transformational leaders motivate and inspire their followers by expressing an energizing vision which in turn "stimulates people to do their best" (Avolio and Bass, 1988, p. 33). Secondly, transformational leaders' IS fosters followers to question assumptions, think divergently, and take risks (Bass, 1985), which promote an open and explorative mindset (Keller, 2006) and empower followers to experiment with new ideas and perform active problem solving (Jung et al., 2003; Shin and Zhou, 2003). Moreover, Hughes et al. (2018) declared that IS and IM are specifically highlighted as crucial for innovation (Elkins and Keller, 2003). For example, by providing IS (Bass and Avolio, 1997), leaders could foster followers to adopt exploratory and generative thinking processes (Sosik et al., 1997) which are likely to stimulate employees to cope with unusual challenges and problems (Srivastava et al., 2006) and generate new ideas and solutions (Hughes et al., 2018).

Nevertheless, despite its significance, whether in general or in the tourism and hospitality industry, TL has been criticised by several authors (Bass and Riggio, 2006; Northouse, 2007; O'Reilly and Chatman, 2020; Stelmokienė and Vadvilavičius, 2022). For instance, TL was criticised for being elitist and suspected to be anti-democratic (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Furthermore, Northouse (2007) described TL as too broad, less clear, and not clearly defined to make it exclusive from other leadership styles. Also, transformational leaders can be narcissistic in which they mobilise their followers to pursue dangerous goals (O'Reilly and Chatman, 2020). Moreover, several authors highlighted the concept of pseudo-transformational leaders who are oriented towards their own goals, manipulate their followers, encourage dependence, foster the fear of leaders, and show self-confidence and power (Lin et al., 2017; Stelmokienė and Vadvilavičius, 2022). Additionally, pseudo-TL is linked to followers' fear, insecurity, obedience, higher dependence on leaders, less extra effort, lower satisfaction with leaders, and more trust issues (Lin et al., 2017; Stelmokienė and Vadvilavičius, 2022). More specifically, concerning creativity and innovation, Howell and Avolio (1992) highlighted the manipulativeness of some transformational leaders in which they do not approve their followers' creativity or innovativeness and prefer their followers to be dependent on them than to be independent and productive (Pradhan and Jena, 2019). Likewise, Chung and Li (2021) highlighted that an extreme level of TL could reduce EIB because of the negative emotions of subordinates. Particularly, an extreme level of TL could cause stress and exhaustion among followers which could decrease their motivation (Porter and Bigley, 2003). Besides, if followers depend more on their leaders, they will lose their personal accomplishment and consider it as their lack of competency, ultimately decreasing their IBs (Chung and Li, 2021).

3.3.2. Transactional Leadership Style (TrL)

Burns (1978) introduced the model of transactional leadership and highlighted that TrL occurs when one person connects with others for exchanging valued things that could be political, economic, or psychological in nature. Also, Burns (1978) realised that both parties have related purposes, but the relationship do not go beyond the exchange of valued benefits. Then, Bass (1985) extended the work of Burns (1978) and developed transactional leadership theory. Bass (1985) theorised that TrL is characterised by the exchange that occurs among leaders, colleagues, and followers. Similarly, according to Bavik and Koseoglu (2022), TrL strongly emphasises a "give and take" and/or "win-win" exchange process between leaders and employees. Additionally, Bass and Avolio (1994b) highlighted that the exchange is based on the discussion between leaders and followers on the requirements and rewards that followers will receive if they realise those requirements. Particularly, transactional leaders exchange valued things with followers to advance both parties' requirements (Ivey and Kline, 2010). Then, followers fulfil their leaders' requirements in exchange for rewards and praise or the avoidance of punishment for lack of goal achievement or weak performance (Bass et al., 2003). Accordingly, TrL is realistic as it concentrates on realising specific goals (Aarons, 2006). Further, transactional leaders use their power to consult and impact followers to accomplish desired outcomes (Bass, 1985; Avery, 2004). Also, transactional leaders stimulate employees to accomplish the desired results by clarifying the target that employees must accomplish and showing them how to achieve it, offering feedback on job outcomes, and providing rewards if employees completed the target (Bass, 1985). Moreover, transactional leaders encourage their employees by using performance criteria, rewards, and penalties, and monitor their employees' compliance with the rules and regulations to achieve the organisation's objectives while employees accomplish their goals (Bavik and Koseoglu, 2022).

Furthermore, the full-range model of leadership developed by Bass (1985) conceptualises TrL as comprising three major dimensions: contingent reward, active management by exception, and passive management by exception (Bass and Avolio, 2004; Anderson and Sun, 2017). Firstly, Bass (1985) defined contingent reward as "the degree to which the leader establishes constructive exchanges with followers; the leader clarifies expectations and determines the rewards for meeting these expectations" (Judge and Piccolo, 2004, p. 755; Lee et al., 2020a). Similarly, Belias et al. (2022) defined contingent reward as a process of exchanging rewards between leaders and employees whose efforts are rewarded when realising the required performance. Secondly, management by exception is defined as "the degree to which the leader takes corrective actions based on the results of leader–follower transactions" (Bass, 1985; Judge and Piccolo, 2004, p. 755; Lee et al., 2020a). Specifically, management by exception takes two forms; active and passive. Active management by exception stresses that "active leaders anticipate problems, monitor followers' behaviour, and take corrective actions before the behaviour creates significant difficulties", while passive management by exception highlights that "passive leaders wait till the behaviour creates problems before taking actions" (Bass, 1985; Judge and Piccolo, 2004, p. 756; Lee et al., 2020a; Belias et al., 2022).

Moreover, regarding its significance, TrL is associated with ethics of justice (Simola et al., 2010), employee creativity (Herrmann and Felfe, 2014), and team performance (Bass et al., 2003). Particularly, contingent reward is related to commitment to change (Kool and Van Dierendonck, 2012), leadership effectiveness, followers' job satisfaction, and followers' satisfaction with the leader (Judge and Piccolo, 2004). Additionally, regarding creativity and innovation, Baskoro (2022) acknowledged that transactional leaders promote their employees' commitment to new and creative ideas by providing recognition or rewards for developing novel ideas. Further, TrL demonstrates leader behaviours that utilise extrinsic motivation; if followers performed well, they will be rewarded (contingent reward), and if not, they will be criticised (management by exception) (Hughes et al., 2018). In general, contingent reward correlates positively with both creativity (Rickards et al., 2001) and IB (Chang et al., 2015), while management by exception correlates negatively with creativity and innovation (Moss and Ritossa, 2007; Rank et al., 2009).

Besides, regarding the comparison between transformational and transactional leadership, these two styles are probably the best known within and outside the leadership field and they are often regarded as opposite or competing approaches (Hughes et al., 2018). Burns (1978) believed that leaders demonstrate either a transformational or a transactional behaviour. Yet, Bass (1985) proposed that TL and TrL are two distinct dimensions and leaders demonstrate both TL and TrL behaviours, but in different amounts. Moreover, Bass (1998) confirmed that effective leaders are both transactional and transformational. Specifically, effective leaders are transactional because they practice social exchange elements in their relationship with subordinates and they are transformational as they get extraordinary commitment levels from subordinates (Bass, 1998). Likewise, leaders might exhibit different degrees of both TL and TrL, and effective leaders are those who combine both leadership styles (Aarons, 2006; Snodgrass and Shachar, 2008). Furthermore, TL augments TrL (Bass, 1985; Bass et al., 2003). Overall, as cited in Bajcar and Babiak (2022), TL and TrL are regarded as the wide-ranging leadership approach which facilitates conditions to create positive outcomes for organisations (Bass and Riggio, 2006).

3.3.3. Empowering Leadership Style (EL)

Empowering leadership is related to empowerment, which is originally developed from theories of employee involvement and participative management (Spreitzer, 1995). Also, Amundsen and Martinsen (2014) declared that the notion of empowerment is introduced in the field of management in the 1980s. Specifically, as cited in Kanjanakan et al. (2023), empowerment is characterised as "a motivational construct expressed in four cognitions; meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact" (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1444). Also, empowerment is described as a relational construct highlighting the sharing of organisational resources and participation of employees in decision-making processes and delegating responsibilities to them (Elsetouhi et al., 2018). Furthermore, Cheong et al. (2019) stated that historical development of the EL concept matches with a stream of coaching and delegating behaviours covered in situational leadership theory (Hersey et al., 1979).

Particularly, Cheong et al. (2019, p. 34) defined EL as "a process of sharing power and allocating autonomy and responsibilities to employees through implementing a series of leader empowering behaviours" (cited in Peng et al., 2023). Also, Sharma and Kirkman (2015, p. 194) defined EL as "leader behaviours targeted at individuals or teams and encompasses delegating authority to employees, fostering their self-directed and autonomous decision making, coaching, information sharing, and asking for input" (Anderson and Sun, 2017). Likewise, Arnold et al. (2000) defined EL as behaviours that facilitate employees' productivity in empowered work environments by developing and encouraging them in their work roles. Moreover, Amundsen and Martinsen (2014) defined EL as the process of impacting subordinates through motivation support, power sharing, and ability to work autonomously to realise organisational goals and strategies.

Further, EL provides employees with significant resources such as a sense of power, competence, and job autonomy in the work environment (Peng et al., 2023). Also, Yin and Liu (2022) highlighted that empowering leaders provide their skills and views as resources for employees to learn and apply through stimulating and encouraging them to participate in work decision-making which will enrich and expand employees' ability to control and improve their work methods. Moreover, Özarallı (2015) realised that leaders manage their organisations successfully by empowering their employees, granting them the freedom to produce novel solutions to problems, and stimulating them to work toward the organisation's vision (Elsetouhi et al., 2018). Besides, Sharma and Kirkman (2015) argued that transferring power and control to followers is crucial to EL. Additionally, according to Lee et al. (2018), EL is an example of a structural empowerment form as it represents leaders' behaviours that aim to generate the conditions that will make followers feel a sense of empowerment.

Notably, Arnold et al. (2000) developed the Empowering Leadership Questionnaire (ELQ), including five major dimensions which are the most frequently used dimensions in empowering leadership research, namely, leading by example, coaching, informing, participative decision making, and showing concern (Lee et al., 2018; Cheong et al., 2019; O'Donoghue and van der Werff, 2022). Firstly, Arnold et al. (2000) defined leading by example as a set of behaviours that demonstrate leaders' commitment to their own work and the work of their team members, and it includes behaviours such as working as hard as possible and working harder than team members. Secondly, coaching is referred to a set of behaviours that educate team members and assist them to have autonomy in their work and it comprises behaviours such as making suggestions about performance improvement and aiding the team to be self-reliant (Arnold et al., 2000; O'Donoghue and van der Werff, 2022). Thirdly, informing highlights leaders' dissemination of a company's wide information like mission, philosophy, and other essential information, and it involves behaviours like clarifying company's decisions to the team and informing the team about new improvements in organisational policy (Arnold et al., 2000; O'Donoghue and van der Werff, 2022). Fourthly, participative decision making emphasises leaders' utilising of team members' information and input in making decisions and it consists of behaviours like fostering team members to exhibit their opinions and ideas (O'Donoghue and van der Werff, 2022). Fifthly, Arnold et al. (2000) defined showing concern as behaviours that show a general regard for team members' well-being and it encompasses behaviours like taking the time to discuss team members' concerns. However, Gao et al. (2011) focused only on coaching, participative decision making, and informing as these behaviours are regarded as crucial features of an empowering work context for employees (Srivastava et al., 2006).

Concerning its significance, previous research confirmed the positive impacts of EL on various work-related outcomes like customer satisfaction and performance (Ahearne et al., 2005), and psychological empowerment and affective commitment (Chen et al., 2011). Further, regarding creativity and innovation, Lang et al. (2022) confirmed that EL positively impacts employee creativity in which empowering leaders foster employees to search for opportunities when facing challenges, which in turn will make employees feel safe to experiment and regard challenges or failures as opportunities for learning, stimulating their creativity. Similarly, Hughes et al. (2018) acknowledged that EL is positively associated with both creativity and innovation. Particularly, EL behaviours are conceptually related to both creativity and innovation through developing self-determination and intrinsic motivation (Zhang and Bartol, 2010). For example, participation in decision-making and autonomy perceptions are essential preconditions for creative outcomes (Amabile, 1996b) as they foster autonomous exploration of various approaches and solutions to problems (Li and Zhang, 2016). Also, EL proves to be a strong predictor of IB (Lee et al., 2020a). Specifically, EL encompasses three main features through which leaders facilitate employee innovation; role modelling, offering autonomy, and providing goal-directed support (Perry-Smith and Mannucci, 2017; Lee et al., 2020a). This result proposes that employees are able to innovate better through promoting and implementing new ideas when their leaders facilitate, support, and empower them (Lee et al., 2020a).

3.3.4. Servant Leadership Style (SL)

Greenleaf (1977) acknowledged that servant leaders are servants first, meaning that SL begins with the natural feeling of serving first. Also, SL assures that the needs of others are served first (Greenleaf, 1977) (cited in Anderson and Sun, 2017). Also, Greenleaf (1977) stated that servant leaders possess a strong service orientation that impacts followers to imitate their leaders. Moreover, Greenleaf (1977) declared that servant leaders show a sense of moral responsibility and respect for followers as they stimulate followers to grow and develop. However, Eva et al. (2019b) stated that this conceptualisation of SL according to Greenleaf

(1977) is not adequate for guiding empirical research on SL. Instead, Eva et al. (2019b) proposed that SL is another oriented approach to leadership which prioritizes followers' needs and interests (Bavik and Koseoglu, 2022) and externally redirects followers' concern toward others instead of concerning only for themselves within the organisation and the larger community.

Moreover, Eva et al. (2019b) declared that SL is a holistic leadership approach that engages followers in several dimensions (relational, ethical, emotional, spiritual) so that they are empowered to develop into what they are capable of becoming. Also, servant leaders see themselves as stewards of organisations (Van Dierendonck, 2011) and focus on sustainable performance over the long run (Eva et al., 2019b). Additionally, Bavik and Koseoglu (2022) confirmed that servant leaders focus on the growth and well-being of their followers and encourage, stimulate, and support them, which in turn motivate their followers to reciprocate by helping other followers. Further, according to Van Dierendonck and Nuijten's (2011), servant leaders empower and develop people while holding people accountable for the outcomes of their work; they advocate their innate values, focus on the good of the whole, and perform with a humble attitude shown in their openness to learn and willingness to admit mistakes. Likewise, Whetstone (2002) stressed that the intent of servant leaders to serve the needs and desires of followers must surpass the leader's personal interests. Besides, according to Greenleaf and Spears (2002), since servant leaders are respected and admired by followers, their followers become motivated to emulate their leaders' behaviours.

Further, Anderson and Sun (2017) stressed that SL includes 43 overlapping dimensions according to various measures. However, Anderson and Sun (2017) argued that these numerous dimensions could be synthesised into 12 more conceptually distinct dimensions, namely; altruistic calling, persuasive mapping, courage, Agapao love, emotional healing, forgiveness, humility, a covenantal relationship, behaving ethically, authenticity, creating value for the community, and accountability. Briefly, altruistic calling is described as leaders' inherent desire and spiritual purpose to create a positive difference in others' lives through service (Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006). Further, persuasive mapping highlights the extent to which leaders use mental frameworks and sound reasoning to map issues and intellectualise greater possibilities for the future (Liden et al., 2008). Also, Van Dierendonck and Nuitjen (2011) defined courage as the ability to perceive things differently and take risks with novel ways to encounter old problems. Moreover, Agapao love is moral and unconditional (Dennis and Bocarnea, 2005), and emphasises the whole individual rather than treating him/her as means to an end (Russell and Stone, 2002). Additionally, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) proposed that emotional healing could assist in the spiritual recovery from trauma and hardship when individuals' aspirations, relationships, dreams, and hopes are broken. Besides, forgiveness is characterised as the ability to let go of perceived wrongdoings and not hold previous grudges to other situations (Van Dierendonck and Nuitjen, 2011). Further, humility is defined as the understanding of one's own strengths and weaknesses and putting one's strengths in proper perspective (Dennis and Bocarnea, 2005; Zarei et al., 2022). Also, a covenantal relationship is developed by accepting individuals as they are, displaying open-ended communication with them, trusting them, and treating them as equal partners (Sendjaya et al., 2008). Moreover, behaving ethically entails holding oneself to high moral standards and always acting with moral integrity (Liden et al., 2008; Zarei et al., 2022). In addition, authenticity means being true to oneself and accurately reflecting both public and private selves (Van Dierendonck and Nuitjen, 2011; Zarei et al., 2022). Besides, creating value for the community represents the extent to which leaders establish an organisation to make a positive contribution to society (Liden et al., 2008). Finally, accountability denotes holding followers accountable to monitor what they can control (Van Dierendonck and Nuitjen, 2011).

Concerning its importance, according to Eva et al. (2019b), the association between SL and organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) is the most commonly examined association in SL research. Moreover, SL is positively associated with organisational commitment (Miao et al., 2014), employee engagement (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014), thriving at work (Walumbwa et al., 2018), proactive behaviour (Bande et al., 2016), employee performance (Liden et al., 2008), organisational performance (Choudhary et al., 2013), and customer satisfaction (Yang et al., 2018). Furthermore, regarding creativity and innovation; servant leaders emphasise their followers' needs and abilities instead of focusing on extrinsic rewards of performance, which in turn make their followers feel more empowered and liberated when performing creative tasks (Zarei et al., 2022). Besides, SL arouses a promotion focus among employees, leading to creative behaviours in the organisation (Neubert et al., 2008). Additionally, Zarei et al. (2022) confirmed that servant leaders emphasise the professional and personal development of their creative employees and attribute the success of conducting creative tasks to the efforts of their employees. Likewise, Lee et al. (2020a) confirmed that SL is among the leadership styles that have the strongest correlations with individual innovation. Also, there is a growing literature linking SL to innovation-oriented outcomes (Panaccio et al., 2015).

3.3.5. Authentic Leadership Style (AL)

According to Banks (2016), authenticity within the leadership context has received essential attention within the management literature as an individual construct (Luthans and Avolio, 2003), and since its introduction, AL has gained a significant practitioner and scholarly interest (George and Sims, 2007; Gardner et al., 2011; Du et al., 2022). The basis of AL, as proposed by Luthans and Avolio (2003) and further developed by Gardner et al. (2005), is the belief that leaders can express their natural selves in an honest and open manner, resulting in positive and ethical work outcomes (Banks, 2016). Additionally, Avolio and Gardner (2005) argued that AL contains a positive moral perspective described by high ethical standards that guide decision making. Further, authentic leaders place the wellbeing of their employees over their own, which facilitates positive relationships with employees and makes them feel accepted and supported, stimulating their work engagement (Du et al., 2022).

Specifically, Walumbwa et al. (2008) described authentic leaders as being self-aware, showing openness and clarity concerning who they are, and consistently performing in accordance with their personal beliefs, values, sentiments, and motives. Thus, based on this view, there are four attributes or dimensions of AL; self-awareness, balanced processing, relational transparency, and an internalised moral perspective. Firstly, self-awareness refers to acknowledging one’s strengths and weaknesses and the complex nature of the self, which involves gaining insight into the self through exposing to others and being aware of one’s impact on other people (Walumbwa et al., 2008; Cahit Korku and Sıdıka Kaya, 2022). Secondly, balanced processing includes considering others’ opinions, analysing all available relevant information before making decisions, and soliciting views that challenge leaders’ deeply held positions while acting objectively (Walumbwa et al., 2008; Cahit Korku and Sıdıka Kaya, 2022). Thirdly, relational transparency represents demonstrating one’s true self to others and openly, but properly, sharing information regarding one’s true thoughts and emotions (Walumbwa et al., 2008; Cahit Korku and Sıdıka Kaya, 2022). Fourthly, an internalised moral perspective is based on an integrated form of self-regulation, guided by internal moral standards and values versus group, organisational, and societal pressures, and anchored by one’s mission, deep-inherited values, or desire to make a difference (Walumbwa et al., 2008; Cahit Korku and Sıdıka Kaya, 2022). Overall, Bavik and Koseoglu (2022) highlighted that all AL’s attributes emphasise transparent and honest supervision which builds authentic relationships with employees and stimulates their trust and motivation.

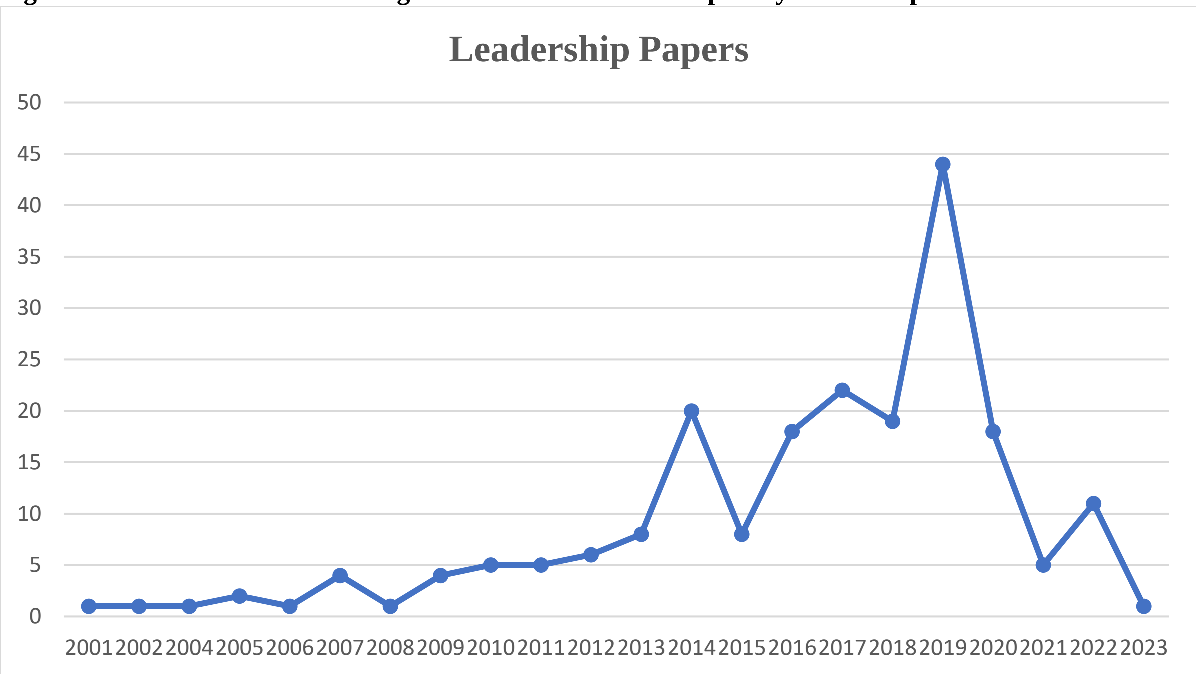
Further, regarding its significance, past empirical evidence has linked AL to work role performance (Leroy et al., 2015), followers’ trust in leader (Avolio et al., 2004), affective commitment (Ribeiro et al., 2020b), organisational commitment (Walumbwa et al., 2008), and organisational citizenship behaviour (Batra, 2020). Additionally, concerning the impact on creativity and innovation, Cahit Korku and Sıdıka Kaya (2022) acknowledged that authentic leaders support employees' innovation through building trust with them and improving their resilience at work. Also, Lv et al. (2022) confirmed that AL plays a significant role in promoting EIB in which authentic leaders promote diversity in ideas and perspectives among their employees, foster them to be more imaginative and daring, and enhance their innovation enthusiasm, stimulating their IBs and promoting organisations' overall innovation level. Moreover, Lee et al. (2020a) declared that AL has a vital impact on individual creativity. Particularly, the self-awareness dimension of AL allows leaders to display openness in their behaviour and lead by example (Walumbwa et al., 2008), which, when imitated by followers, will foster them to engage creatively in their work (Seibert et al., 2001). Furthermore, Lee et al. (2020a) emphasised that authentic leaders effectively impact creativity through behavioural role modelling, being supportive and honest, and providing autonomy to their employees. In the next section, the researcher explores in detail the leadership research in the tourism and hospitality industry to determine which leadership style is suitable for this study.

3.4. Leadership Research in The Tourism and Hospitality Industry

In this section, after conceptualising leadership and examining various leadership styles, the researcher investigates leadership research in the tourism and hospitality industry by performing a review to provide a clear view regarding which leadership styles are mostly researched, identify key leadership themes, analyse different theories, and examine major methodological trends including the research methods, data collection methods, sampling methods, and data analysis methods. This assists in identifying the major gaps in leadership research and provides a broad and clear view about leadership literature and its styles in the tourism and hospitality industry and which style is the most suitable to investigate in this study.

The review is based on 204 research papers whose content has been carefully examined. Several steps are taken in reviewing the papers. Firstly, the sources of relevant literature review are derived from popular online databases such as Scopus, Science Direct, Emerald, and scientific search engines such as Google Scholar. Particularly, leadership studies made the first steps in tourism and hospitality research in the 1990s (Lickson et al., 1994), but leadership in tourism and hospitality has become more popular after the millennium and specifically has gained momentum in the past decade (Bavik and Koseoglu, 2022). Accordingly, the researcher has collected most papers relevant to leadership in the tourism and hospitality industry during the period from 2000 to 2023 as represented in figure 3.1, but the greatest portion of the papers gathered are concentrated on the period from 2013 till 2023 (173 papers) (See Table 3.2). The papers collected from 2000 till 2012 are fewer (31 papers) and are used as a basis for this review. More specifically, these 31 papers are classified as follows; six papers in the year 2012, five each in the years 2010 and 2011, four each in the years 2007 and 2009, two in the year 2005, and one each in the years 2001, 2002, 2004, 2006 and 2008. Secondly, all papers are examined using a combination of keywords such as 'leadership in the tourism industry', 'leadership in the hospitality industry', 'tourism leadership', 'hospitality leadership' and 'destination leadership' which are included in the titles, keywords, or abstracts of the papers.

Figure 3.1. Journal Articles Investigated in "Tourism and Hospitality Leadership"



(Source; The researcher's own data).

After the entire process, and since the researcher is focusing only on tourism and hospitality leadership research that is published in journal articles, 317 studies are excluded as they are related to conferences, master theses, doctoral theses, book chapters, and papers about leadership in industries or sectors other than tourism and hospitality, which did not relate to the research purposes. Eventually, 204 papers are retained. The researcher has gathered the most repeated journals and the number of the papers used in these journals (132 papers) in Table 3.2. The rest (72 papers) are used from journals that are repeated only once or twice such as Tourism and Hospitality Management, Journal of Business Ethics, Tourism Planning & Development, Personnel Review, Tourism and Hospitality Research, Tourism & Management Studies, International Journal of Human Resource Management, Journal of Tourism, Hospitality and Environment Management, Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education, and other different journals. Concerning gathering papers from these journals, the researcher has collected all related papers in leadership research in the tourism and hospitality industry from Scopus and Google scholar in order. Then, repeated papers from both databases are omitted besides the studies that are not relevant to the research purposes. Thus, there are not any particular selection criteria in selecting these papers. The researcher just gathered them in a random manner.

Table 3.2. Publications Details of Tourism and Hospitality Leadership Research

Journal name	Number of articles
International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	19
Tourism Management	15
Tourism Review	12
African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure	8
Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism	8
Sustainability	7
Tourism Management Perspectives	7
Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education	7
Journal of Sustainable Tourism	6
Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism	6
International Journal of Hospitality Management	6
Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management	6
Leadership & Organization Development Journal	4
Annals of Tourism Research	3
Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research	3
Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research	3
Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism	3
Journal of China Tourism Research	3
Current Issues in Tourism	3
Cornell Hospitality Quarterly	3
Total	**132**

Years of publication	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Number of papers	8	20	8	18	22	19	43	17	6	11	1

Furthermore, the 204 papers are categorised into six main themes and all 204 papers are examined and data patterns are exhibited based on a frequency count. Therefore, in the next sections, the researcher investigates these six key themes that are employed in these 204 papers.

3.4.1. Key Themes in Tourism and Hospitality Leadership

Vidal et al. (2017) declared that different challenges are imposed on the exercise of leadership. For example, organisations of all sizes comprise people with enough autonomy to generate their greatness and leaders have to make it sustainable by matching the interests of all members with these organisations' mission, vision, and values (Vidal et al., 2017), including the organisations in the tourism and hospitality industry. Moreover, leadership styles are always developing according to the context faced by leaders with newer elements supplementing, improving, and accompanying more traditional styles (Vidal et al., 2017). Additionally, Thanh et al. (2022) confirmed that outstanding leaders can maintain and conduct relevant leadership styles to guide, lead, and support their employees to overcome their limits and reach higher productivity within their organisations. Furthermore, according to Anderson and Sun (2017), a variety of leadership typologies have been developed which include similarities and differences regarding their conceptualisation and operationalisation. Accordingly, in this study, the researcher classifies the 204 papers into six major themes and starts the next section by clarifying the role and significance of leadership and its styles in the tourism and hospitality literature.

3.4.1.1. The Role and Significance of Leadership and Its Styles in Tourism and Hospitality

Firstly, eight papers demonstrated a literature review regarding the role of leadership in general and its significance in the tourism and hospitality industry (Testa, 2007; Naipaul and Wang, 2009; Dodds, 2010; Brownell, 2010; Maier, 2011; Maier and Thomas, 2013; Deale and Asanova, 2018; Bavik and Koseoglu, 2022). For instance, Bavik and Koseoglu (2022) investigated the intellectual structure of leadership research in the hospitality industry by using systematic mapping and explored leaderships' influence on employee creativity and performance. Moreover, Deale and Asanova (2018) focused on learning about leadership and tourism in various countries by using WhatsApp and other technologies. Additionally, Testa (2007) investigated leadership and culture in the hospitality industry and realised that followers do not make judgments concerning their leaders based on their national culture, but it appears that management quality is a more essential factor regarding followers' appraisal of their leaders. The rest of the eight papers also provided a literature review proving that leadership has a major role in the tourism and hospitality industry.

Secondly, 27 papers investigated the role and significance of leadership styles in the tourism and hospitality industry. More particularly, 13 papers provided a literature review regarding the role of distributed leadership (Beritelli and Bieger, 2014; Blichfeldt et al., 2014;

Kennedy and Augustyn, 2014; Kozak et al., 2014; Pechlaner et al., 2014; Zehrer et al., 2014; Pröbstl-Haider et al., 2014; Hristov and Zehrer, 2015; Komppula, 2016; Hristov and Ramkissoon, 2016; Hristov et al., 2018a; Hristov et al., 2018b; Hristov and Zehrer, 2019). Further, four papers examined the role of female leaders (Freedman et al., 2002; Perkov et al., 2016; Guillet et al., 2019; Denizci Guillet et al., 2019). Additionally, five papers concerning academic leadership are investigated (Arendt and Gregoire, 2005; Zhao and Ritchie, 2007; Law et al., 2010; Dredge and Schott, 2013; Pritchard and Morgan, 2017). Moreover, two papers investigated the role of servant leadership (Chon and Zoltan, 2019; Bavik, 2020). Finally, one paper each presented a literature review concerning ethical leadership (Nicolaides, 2019), transactional and transformational leadership (Roibu et al., 2019), and empowering leadership (Hoang et al., 2021b). In the next section, the researcher emphasises leadership characteristics, skills, and competencies in the tourism and hospitality industry.

3.4.1.2. Leadership Characteristics, Skills, and Competencies in Tourism and Hospitality

Ten papers explored and investigated the necessary skills and characteristics of leaders in tourism and hospitality (Scheule and Sneed, 2001; Matlay and Peters, 2005; Weber and Ladkin, 2010; Petkovski, 2012; Hughey and Becken, 2016; Almeida, 2017; Cheung et al., 2018; Reynolds and Dolasinski, 2018; Piuchan and Prachansit, 2019; Sousa et al., 2019). For example, Weber and Ladkin (2010) revealed that leaders should have major skills to be effective leaders such as good business knowledge, determination, open-mindedness, respect, communication, and sense of humour. Also, Petkovski (2012) examined required skills and leadership characteristics in tourism and hospitality and identified several essential characteristics and skills including originality and creativity, mobility, energy, self-confidence, communication skills, and ability to set and track goals.

Moreover, Piuchan and Prachansit (2019) presented leadership characteristics and styles of two leading hotel operators in Asia and found four commonly shared characteristics on how to be successful hotel leaders, and the identified characteristics include visionary leadership, charismatic leadership, entrepreneurial leadership, and ethical leadership. Additionally, Sousa et al. (2019) found some crucial leadership skills in the hospitality industry including communication skills, language mastery, proper personal image, listening ability, managing customers' complaints, anticipating customers' needs, and ability to cope with change. Further, Reynolds and Dolasinski (2018) identified several hotel leadership competencies such as proficiency in using technology and social media, agility and flexibility, inspiring and encouraging others, recognising others' achievements, building relationships, considering the larger community, and other competencies. Similarly, several skills and characteristics are found in the rest of the ten papers. In the next section, the researcher compares leadership in the tourism and hospitality industry with other sectors, industries, organisations or between groups.

3.4.1.3. Comparing Leadership in Tourism and Hospitality Industry with Other Sectors

Five papers compared leadership across different sectors, industries, organisations, and groups (Riggs and Hughey, 2011; Valente et al., 2015; KOÇ; 2017; Joshi, 2019; Chu and King, 2019). Particularly, KOÇ (2017) compared between leadership in the tourism industry and the automobile sector and found that six competence criteria; self-confidence, competition and conflict, work oriented features, creative thinking, team work, and conceptual thinking, are higher in the tourism industry, and four competence criteria; Job evaluation, changeability, know-how, and analytical thinking, are at a higher level in the automobile industry, and there is no differentiation concerning the competence criteria; entrepreneurship, problem solving, and being initiative. Furthermore, Joshi (2019) compared between leadership styles in the hospitality industry and the hospital industry and the results revealed that male leaders dominate the top and middle level leadership positions in both industries, hospital leaders are older and more qualified and experienced in comparison to those in the hotel industry, and it was found that the democratic leadership style is adopted by the majority of leaders from both industries.

Also, Valente et al. (2015) compared leadership across two Regional Tourism Organisations (RTOs) and the results showed that the main principles of governance such as accountability, efficiency, legitimacy, participation, effectiveness, and transparency have different impacts on each RTO's capacity to lead. Further, Riggs and Hughey (2011) compared the self-assessed leadership roles and managerial competencies of hospitality students and hospitality management professionals. The results confirmed that there are limited significant differences between the perceptions of the two groups and generally, the ranking of leadership roles and managerial competencies by the two populations are very similar (Riggs and Hughey, 2011). Finally, Chu and King (2019) investigated two hospitality leaders and their traits to provide insights concerning the formation of leaders in Greater China, and the results showed that leadership styles can be formed by a Western cultural background and also revealed that the two hospitality leaders have shown charisma in leading their companies to success. In the next section, the researcher highlights leadership frameworks, models, or measures developed in the tourism and hospitality industry.

3.4.1.4. Leadership Frameworks, Models, or Measures in Tourism and Hospitality

12 papers provided a literature review about establishing a new model, framework or measure for leadership (Tesone, 2004; Alexakis, 2011; Testa and Sipe, 2012; Zmyslony, 2014; Tsaur and Teng, 2017; Xu et al., 2017; Henning and Padayachee, 2018; Hirudayaraj and Sparkman, 2019; Qiu and Dooley, 2019; Araslı and Arıcı, 2019; Arasli et al., 2020; Ho et al. (2022). For example, Hirudayaraj and Sparkman (2019) suggested a crisis leadership development model in the tourism industry containing three components; crises contexts, competencies, and complexity mindset, and this model aims to develop leadership competencies particularly in the tourism industry to perform effectively in crisis situations. Moreover, Ho et al. (2022) developed a holistic "strategic leadership-enhanced organisational resilience framework" emphasising the actions and mindsets necessitated by hospitality and tourism organisations to achieve organisational health and resilience. Besides, Qiu and Dooley (2019) developed and validated a new scale that aims at measuring servant leadership behaviour in the hospitality industry in China, and the resulted scale includes six servant leadership dimensions; empowering people, self-sacrifice, emotional healing, integrity, building community, and visioning. Similarly, the remaining nine papers established new leadership frameworks or scales. In the next section, the researcher examines major leadership issues and challenges in the tourism and hospitality industry.

3.4.1.5. Leadership Issues and Challenges in Tourism and Hospitality

Four papers described the issues and challenges that leadership encounters in the tourism and hospitality industry (Ladkin and Weber, 2011; Cojocariu, 2012; Kagermeier, 2014; Cave et al., 2022). Firstly, Ladkin and Weber (2011) explored whether industry leaders in the tourism industry face certain pressures in the business environment especially in Hong Kong and how developing future leaders will be impacted. The results showed that the industry's universal "people-orientation" appears as the dominant leadership issue in the tourism industry which requires certain leadership skills regarding interpersonal relations and communications (Ladkin and Weber, 2011). Also, the emergence of new technologies and changes among employees are regarded as the two main industry trends that necessitate changing leadership skills (Ladkin and Weber, 2011).

Secondly, Cojocariu (2012) analysed the problems facing the hospitality small and medium enterprises' (SMEs) leadership process in Romania to identify viable solutions for improving the hospitality SMEs' effectiveness, and some of the problems indicated that the management style is not in accordance with the values of quality management, and other problems. Thirdly, Kagermeier (2014) presented the structural constraints faced by the tourism industry in Cyprus and found that the tenacity of power structures and traditional governance hinder the transition and the development of new leadership structures. Finally, Cave et al. (2022) provided significant insights regarding the challenges faced by tourism professionals as enablers of regenerative tourism and the results highlighted specific points of inactivity impeding regenerative tourism such as power, embedded culture, and organisational structures. In the next section, the researcher explores the antecedents and more particularly the impacts of different leadership styles on various outcomes which is the researcher's focus in this study.

3.4.1.6. Antecedents and Outcomes of Leadership in Tourism and Hospitality

Few studies in the tourism and hospitality industry have investigated the antecedents of leadership. The researcher has found four papers that examined leadership's antecedents. Firstly, Figueroa-Domecq et al. (2020) studied the impact of technology levels on the number of female leaders. Secondly, Montero-Muradas and Oreja-Rodríguez (2017) determined the competitive factors in tourism leadership in Spain. Thirdly, Maier (2008) investigated the role of appreciative inquiry in assisting leaders in building organisational values and opportunities for development. Fourthly, Williams et al. (2013) examined the impact of low and high youth sports participation on effective leadership styles.

However, the main interest of the researcher in this study is exploring the impacts of leadership styles on different outcomes and particularly determining which leadership style is more suitable for impacting EIB as it is the dependent variable in this study. Particularly, 134 papers out of 204 focus on the outcomes of tourism and hospitality leadership. The researcher has found several papers investigating the impact of leadership in general and also the impact of 26 leadership styles in these 134 papers including visionary leadership, ethical leadership, servant leadership, charismatic leadership, authentic leadership, transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and other styles. The researcher classifies these leadership styles and their outcomes as expressed in Table 3.3. Additionally, some papers involved more than one leadership style. So, these papers have been mentioned in the table more than once depending on the number of leadership styles used.

Table 3.3. Tourism and Hospitality Leadership Styles and Their Outcomes

STUDY	OUTCOMES
Leadership in general (35 Papers)	
Pechlaner et al. (2006); Vrdoljak Raguž (2007); Yang (2007); Crawford and Weber (2010); Hankinson (2012); El-Gohary and Eid (2013); Moscardo (2014); Butler et al. (2014); Crawford et al. (2014); Álvarez-García et al. (2016); Zach (2016); Kyalo et al. (2016); Lather et al. (2016); Lobo et al. (2016); Lun et al. (2016); Năstase and Vălimareanu (2017); Del Río-Rama et al. (2017); Gu et al. (2017); Selin (2017); Gürdoğan and Çavuş (2017); Pratiwi et al. (2018); Rüzgar (2018); Schweinsberg et al. (2018); Shum et al. (2018); Weerakit and Beeton (2018); Soliman and Wahba (2019); Fatoki (2019); Alnorawi et al. (2019); He et al. (2019); Taştan and Davoudi (2019); Spasojevic et al. (2019); Shamim et al. (2019); Book et al. (2019); Al Rasyid et al. (2020); Hoang et al. (2021a).	School quality, Quality of graduates, Strategic foresight, Marketing strategy, Alliances and resources, Quality policy and strategy, Personnel management, Learning, Attitudes toward leadership, Leadership Perceptions, Leadership skills, Employees' continuance commitment, Organisational climate, Strategy implementation, Collective action, Rural tourism development, Community development, social capital, human capital, knowledge transfer, organisational culture, Employee performance, Work stress, LMX, Sustainable regional development, Employee Engagement, Successful stakeholder engagement, Perceived organisational ethical climate, Collaboration for innovation, Innovation formality, Destination brand orientation, Developing innovations, Employees' loyalty, Employees' intentions to stay, increasing ratings of effectiveness, Different impacts of leadership dimensions among different groups, Employees' workplace Pro-Environmental Behaviour (PEB), Employee innovative behaviour, Employee well-being, Task performance, Knowledge Management behaviour, Employee affective commitment, Employee creative self-efficacy, Impact between director level managers and frontline managers, differences between leadership characteristics and (gender, age, qualification, social background and status), and Knowledge sharing.
Transformational Leadership (47 Papers)	
Minett et al. (2009); Rothfelder et al. (2012); Haven-Tang and Jones (2012); Kara et al. (2013); Wilson and Small (2013); Iglesias Xamaní et al. (2013); Ghadi et al. (2013); Newman and Butler (2014); Corbin and Alleyne (2014); Zumitzavan et al. (2014); Wang et al. (2014); Valente et al. (2014); Kontogeorgopoulos et al. (2014); Zapalska and Brozik (2015); Slåtten and Mehmetoglu (2015); Quintana et al. (2015); Çelik et al. (2016); Mohamed (2016); Patiar and Wang (2016); Mittal and Dhar (2016); Buil et al. (2016); Liang et al. (2017); Chen and Wu (2017); Elbaz and Haddoud (2017); Atia et al. (2017); Tran (2017); Liu (2017); Dlamini et al. (2017); Weerakit and Beeton (2018); Folakemi et al. (2018); Şeşen et al. (2019); Naderi et al. (2019); Sarmiento et al. (2019); Sung et al. (2019); Ohunakin et al. (2019); Mishra et al. (2019); Fouad (2019); Amor et al. (2020); Khan et al. (2020b); Chen and Wu (2020); Gui et al. (2020); Katou et al. (2020); Yulianeu et al. (2021); Yilmaz and Konaklioglu (2022); Wang and Li (2022); Belias et al. (2022); Idris et al. (2022).	Organisational commitment (Affective, Normative, Continuous), structural empowerment, Work engagement, Wise leadership development, Employees' job satisfaction, Employees' perceptions of meaning in work, Followership, organisational change, knowledge systems, Human capital development, Psychological Capital, Community-Based Tourism (CBT), Social capital, Social value, Organisational performance, Promoting mobilisation, Tourism development, Organisational innovation, Organisational identification, Management strategies, Conflict management, Risk taking, LMX, Psychological contract breach, Positive affect, Perceived supervisor support, motivation to continue working in the organisation, Extra-effort, Leader effectiveness, Psychological empowerment, Organisational climate, Organisational identification, Trust in a leader, Employees' perceived quality of work life, Employee reactions, Relational identification, human talent retention and involvement, Higher usage of transformational leadership among older people, Green creativity, Employee creativity, innovation climate, Turnover intention, Life satisfaction, Non-financial performance, Social performance, Environmental performance, Employee innovative behaviour, Return on equity, Employee creative self-efficacy, Employee creative role identity, Difference between leadership competencies and hotel types, knowledge transfer, Emotional intelligence, Team Performance, Organisational learning processes, Employee perception of organisational silence, Businesses' crisis recovery, Organisational culture, Employee Performance.
Servant Leadership (13 Papers)	
McGehee et al. (2015); Ling et al. (2016); Linuesa-Langreo (2016); Huang et al. (2016); Ling et al. (2017); Ilkhanizadeh and Karatepe (2018); Ghosh and Khatri (2018); Luu (2019a); Huertas-Valdivia et al. (2019); Luu (2020); Tuan (2020); Qiu et al. (2020); Tuan (2022).	Job satisfaction, Career satisfaction, Green crafting, Employee individual and Collective organisational citizenship behaviour (OCBE), Social capital, Rural tourism development, Green role identity (GRI), employee green creativity (CR), Green task demand reducing (GTDR), Green-related resource seeking (GRRS), Green-related challenge seeking (GRCS), better treatment of customers, prevention of service failure by employees, prompt action in case of any failure of service by employees, Firm performance, The service climate, Employees' service-oriented behaviours, Employee organisational commitment, Trust climate, Empowerment climate, Group creativity, Service quality, salespersons' resource, challenge, and demand seeking behaviour.
Transactional Leadership (11 Papers)	
Bernsen et al. (2009); Rothfelder et al. (2012); Zumitzavan et al. (2014); Quintana et al. (2015); Tran (2017); Folakemi et al. (2018); Fouad (2019); Şeşen et al. (2019); Sung et al. (2019), Yilmaz and Konaklioglu (2022); Belias et al. (2022).	Surface-disorganised learning strategy, Employees' job satisfaction, Employees' extra-effort, Leader effectiveness, Psychological Capital, Return on assets, Organisational innovation, Organisational performance, Organisational commitment, Employee perception of organisational silence.
Authentic Leadership (9 Papers)	
McGehee et al. (2015); Ling et al. (2017); Jeong et al. (2017); Megeirhi et al. (2018); Nasab and Afshari (2019); Baquero et al. (2019a); Wu and Chen (2019); Qiu et al. (2019); Ribeiro et al. (2020b).	Supervisor trust, Organisational trust, Social capital, Rural tourism development, Employee performance, Organisational commitment, Employee cynicism, Tolerance to workplace incivility, Job search behaviour, Trust climate, Customer-oriented organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), Trust in leaders, Affective commitment, Customer orientation, Collective mindfulness, Collective thriving.
Charismatic Leadership (6 Papers)	
Trudeau Poskas and Messer (2015); Çelik et al. (2016); Elbaz and Haddoud (2017); Gerges et al. (2017); Ekmekcioglu et al. (2018); Tuan (2019).	Coordinated teamwork (CTW), Wise leadership development, Employees' job satisfaction, Organisational performance, Follower relationships, Employee engagement, Employee organisational citizenship behaviour (OCBE),

	Employee environmental commitment, Innovation and change, Management strategies, Conflict management, Risk taking.
Empowering Leadership (6 Papers)	
Clark et al. (2009); Huertas-Valdivia et al. (2019); Hassi (2019); Lin et al. (2019); Boukis et al. (2020); Shehawy (2022).	Frontline employees' wellbeing, Shared customer-oriented values, Management innovation, Climate for creativity, Employees' psychological empowerment, Employee engagement, Employee service-oriented behaviours, Employees' job satisfaction, Firm performance.
Local or Community Leadership (4 Papers)	
McGehee et al. (2015); Chili and Ngxongo (2017); Rami et al. (2019); Setokoe et al. (2019).	Promoting active participation, Creating awareness, Increasing the understanding of tourism activities, Social capital, Rural tourism development, Sustaining community economic growth, Promoting followership, Sustainable tourism development, Community participation in the development tourism.
Other styles (30 Papers)	
Clark et al. (2009); Benson and Blackman (2011); Corbin and Alleyne (2014); Tromp and Blomme (2014); Zumitzavan et al. (2014); Qin et al. (2014); Valente et al. (2014); Chow et al. (2015); Çelik et al. (2016); Chen and Wu (2017); Elbaz and Haddoud (2017); Tuan (2018); Yüzbaşioğlu and Doğan (2018); Tkaczynski and Arli (2018); Mukhezakule and Tefera (2019); Fouad (2019); Kim et al. (2019); Zhang and Yao (2019); Luu et al. (2019); Huertas-Valdivia et al. (2019); Chang et al. (2020); Rao and Zaidi (2020); Marlia et al. (2020); Ghaedi et al. (2021), Bhutto et al. (2021); Lin and Ling (2021); Elsetouhi et al. (2022); Belias et al. (2022); Koo et al. (2022); Tran et al. (2023).	Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), Psychological contract breach, Organisational justice, Employee empowerment, Employees' psychological empowerment, Employees' job satisfaction, Organisational innovation, Management strategies, Conflict management, Risk taking, strain-based negative work-home interference (NWHI), Employee work engagement, Innovation and change, Extra-role customer service, Organisational commitment (Affective, Normative, Continuous), employee customer-oriented behaviour, Wise leadership development, Rebuilding civilisation through vision creation, Refreshing organisation vision, Organisational flexibility, Effective change, Capacity building, Community participatory engagement, Effective decision making, Promoting core competencies (Knowledge, character, skills, emotions), Group innovativeness, Shared customer-oriented values, Employees' trust in a leader, Employees' trust in an organisation, Unethical pro-organisational behaviour (UPB), Rule ethical climate (REC), Service recovery performance, and Customer-oriented job crafting, Employees' perception of their firm's community engagement, Employees' voice behavior, Employee innovative behaviour, Green psychological climate, Green creativity, Employee resilience, Crisis communication, Employees' service quality.

Category "Other styles" includes 33 papers as follows; 3 papers each for leader-member exchange, laissez faire leadership, autocratic leadership, ethical leadership, and paternalistic leadership; 2 papers each for visionary leadership, distributed leadership, spiritual leadership, and participative leadership; 1 paper each for paradoxical leadership, ambidextrous leadership, wise leadership, strategic leadership, relational leadership, Pygmalion leadership, passive-avoidant leadership, green inclusive leadership, toxic leadership, and supportive leadership.
Note: in category "Other styles", Elbaz and Haddoud (2017) included ethical, visionary, and wise leadership, and so, it was mentioned only once. Also, Çelik et al. (2016) explored autocratic and paternalistic leadership, and so, it was mentioned only once, totalling 30 papers.

Table 3.3 includes the five leadership styles examined in section 3.3, namely, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, empowering leadership, servant leadership, and authentic leadership. Therefore, the researcher focuses on them since they are the most commonly examined leadership styles that impact creativity and innovation (Hughes et al., 2018). Particularly, TL is the most researched leadership style investigated in tourism and hospitality leadership research (47 papers), followed by SL (13 papers), TrL (11 papers), AL (9 papers), and lastly EL (6 papers). However, regarding the impact on EIB, few studies have examined the impact of these five leadership styles on either creativity or innovation in the tourism and hospitality industry representing a gap in leadership literature. For instance, out of the 47 papers that examined the role of TL, only six papers were related to either creativity or innovation and also all six papers were investigated in the hospitality industry, not tourism, signifying another gap. Particularly, the role of TL was examined on organisational innovation (Zumitzavan et al., 2014), employee creativity (Wang et al., 2014), IB and perceived creativity (Slåtten and Mehmetoglu, 2015), innovation climate (Mohamed, 2016), green creativity (Mittal and Dhar, 2016), and service innovation (Gui et al., 2020). Furthermore, one paper out of 11 explored the impact of TrL on organisational innovation (Zumitzavan et al., 2014). Also, two papers out of 13 investigated the role of SL on group creativity (Linuesa-Langreo, 2016) and green creativity (Tuan, 2020). Additionally, only one paper out of six studied the influence of EL on management innovation and climate for creativity (Hassi, 2019). Interestingly, despite the fact that AL is mentioned in 9 papers, neither of these papers have explored the impact of AL on creativity, innovation, or IB, denoting another gap in the tourism and hospitality leadership research.

Furthermore, most TL's papers in the tourism and hospitality industry explored its role in general. In fact, only four papers out of 204 analysed the dimensions of TL and their impact on job satisfaction (Rothfelder et al., 2012; Quintana et al., 2015; Folakemi et al. 2018; Ohunakin et al., 2019). There is a scarcity in papers clarifying the impact of TL's dimensions on creativity or innovation, indicating a major gap. Hughes et al. (2018) stated that failing to analyse the sub-factors of TL has led the impact estimates of this leadership style to be sub-optimal. Also, investigating more contemporary and narrowly specified leader variables tend to have greater impacts than do broad measures of leader variables (Hughes et al., 2018). Moreover, several researchers recommended using TL's four dimensions separately to investigate the effects of each (Hemsworth et al., 2013; Van Knippenberg and Sitkin, 2013; Deinert et al., 2015). For example, Hemsworth et al. (2013) confirmed that the discriminant validity between TL's dimensions is empirically confirmed in a large sample. Further, Djourova et al. (2020) realised that TL's four dimensions have overall differentiated content and encompass different leader behaviours. Accordingly, it is crucial to explore the impacts of TL's dimensions on creativity and innovation, particularly, EIB.

Moreover, several papers tried to compare between the impacts of TL and the other four leadership styles, namely, TrL (Lee and Ding, 2020; Alrowwad and Abualoush, 2020; Belias et al., 2022; Yilmaz and Konaklioglu, 2022), EL (Jada and Mukhopadhyay, 2019; Lee and Ding, 2020; Srivastava and Pinto, 2022), SL (Andersen, 2018; Xie, 2020; Shi and Zhou, 2023), and AL (Baquero et al., 2019b; Grošelj et al., 2021; Korku and Kaya, 2022). This highlights the significance of TL among other leadership styles and the extensive research concerning its impacts on various outcomes. Furthermore, Lee et al. (2020a) have provided interesting findings and proved that comparing between the full range leadership model (TL and TrL), EL, and SL has the strongest correlations with individual innovation, while comparing between AL and EL has the strongest correlations with creativity. Despite these interesting findings, it is unclear whether these findings will be the same when comparing TL's dimensions in detail with other leadership styles, and more particularly in the tourism and hospitality industry as

Hughes et al. (2018, p. 554) stressed that creativity and innovation might seem different across different contexts and noted that “no papers have empirically explored cross-industry impacts, and consequently, direct comparisons across industry boundaries would be an interesting area for future research”.

Accordingly, based on the previous discussion, the researcher focuses on exploring the impact of TL’s four dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, and IC) on EIB in the Egyptian tourism industry. Particularly, exploring the impact of TL’s dimensions on either creativity or innovation is scarce which necessitates exploring to gain further insights regarding how each dimension of TL would influence creativity or innovation differently, providing a contribution to the leadership literature. Also, investigating the influence of TL’s dimensions on either creativity or innovation in the tourism industry is limited. Specifically, no study (according to the researcher’s knowledge) has examined the influence of TL’s dimensions on EIB in the Egyptian tourism industry. All these reasons justify why the researcher chooses to investigate the role of TL and the impact of its dimensions on EIB in the Egyptian tourism industry. Hence, in this study, TL is conceptualised as “a multidimensional construct comprising four main behavioural dimensions; II.C, IM, IS, and IC, in which leaders play an idealised model, help and coach their employees, foster their innovation, and stimulate them to work for accomplishing organisational objectives and satisfying their needs at a higher level” (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1994a; Bednall et al., 2018; Suifan et al., 2018; Rizki et al., 2019). The researcher has chosen this definition as it focuses on the role of TL’s dimensions and how these dimensions impact employees’ behaviours. Also, this definition emphasises the role of transformational leaders in stimulating their employees’ innovation, and so, it matches with the research objectives, considering that the aim of this study is exploring the impact of TL on EIB in the Egyptian tourism industry. In the next section, the researcher examines the methodological trends encompassing the research methods, data collection methods, sampling methods, and data analysis methods utilised in the tourism and hospitality leadership research.

3.4.2. Methodological Trends

3.4.2.1. Research Methods

After examining the underlying theories in the tourism and hospitality leadership research, the researcher performs a frequency analysis to identify the research methods employed. The results, as shown in Table 3.4, acknowledge that quantitative methods dominate the tourism and hospitality leadership research. Among the 204 papers examined by the researcher, 115 papers (56.37%) employ the quantitative methods, while 74 papers (36.28%) and 15 papers (7.35%) utilise qualitative methods and mixed methods, respectively.

Table 3.4. Research Methods Employed in Tourism and Hospitality Leadership

Research methods	Frequency	Percent
Quantitative methods	115	56.37
Qualitative methods	74	36.28
Mixed methods	15	7.35
Total	204	100%

3.4.2.2. Data Collection Methods

After analysing the research methods, another frequency analysis, as illustrated in Table 3.5, is conducted for the data collection methods performed in the tourism and hospitality leadership research. The results show that, regarding the quantitative method, questionnaire survey (111, 54.41%) is the most common data collection method employed, followed by experimental studies (3, 1.47%). Also, only one paper (0.49%) did not clearly mention the data collection methods. Thus, it is named as “Non-Applicable”.

On the other hand, concerning the qualitative method, interviews are the most popular data collection method used (30, 14.71%), followed by interviews and observations (4, 1.96%), and then observations alone (1, 0.49%). Additionally, 39 papers (19.12%) provide a literature review or present case studies, and so, data collection methods are not clearly determined. Thus, it is labelled as “Non-Applicable”. Finally, regarding mixed methods approach, 12 papers (5.88%) use both questionnaire surveys and interviews, while three papers (1.47%) utilise questionnaire surveys through asking open-ended and closed ended questions.

Table 3.5. Data Collection Methods Employed in Tourism and Hospitality Leadership Literature

Research methods	Data collection methods	Frequency	Percent
Quantitative methods	**Questionnaire survey**	111	54.41
	Experimental study	3	1.47
	Non-Applicable	1	0.49
Qualitative methods	**Interviews**	30	14.71
	Interviews and observations	4	1.96
	Observations	1	0.49
	Non-Applicable	39	19.12
Mixed methods	**Questionnaire survey and interviews**	12	5.88
	Questionnaire survey	3	1.47
Total		204	100%

3.4.2.3. Sampling Methods

After demonstrating data collection methods, the researcher investigates sampling methods employed in the tourism and hospitality leadership research. Particularly, frequency analyses are established for target population, sampling method and sample size. A thorough review of research samples highlights the target population in the tourism and hospitality leadership research. As exemplified in Table 3.6, the frequency analysis of the target market reveals that China is the most widely target population researched (22, 10.79%), followed by Turkey (13, 6.37%), United states of America (USA) (12, 5.88%), United Kingdom (UK), Spain, and Egypt with nine papers investigated for each (4.41%), and then Vietnam (8, 3.92%). Also, other target populations receive a considerable attention like Taiwan (6, 2.94%), followed by India and Indonesia with five papers examined for each (2.45%), and then Thailand and Australia with four papers explored for each (4, 1.96%).

Additionally, the category "other" in Table 3.6 includes 50 papers (24.51%) covering other various regions that receive a little attention and are presented in less than three papers. For instance, two papers each (0.98%) are explored for various regions including Malaysia, Brazil, United Arab Emirates (UAE), Iran, Portugal, Korea, Colombia, Croatia, Italy, Poland, The Netherlands, Romania, and Germany. Also, ten papers are applied on various cities in Africa. On the other hand, the least examined target population involve only one paper each (0.49%) for regions such as Greece, Pakistan, Iraq, New Zealand, Norway, Jordan, Finland, Scandinavia, Austria, Canada, Cyprus, the Dominican Republic and the island of Barbados in The Caribbean, and businesses in Asia in general.

Interestingly, 14 papers (6.87%) comprise mixed target populations. For example, Yilmaz and Konaklioglu (2022) examined target populations from Turkey and Italy, while Figueroa-Domecq et al. (2020) explored target populations from United states (US), United Kingdom (UK), Spain, Germany, India, Argentina, The Netherlands, China, United Arab Emirates (UAE), Switzerland, France, Australia, and Thailand. Also, Luu (2020) investigated target populations from south Korea and Vietnam, whereas Spasojevic et al. (2019) used target populations from Asia, Europe, North America, and Oceania. Furthermore, Law et al. (2010), Moscardo (2014), Butler et al. (2014), Beritelli and Bieger (2014), McGehee et al. (2015), Lun et al. (2016), Liu (2017), Pritchard and Morgan (2017), Deale and Asanova (2018), and Zhang and Yao (2019) explored mixed target populations.

Finally, 34 papers (16.67%) did not particularly identify the location of the target population. Thus, the researcher has marked them as "Non-Applicable". Accordingly, from this analysis' results, the researcher realises that Egypt is examined five times in the tourism industry, two times in the hospitality industry, and two times in both the tourism and hospitality industry combined. Therefore, the researcher concludes that Egypt is not explored enough in the tourism industry which justifies the researcher's examination into the Egyptian tourism industry in this study.

Table 3.6. Target Population in Tourism and Hospitality Leadership Literature

Target population (Location)	Frequency	Percent
China	22	10.79
Turkey	13	6.37
United states of America (USA)	12	5.88
United Kingdom (UK)	9	4.41
Spain	9	4.41
Egypt	9	4.41
Vietnam	8	3.92
Taiwan	6	2.94
India	5	2.45
Indonesia	5	2.45
Thailand	4	1.96
Australia	4	1.96
Mix	14	6.87
Other	50	24.51
Non-Applicable (N/A)	34	16.67
Total	204	100%

Another frequency analysis is utilised for the sampling methods in the tourism and hospitality leadership literature as shown in Table 3.7. Unfortunately, according to the results, 126 papers did not mention the sampling methods; (59, 28.92%) for quantitative research, (60, 29.41%) for qualitative research, and (7, 3.43%) for mixed methods research, and so, the researcher has labeled them as "Non-Applicable". Although this phenomenon is reasonable for qualitative papers as they conduct literature reviews, this type of information is missing in several quantitative papers that employ questionnaire surveys.

Concerning quantitative research, random sampling is the most popular sampling method used which include simple random sampling (20, 9.81%) and stratified random sampling (4, 1.96%). Convenience sampling is the second most popular sampling technique employed with 16 papers (7.85%), followed by purposive sampling (8, 3.92%), and then snowball sampling (5, 2.45%). Also, one paper (0.49%) used quota sampling and another paper (0.49%) employed the total enumeration sampling technique. Moreover, one paper (0.49%) utilised a mix of convenience sampling and snowball sampling.

On the other hand, regarding qualitative research, eight papers (3.92%) utilised purposive sampling, followed by convenience sampling (3, 1.47%), snowball sampling (2, 0.98%) and then stratified random sampling (1, 0.49%). Finally, concerning mixed methods research, two papers each (0.98%) used simple random sampling, stratified random sampling, purposive sampling, and snowball sampling.

Table 3.7. Sampling Methods Employed in Tourism and Hospitality Leadership

Research approach	Sampling method	Frequency	Percent
Quantitative	Simple random sampling	20	9.81
	Stratified random sampling	4	1.96
	Convenience sampling	16	7.85
	Purposive sampling	8	3.92
	Snowball sampling	5	2.45
	Quota sampling	1	0.49
	Total enumeration sampling	1	0.49
	Mix	1	0.49
	Non-Applicable	59	28.92
Qualitative	Purposive sampling	8	3.92
	Convenience sampling	3	1.47
	Snowball sampling	2	0.98
	Stratified random sampling	1	0.49
	Non-Applicable	60	29.41
Mixed method	Simple random sampling	2	0.98
	Stratified random sampling	2	0.98
	Purposive sampling	2	0.98
	Snowball sampling	2	0.98
	Non-Applicable	7	3.43
Total		204	100%

In the end of this section, the researcher also examines and presents the sample size of the tourism and hospitality leadership papers as shown in Appendix 3.1. This analysis combines the sample size with factors of the research approach (i.e., quantitative, qualitative, mixed method) and sampling category (i.e., tourism industry and hospitality industry).

As shown in Appendix 3.1, regarding sample size in quantitative papers, 20 papers each employed a sample size ranging between 1 and 100, larger than 200, and larger than 300. Further, 18 papers utilised a sample size larger than 100, and then 16 papers used a sample size larger than 600. Additionally, nine papers utilised a sample size larger than 400, eight papers used a sample size larger than 1000, and four papers employed a sample size larger than 500.

One the other hand, most qualitative papers employed a sample size falling within 1 and 100 (35 papers), followed by a sample size lager than 100 (two papers), and then a sample size larger than 200 and larger than 1000 (one paper each). Unfortunately, 35 qualitative papers did not mention the sample size, and so, the researcher has named them as “Non-Applicable”. Further, regarding mixed methods papers, ten papers used a sample size that falls between 1 and 100, followed by a sample size larger than 300 and larger than 600 (two papers each). Also, only one mixed methods paper did not mention the sample size which has been labelled as “Non-Applicable”.

Concerning the sampling category, most of the quantitative papers employed samples from the hospitality industry (69 papers), followed by the tourism industry (40 papers), and then both the tourism and hospitality industry combined (six papers). On the other hand, regarding qualitative papers, most qualitative papers utilised samples from the tourism industry (26 papers), followed by the hospitality industry (eight papers), and then both industries combined (five papers). Finally, concerning mixed methods papers, ten papers used samples from the tourism industry and four papers utilised samples from the hospitality industry. Accordingly, based on the previous analysis, the researcher concludes that leadership is explored extensively in the hospitality industry (69 quantitative papers) compared to leadership in the tourism industry which is explored less (40 quantitative papers). This justifies the researcher’s investigation of leadership in the tourism industry in this study.

3.4.2.4. Data Analysis Methods

After exploring data collection and sampling methods employed in the tourism and hospitality leadership research, the researcher examines data analysis methods as they are considered a vital methodological component for all research studies. Reviewing the tourism and hospitality leadership literature in the 115 quantitative papers has identified 28 quantitative data analysis methods, which are exhibited in Table 3.8. A frequency analysis is performed for the identified data analysis methods, showing that the 28 determined quantitative data analysis methods appeared in a total of 387 times in the 115 papers. However, three quantitative papers did not clearly determine which data analysis methods were used.

Particularly, the frequency analysis reveals that descriptive statistics is the most commonly data analysis method utilised for quantitative papers (81, 20.93%), followed by correlation (78, 20.15%), structural equation modelling (SEM) (45, 11.63%), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (44, 11.37%), and path analysis (27, 6.97%). Furthermore, other different quantitative data analysis methods are employed in more than five papers like common method bias (CMB) (13, 3.35%), factor analysis and t-tests with 11 papers each (2.84%), analysis of variance (ANOVA) (8, 2.06%), exploratory factor analysis (EFA) (7, 1.81%), and Pearson correlation (6, 1.55%). Further, multiple regression analysis is examined nine times (2.33%), regression analysis is explored seven times (1.81%), and hierarchical regression analysis and hierarchical linear modelling (HLM) are investigated six times each (1.55%).

Since 2000 till 2015, the major focus was on using descriptive statistics, correlation, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and structural equation modelling (SEM). In the recent years, these methods are still employed, but also other numerous methods have been used such as path analysis, regression analysis, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), t-tests, and others. Also, although the researcher did not compare the quantitative data analysis methods used in different periods statistically, this phenomenon is approved through the literature review process as the papers that are published more recently are likely to cover more inclusive analyses by using multiple data analysis methods.

On the other hand, regarding qualitative papers, 50 papers out of 74 did not mention the data analysis methods, while most of the rest (24 papers) used coding analysis as a primary data analysis method whether conducted through content analysis, thematic analysis, or triangulation because most of these papers depended on literature reviews. Finally, concerning mixed methods papers, five papers out of 15 did not mention the data analysis methods, while the rest (ten papers) used a combination of descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation, path analysis, structural equation modelling (SEM), multiple linear regression, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), exploratory factor analysis (EFA), t-tests, and coding analysis which is performed either through content analysis or thematic analysis. In the next section, the researcher identifies the research gap and limitation in leadership literature.

Table 3.8. Quantitative Data Analysis Methods in Tourism and Hospitality Leadership Literature

Quantitative data analysis methods	Frequency	Percent
Descriptive statistics	81	20.93
Path analysis	27	6.97
Factor analysis	11	2.84
Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)	44	11.37
Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)	7	1.81
Analysis of variance (ANOVA)	8	2.06
Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA)	3	0.78
Structural equation modelling (SEM)	45	11.63
Multilevel structural equation modelling (MSEM)	5	1.29
Covariance-based structural-equation modelling (COV-SEM)	2	0.52
Hierarchical linear modelling (HLM)	6	1.55
Correlation	78	20.15
Pearson correlation	6	1.55
Spearman correlation	2	0.52
Common method bias (CMB)	13	3.35

Social desirability bias (SDB)	1	0.26
T-test	11	2.84
Sobel test	1	0.26
Mann-Whitney U test	1	0.26
Kolmogorov–Smirnov normality test	1	0.26
Regression analysis	7	1.81
Multiple regression analysis	9	2.33
Logistic regression analysis	2	0.52
Linear regression analysis	5	1.29
Stepwise regression analysis	3	0.78
Polynomial regression analysis	1	0.26
Hierarchical Regression Analysis	6	1.55
Hierarchical multiple regression analysis	1	0.26
Total	387	100%

3.5. Research Gap and Limitation

Up till now, leadership, creativity and innovation research have generated a complex literature that hinder understanding and developing evidence-based practical recommendations (Lee et al., 2020a). Despite the empirical evidence represented by the researcher in the prior sections, several gaps still exist in leadership literature. For instance, although reviewing 204 papers is comprehensive, it is still by no means exhaustive. The sorting process followed by the researcher may have overlooked some related papers and some recent papers could not be accessed. Further, the leadership literature suffers from construct redundancy (Shaffer et al., 2016), with high associations being observed between various leadership variables (Banks et al., 2018), as most leadership definitions highlight that leadership is a process by which leaders can impact and be impacted by their followers. Moreover, although leadership has been examined extensively, no agreed definition of leadership has been found due to different schools of thoughts which provide various perspectives on its nature (Yukl, 2010). Accordingly, organisational members should have a universal understanding of what leadership means in the organisation under consideration and how it expresses itself, which should be explored by future researchers.

Further, the aim of this chapter is to provide a critical review about leadership research, particularly in the tourism and hospitality industry and explore various leadership styles to determine which style will be suitable in impacting EIB. The researcher reviewed five various leadership styles, namely transformational, transactional, empowering, servant, and authentic leadership on the basis that they are the most commonly explored leadership styles that are associated with creativity and innovation (Hughes et al., 2018). Based on the review, these leadership styles share equivalent associations with creativity and innovation, and this homogeneity reflects construct redundancy within leadership research (Shaffer et al., 2016), meaning that there is a complex literature that restrain understanding and developing practical recommendations (DeRue et al., 2011; Shaffer et al., 2016). Accordingly, future research should address the lack of theoretical clarity by paying attention to the distinctiveness of leadership approaches and the relative and incremental impacts of each (Hughes et al., 2018).

Additionally, after reviewing 204 papers about leadership in the tourism and hospitality industry, the researcher found 26 different leadership styles including the five styles reviewed and focused on in section 3.3. Unfortunately, the researcher found that creativity, innovation, or IB are not extensively explored by these leadership styles. Specifically, only six transformational leadership papers, four papers relating to leadership in general, two servant leadership papers, and one paper each related to transactional, empowering, laissez faire, charismatic, autocratic, distributed, spiritual, green inclusive, and supportive leadership examined the impact on either creativity, innovation, or IB, signifying a serious gap in the tourism and hospitality leadership literature. Interestingly, in the reviewed 204 papers, there were no papers clarifying the role of LMX, authentic, ethical, paradoxical, ambidextrous, visionary, wise, paternalistic, local or community, strategic, relational, participative, Pygmalion, passive-avoidant, and toxic leadership in influencing either creativity, innovation, or IB in the tourism and hospitality industry, indicating a significant literature gap. This highlights that creativity, innovation, or EIB need further investigating in the tourism and hospitality industry because of their significance.

Another gap is that most of the reviewed TL papers investigated its role in general, not its dimensions. Thus, to address this gap in this study, the researcher is examining the impact of TL's dimensions on EIB in the tourism industry. Additionally, future researchers should focus more on investigating the role of LMX, transactional, empowering, servant, and authentic leadership, and their dimensions in the tourism and hospitality industry and clarify their association with creativity, innovation, or EIB to gain further insights. This is important for the leadership literature as exploring specific leader variables such as dimensions of leadership styles tends to cause greater influences than do broad measures of leader variables (Hughes et al., 2018), which will add a contribution in the leadership literature.

Furthermore, regarding leadership themes in section 3.4.1. Several gaps exist. Firstly, among 204 papers, only four papers investigated leadership issues and challenges in the tourism and hospitality industry, providing a literature gap. Leadership faces huge pressures and challenges, and with time, these challenges develop and put further burden on leadership (Fowler and Robbins, 2022). For example, the Coronavirus (Covid-19) pandemic has impacted leadership worldwide (Fowler and Robbins, 2022; Musbahi et al., 2022). Thus, future research should provide more emphasis on leadership issues and challenges as it will help in dealing with these issues and provide further insights about which leadership approaches or strategies will be beneficial in times of crises, contributing to the leadership literature.

Thirdly, only four papers examined leadership antecedents. Most of the reviewed papers focused on the outcomes of leadership and its styles and overlooked its antecedents, indicating a crucial gap in the leadership literature that necessitates further attention in the future. This will help in identifying which factors stimulate leaders more and influence their roles, adding more contributions to the leadership literature. From another point, leadership styles are not evaluated from employees' perspective (Clark et al., 2009). Certainly, evaluating both managers' and employees' perceptions of leadership styles could be beneficial in terms of cross-validation. Therefore, the researcher in this study explains how employees perceive TL and its impact on their IB. Furthermore, most of the reviewed leadership papers focus on leadership styles, while leadership traits such as personality and other traits receive little attention despite their importance for fostering creativity. Omitting well-established individual characteristics is surprising as according to Huang et al. (2016), studies that have measured such leader characteristics have found essential associations with employees' creativity. Accordingly, leader traits and their influence on creativity or innovation should be further explored by future researchers.

Concerning methodological trends in section 3.4.2, some gaps exist. Firstly, regarding the research approach, the majority of the reviewed papers employed the quantitative approach (56.37%), while qualitative and mixed methods approaches were utilised less (36.28%), (7.35%), respectively. This indicates that mixed methods papers are scarce. Accordingly, to fill this gap, the researcher is conducting a mixed methods approach to clarify the association between TL and EIB because a mixed methods approach will provide more depth and reduce the limitations of both quantitative and qualitative approaches (Creswell and Clark, 2017).

Secondly, concerning location demonstrated in Table 3.6, the researcher found that several papers were conducted in China (10.79%), Turkey (6.37%), USA (5.88%), UK and Spain (4.41% each). Specifically, Egypt, which is the researcher's focus, is explored in nine papers (4.41%), representing a low percentage and a major gap in the leadership literature, in which the researcher addresses by performing this study in the Egyptian tourism industry. More particularly, since the researcher is focusing on Egypt in this study, the researcher found that TL will be suitable to be investigated in the Egyptian tourism industry. Specifically, Mohamed (2016) explored the Egyptian hospitality industry by conducting a study on five-star hotels in

Egypt and the results found that TL exists in running these hotels. However, the researcher did not find studies (according to the researcher's knowledge) that examine the role of TL in the Egyptian tourism industry, signifying a main gap to be addressed. Therefore, in order to generalise the findings of Mohamed's (2016) study, it should be replicated in other industries such as travel agents, which is addressed by the researcher in this study.

3.6. Conclusion

This chapter provides a detailed examination of the leadership literature. It starts by analysing various leadership definitions to conceptualise a proper leadership definition for this study. After that, this chapter distinguishes between various leadership styles. Subsequently, leadership research in the tourism and hospitality industry is explored by highlighting major themes including its role and significance, its characteristics, skills, and competencies, comparing leadership in the tourism and hospitality industry with other sectors, its frameworks, models, or measures, its issues and challenges, and its antecedents and outcomes. Furthermore, this chapter explores underlying theories and examines major methodological trends encompassing the research methods, data collection methods, sampling methods, and data analysis methods in the tourism and hospitality leadership literature. Finally, gaps and limitations in the leadership literature are provided and potential solutions to some of these gaps are presented. In the next chapter, the researcher investigates the conceptual framework and hypotheses development.

CHAPTER FOUR: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

4.1. Introduction

A conceptual framework explains assumptions about a studied phenomenon, illustrates researchers' understanding of the key concepts under investigation, and works to guide the interpretation of significant results and key methodological decisions (Luft et al., 2022). Also, Ravitch and Riggan (2012) stressed that a conceptual framework represents an argument about why the topic of a study is important. Moreover, Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 18) declared that a conceptual framework "explains, either narratively or graphically, the key things to be studied; the key factors, concepts or variables and the assumed relationships between them". Further, a conceptual framework enables readers to be clear about what the research strives to achieve and how it would be achieved (King et al., 1994).

Accordingly, in this chapter, the conceptual framework is based on the findings from the reviews given in chapters two and three (EIB and leadership) which proposes opportunities for further research. Particularly, several studies emphasised that TL could stimulate EIB (Afsar and Umrani, 2020a; Su et al., 2020; Grošelj et al., 2021; Rafique et al., 2022; Lim and Moon, 2022; Korku and Kaya, 2022). However, based on the review in chapter three (leadership), there is a lack of research concerning the impact of TL's four dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) on EIB. Also, the relationship between TL and EIB is overlooked in the tourism industry, especially in in Egypt. Thus, such a relationship is firstly considered in the conceptual framework. Moreover, reviewing chapters two and three (EIB and leadership) seems to suggest that innovative self-efficacy (ISE) and perceived organisational support (POS) are major variables relating to EIB (Dörner, 2012; Ma et al., 2016; Nazir et al., 2019; Akhtar et al., 2019; Musenze and Mayende, 2022; Muñoz et al., 2023). Therefore, these two variables are discussed in relation to their indirect association between TL and EIB.

Therefore, the aim of chapters two, three, and four is to realise the first two objectives of this study; critically reviewing and investigating the relationship between TL and EIB and critically examining the mediating role of ISE and the moderating role of POS in the relationship between TL and EIB. Consequently, this chapter is structured as follows; exploring the relationship between TL and EIB, investigating the association between ISE and EIB, examining the affiliation between TL and ISE, inspecting the mediating role of ISE, exploring the moderating role of POS, and finally giving a conclusion. In the next section, the researcher starts by investigating the relationship between TL and EIB.

4.2. The Relationship Between TL and EIB

As recalled from chapters two and three (EIB and leadership), TL is conceptualised as a multidimensional construct including four main behavioural dimensions; II.C, IM, IS, and IC, in which leaders play an idealised model, assist and mentor employees, stimulate their innovation, and motivate employees to work to accomplish organisational objectives and satisfy their needs at a higher level (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1994a; Suifan et al., 2018; Bednall et al., 2018; Rizki et al., 2019). Also, EIB is conceptualised as a frontline employee's extra-role or discretionary behaviour intended to intentionally generate, promote and realise new ideas and skills within a work role, group or organisation to benefit role performance, the group, or the organisation (Janssen, 2000; Kao et al., 2015).

Among different leadership styles, TL is considered as the most effective leadership style that could increase EIB (Suhana et al., 2019). Also, Lee and Jung (2006) confirmed that in comparison with other leadership styles, employees usually accept TL as it encourages their innovative abilities. Additionally, despite the variety of theories discussing what the appropriate leadership style for fostering EIB should be, previous research emphasised the significance of TL to do so (Rawung et al., 2015; Masa'deh et al., 2016; Rafique et al., 2022; Lim and Moon, 2022). Further, Sosik and Jung (2018) emphasised TL as a driver for facilitating EIB. Significantly, regarding theory, besides TL's theory, SET (Blau, 1964) offers a theoretical mechanism for clarifying the association between TL and EIB (Sanders et al., 2010). Particularly, when employees perceive their leader as transformational, who motivates them and establishes high quality exchanges with them, they experience this as a gift in which they are willing to return by expressing IBs (Sanders and Shipton, 2012; Lim and Moon, 2022). Similarly, Li et al. (2019) stated that followers of transformational leaders are likely to pay back their supportive leaders by showing positive behaviours such as IBs, contributing positively to their organisations (Choi et al., 2016; Nazir et al., 2016). Moreover, transformational leaders provide personal and collective value system, effective communication, access to resources and information, self-confidence, and inner direction to their followers (Afsar et al., 2014), meaning that the exchange relationship between transformational leaders and their followers do not involve transactions; instead, it is based on loyalty, trust, and respect (Afsar and Umrani, 2020a). Accordingly, when followers' individual needs and expectations are considered, they tend to reciprocate by expressing IBs and exploring novel opportunities (Afsar et al., 2014).

Furthermore, numerous studies confirmed that TL has a significant positive impact on EIB (Tayal et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019; Umrani and Afsar, 2019; Suhana et al., 2019; Afsar and

Umrani, 2020a, 2020b; Su et al., 2020; Grošelj et al., 2021; Chung and Li, 2021; Rafique et al., 2022; Lim and Moon, 2022; Korku and Kaya, 2022). Many reasons are suggested to support the assumption that TL positively influences EIB. For instance, Masood and Afsar (2017) and Hughes et al. (2018) argued that TL is supposed to be better for assessing the holistic view of leadership's impact on EIB due to its multi-level impact as TL integrates leaders' interactions with employees at multiple levels; through IS and IC at the individual level, and IM and II.C at the group and organisational levels (Masood and Afsar, 2017). Additionally, Ma and Jiang (2018) suggested that transformational leaders foster employees' openness, experimentation, and risk-taking behaviours, which accordingly promote EIB. Also, TL emphasises co-operation, freedom in decision-making, and delegating authority to execute ideas, which encourage employees' participation in idea generation and implementation (Masood and Afsar, 2017). Likewise, transformational leaders increase followers' IBs by inspiring them to pursue collective goals (Handayani et al., 2018), and develop their full potentials by encouraging them to look at problems in novel ways (Tayal et al., 2018).

However, although numerous studies proved the positive association between TL and EIB, other studies showed inconsistent results and meta-analytic results revealed a high variation in the association between TL and EIB (Afsar et al., 2014; Uhl-Bien and Arena, 2018). Also, Pieterse et al. (2010) and Pradhan and Jena (2019) stated that empirical evidence for the role of TL in stimulating EIB is scarce, inconsistent, and underdeveloped. Particularly, some studies found a negative association between TL and EIB (Basu and Green, 1997; Jaussi and Dionne, 2003; Pradhan, 2015; Rizki et al., 2019), and other studies showed no association (Kahai et al., 2003; Krause, 2004; Moss and Ritossa, 2007). Various scholars have given different reasons for these inconsistencies. For instance, Bednall et al. (2018) proposed that the association between TL and IB is non-linear and declared that the positive effects of TL on EIB will be stronger at low and high levels of TL. Particularly, at low levels, employees with high intrinsic motivation, expert knowledge, and high need for autonomy are expected to have a low need for leadership (Vries, 1999), and so, in order to promote these employees' creativity and innovativeness, it is suggested to give them as much intellectual autonomy and as little guidance from leaders as possible (King and Anderson, 1993; Eisenbeiß and Boerner, 2010). In other words, Eisenbeiß and Boerner (2010) found that employees are highly innovative under low levels of TL because of their high intrinsic motivation to innovate, their technical skills, and expert knowledge, and so, low levels of TL protected the employees' autonomy and promoted their IBs. On the other hand, at high levels of TL, IB occurred because the activities associated with TL (vision, intellectual stimulation, and support) stimulated employees' creative responses and effective achievements (Eisenbeiß and Boerner, 2010).

Another possible reason is that, as previously mentioned in section 3.3.1, Howell and Avolio (1992) discussed the manipulativeness of some transformational leaders which raise questions regarding the ethical intention of such leaders. Those leaders do not approve their followers' innovativeness or creativity and prefer their subordinates to be dependent on them than to be independent and productive (Pradhan and Jena, 2019). More specifically, according to Chung and Li (2021), there is a dark side of TL; an appropriate level of TL could positively impact EIB, but an extreme degree of TL may even weaken EIB due to the negative emotions of subordinates. For instance, Porter and Bigley (2003) stated that an extreme level of TL might cause stress and exhaustion of subordinates and therefore may decrease their motivation. Moreover, if subordinates depend more on the leader, they will automatically lose their personal accomplishment and regard it as their lack of competency, and thus they will ultimately decrease their IB (Chung and Li, 2021). However, despite these inconsistencies, research still argues that TL might enhance EIB by inspiring and motivating employees via a shared vision articulated in the organisation (Pieterse et al. 2010; Rafique et al., 2022). Therefore, the researcher proposes the following hypothesis;

H1. TL has a significant positive direct impact on EIB.

Specifically, most of the previous mentioned studies that showed a positive association between TL and EIB explored the role of TL in general and did not focus on its dimensions which is addressed by the researcher in this study. The researcher explores the role of TL's dimensions as according to Hughes et al. (2018), theory proposes that some sub-factors might be more relevant than others and by failing to examine the sub-factors of TL, the current impact estimates of this leadership style are sub-optimal. Therefore, the researcher investigates the role of TL's dimensions in stimulating EIB. Firstly, concerning II.C, Korku and Kaya (2022) acknowledged that transformational leaders are role models because of their charismatic characteristics and are respected and appreciated by their employees, and when those leaders foster creative or innovative ideas, their employees identify with them and emulate them by expressing IBs. Also, Masood and Afsar (2017) declared that employees are encouraged to promote innovation through the individual charisma of their leaders. Moreover, transformational leaders with II.C exhibit optimism and excitement about new perspectives, promoting organisational innovation (Elkins and Keller, 2003), and possibly EIB. Likewise, transformational leaders, through their II.C, inspire followers to take risks and motivate them to focus on achieving higher goals and innovative objectives (Howell and Shamir, 2005). Thus, the following hypothesis is suggested;

H1a. II.C has a significant positive direct impact on EIB.

Secondly, regarding IM, Rafique et al. (2022) declared that transformational leaders inspire employees by linking their futures to the organisation's future and stimulate them to engage in IBs by showing a strong sense of shared vision. Similarly, Afsar and Umrani (2020b) suggested that TL can foster employees to participate in IBs by establishing a strong sense of shared vision and belongingness with the organisation. Additionally, in theory, inspirationally motivating employees to plan novel ways for solving problems helps them to express behaviours that emphasise crafting novel ways of doing things (Afsar et al., 2014). Further, Gong et al. (2009) argued that IM should encourage employees' intrinsic motivation toward creative or innovative tasks. Consequently, the following hypothesis is proposed;

H1b. IM has a significant positive direct impact on EIB.

Thirdly, through IS, transformational leaders challenge their followers to test current methods and help them to be creative in solving problems and realising organisational goals (Lim and Moon, 2022). Also, Khan et al. (2020a) declared that IS focuses explicitly on employees' creativity and innovativeness. Similarly, De Jong and Den Hartog (2007) established that IS affects employees' innovation. Additionally, through IS, TL influences employees' idea generation and implementation by fostering them to think out of the box (Wang et al., 2011). Moreover, Suhana et al. (2019) declared that a higher IS will increase exploratory thinking and IBs. Likewise, employees are encouraged to engage in IBs through transformational leaders' IS capabilities, functional expertise, and visionary initiatives (Afsar et al., 2014). So, the following hypothesis is provided;

H1c. IS has a significant positive direct impact on EIB.

Finally, regarding IC, theoretically, when employees perceive their leaders' care and concern and feel empowered to challenge existing assumptions and develop creative ideas, they feel obligated to their leaders and exert more effort to produce desired outcomes for their organisation and conduct IBs (Lim and Moon, 2022). Also, according to Rafique et al. (2022), transformational leaders provide personalised attention to their employees and meet their needs and requirements which encourage employees to engage in creative or innovative activities. Further, TL's IC fosters employees to reciprocate with greater creativity and innovativeness

(Afsar et al., 2014). Besides, according to Masood and Afsar (2017), TL creates a supportive environment via IC, and through creating this supportive environment, TL stimulates employees to engage in IBs (Bednall et al., 2018). Moreover, since TL emphasises diversity in employees' talents by highlighting their individual qualities, it is reasonable to suggest that IC prompts EIB (Reuvers et al., 2008). Accordingly, the following hypothesis is proposed;

H1d. IC has a significant positive direct impact on EIB.

4.3. The Relationship Between ISE and EIB

In this section, theoretical and empirical evidence are provided to support the relationship between ISE and EIB. Firstly, concerning theory, as a support to self-efficacy theory, SCT acknowledged that individuals are motivated by judgments of their capabilities to perform specific tasks (Bandura, 1997). Such judgments of individuals' capabilities and confidence are influenced by their self-efficacy (Chen and Zhang, 2019). Therefore, employees with high CSE are inclined to exhibit more IBs as they have confidence in their abilities to create and realise novel ideas (Jiang and Gu, 2017). Based on this assumption, employees with high ISE are more likely to demonstrate IBs because of their belief in their abilities to provide innovative outcomes. Further, employees with high CSE feel better equipped to overcome the challenges they face when creating and realising new ideas in the workplace (Richter et al., 2012), and perceive challenges as opportunities and persist when faced with setbacks (Newman et al., 2018a), and more likely, these behaviours can also be perceived by employees with high ISE. More particularly, in theory, people who believe that specific situations or tasks exceed their abilities tend to avoid them, but if they have high self-efficacy, they believe that they can succeed, and so, become more inclined to take on a task (Bandura, 1986). During facing difficulties, people with strong efficacy beliefs are inclined to increase their level of effort to master the challenge, whereas people who doubt their abilities tend to decrease their efforts or give up early and fail at the task (Dörner, 2012). Therefore, it is assumed that people with high ISE will increase their efforts and demonstrate more IBs, while people with low ISE will doubt their innovative abilities and reduce their IBs.

Secondly, few empirical studies found support for the association between ISE and EIB (Gu and Peng, 2010; Yang et al., 2011; Dörner, 2012; Li et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2016; Ryan and Deci, 2017; Putri and Etikariena, 2022). Specifically, many reasons are provided to support the proposition that ISE impacts EIB. For instance, Putri and Etikariena (2022) acknowledged that ISE has a major role in clarifying EIB in which employees with higher ISE levels will increase their confidence to generate innovative ideas and become more innovative in performing different tasks. Further, Ryan and Deci (2017, p. 31) stated that in the multistage process of innovation, ISE is regarded as "the central mechanism underlying divergent thinking and innovative behaviour". Additionally, Gu and Peng (2010) and Yang et al. (2011) confirmed the positive impact of ISE on IB (cited in Ma et al., 2016). Moreover, if organisations create an innovative organisational climate and establish relevant regulations that foster innovation, this will promote employees' ISE and then enhance innovative performance (Li et al., 2015). Accordingly, organisations should pay attention to the development of employees' ISE to improve EIB in practical working tasks (Ma et al., 2016).

More particularly, ISE is expected to impact employees' initial decision to engage in IBs as they will feel more confident in their innovative abilities to complete their tasks and gain courage in facing challenges at work, stimulating their IBs (Putri and Etikariena, 2022). Additionally, Dörner (2012) stressed that ISE should impact EIB for two main reasons. Firstly, EIB is bound to especially challenging and complex tasks including a broad variety of cognitive and social activities such as creating, developing, modifying, and realising creative ideas (Kanter, 1988). Also, ISE is supposed to impact people's degree of persistence and effort when they encounter difficulties in the course of action (Bandura, 1977; Dörner, 2012). Accordingly, Dörner (2012) stated that high ISE is likely to provide the motivation needed to proceed which will increase employees' confidence to conduct a range of tasks related to innovation, and therefore, they are more likely to conduct IBs. Secondly, Dörner (2012) realised that employees with high ISE believe that their efforts generate solutions to the problems they face in an innovative manner, and so, those employees are able to raise their efforts to handle the challenges they encounter. On the contrary, employees with low ISE believe that IB exceeds their coping skills, and accordingly, they avoid engaging in IBs because they doubt that they will succeed in innovative undertakings (Dörner, 2012). Moreover, employees with low ISE view difficulties negatively; they are likely to view the problems they face as beyond their control and not manageable, and so, they conclude that their efforts will not solve the problems and they reduce their efforts (Dörner, 2012).

Yet, despite the positive empirical support concerning the relationship between ISE and EIB, some negative results can exist. For example, Whyte et al. (1997) stated that self-efficacy might act as a source of inappropriate persistence, meaning that individuals who are successful in the past in their domains in which they display high self-efficacy might develop overconfidence, indicating that high ISE can also develop overconfidence. Likewise, Vancouver et al. (2001) concluded that high self-efficacy creates relaxation and reduces future performance, denoting that employees with high ISE can also suffer from these negative consequences. Also, according to Salanova et al. (2012), high self-efficacy can predict riskier behaviours and might lead to negative impacts depending on the type of activity being performed. Relating to this, Bandura (1997) noted that efficacy beliefs have a different influence on activities that involve risks than those activities that include IBs. Particularly, in the activities that involve risks, the impacts of high self-efficacy might have negative consequences such as lower safety performance, while in the activities that include IBs, high self-efficacy might have positive consequences such as more innovative performance (Salanova et al., 2012). Based on this notion, in activities including IBs, the researcher assumes that high ISE will have positive outcomes such as expressing IBs. Accordingly, despite the negative results that can arise regarding the relationship between ISE and EIB, research still supports the positive association between self-efficacy beliefs and employees' performance and behaviour (Bandura and Locke, 2003). Specifically, Bandura and Locke (2003) approved that perceived self-efficacy enhances motivation and work performance, and so, contradicting the previous studies' negative findings, and also suggesting that ISE can enhance employees' motivation and work performance, leading to more IBs. Thus, the researcher proposes the following hypothesis;

H2. ISE has a significant positive direct impact on EIB.

4.4. The Relationship Between TL and ISE

In this section, the researcher provides theoretical and empirical evidence supporting the association between TL and ISE. Firstly, regarding self-efficacy theory, people are proactive and self-regulating, and self-efficacy is the underlying mechanism that persuades individuals to be proactive and confident in their actions (Chaubey et al., 2019). Also, people's self-efficacy evolves through imitating role models (Bandura, 1986). Particularly, transformational leaders serve as role models for their employees (Bayraktar and Jiménez, 2020; Korku and Kaya, 2022), and Murphy and Anderson (2020) stated that observing a role model shifts the mental schemas that direct the observers' beliefs and behaviours, and so, observing leaders with positive self-concepts enables followers to strengthen their confidence toward goals. Based on this idea, it is also assumed that transformational leaders with positive self-concepts can enable employees to strengthen their ISE toward realising innovative goals. Moreover, Salanova et al. (2022) found that TL is a predictor of individual self-efficacy over time. Specifically, the relationship between transformational leaders and employees is based on transparent communication, trust, and empathy, which can potentially develop employees' self-efficacy beliefs (Wallumbwa et al., 2011), and also probably improve employees' ISE.

Furthermore, TL supports the view that self-regulation is a main motivator of TL which raises employees' independent thinking abilities through promoting their CSE (Gong et al., 2009; Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, 2009). Drawing on this notion, TL's self-regulation can also raise employees' independent thinking capabilities through enhancing their ISE.

Secondly, empirical support showed that TL has positive impacts on employees' self-efficacy (Dvir et al., 2002; Nielsen and Munir, 2009; Gkolia et al., 2018; Choi, 2019; Pachler et al., 2019; Djourova et al., 2020; Bayraktar and Jiménez, 2020; Lei et al., 2020; Murphy and Anderson, 2020; Salanova et al., 2022; Shamshad and Naqi Khan, 2022; Tian and Guo, 2022), and CSE (Gong et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2014; Slåtten, 2014; Afsar and Masood, 2018; Azim et al., 2019; Chaubey et al., 2019; Tran et al., 2021; Maria et al., 2022). Only two studies (according to the researcher's knowledge) examined the association between TL and ISE (Dörner, 2012; Jing et al., 2021), highlighting a major gap which the researcher addresses by examining the affiliation between TL and ISE in this study. Regarding ISE, Mokhber et al. (2016) confirmed that leadership can establish a direct association with ISE. Also, managers could affect employees' ISE especially through TL's behaviours (Dörner, 2012). Particularly, Dvir et al. (2002) declared that transformational leaders' behaviours (II.C, IM, IS, IC) have a developmental impact on their followers and increasing followers' self-efficacy is an essential element of developing them. Moreover, transformational leaders express faith in their followers' abilities to complete the tasks related to IB, and this assists employees to raise their ISE beliefs and to maintain them when handling difficulties (Dörner, 2012). Further, transformational leaders can give their followers positive feedback on innovative acts, which can help in raising their followers' ISE (Dörner, 2012).

However, despite these positive findings, Mohamed (2016) found an insignificant relationship between TL and employees' CSE, which may also affect ISE. A probable explanation is that five-star hotels might follow specific procedures when interacting with guests, and so, employees might be restricted in how they interact with guests, leading them to feel stressed and eventually reduce their CSE (Mohamed, 2016), and possibly their ISE as well. Generally, the research on the association between TL and self-efficacy is inconclusive (Gong et al., 2009; Nielsen and Munir, 2009). One main possible reason for these inconclusive findings might be the distinction between general versus more specific features of self-efficacy (Pachler et al., 2019). Similarly, Djourova et al. (2020) found that TL's IS has an insignificant impact on followers' self-efficacy and a potential reason is that the focus is also on general self-efficacy and not on task-specific self-efficacy. Particularly, the central element of IS emphasises enabling followers to think about problems in novel ways (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004). Although this is likely to increase the probability of followers to succeed in solving problems, it is also oriented toward specific tasks and issues (Avolio et al., 1999). Accordingly, IS can be more related to task-specific self-efficacy than to general self-efficacy (Djourova et al., 2020), meaning that IS can be associated more with ISE than general self-efficacy. Furthermore, TL's IC has a negative impact on self-efficacy and followers' dependency is a likely cause for this negative relationship because if leaders are absent and followers need them constantly for their validation, this will lead to helplessness, reducing followers' self-efficacy (Djourova et al., 2020), and also potentially reducing their ISE. However, despite these negative findings, many studies (Dvir et al., 2002; Gong et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2014) support the effective role of TL in promoting followers' self-efficacy. More particularly, studies measuring specific features of self-efficacy such as CSE and ISE have shown a positive association between TL and self-efficacy (Dörner, 2012; Hannah et al., 2016). Therefore, the researcher suggests the following hypothesis;

H3: TL has a significant positive direct impact on ISE.

More specifically, the researcher focuses on the impact of TL on ISE to determine specifically how TL's dimensions will impact ISE. However, although the research on the relationship between TL and ISE is scarce, several studies (Slåtten, 2014; Choi, 2019; Djourova et al., 2020; Salanova et al., 2022; Murphy and Anderson, 2020) demonstrate how each dimension of TL will influence general self-efficacy and CSE which can be used as a basis in hypothesising the association between TL and ISE. Firstly, regarding II.C, one of its key elements is that followers identify with the leader, and modelling is a factor in developing self-efficacy (Djourova et al., 2020). Accordingly, since transformational leaders themselves usually have high self-efficacy (Bass, 1990), and by emulating these leaders, followers are able to increase their own self-efficacy (Djourova et al., 2020), suggesting that followers can also increase their ISE by emulating transformational leaders. Similarly, Shamshad and Naqi Khan (2022) acknowledged that transformational leaders can improve their followers' self-efficacy through role modelling suitable actions as followers create an affiliation with their leaders which helps them to improve their self-efficacy, and possibly their ISE as well. Further, Shea and Howell (1999) declared that by communicating high performance expectations and expressing confidence in employees' abilities to contribute to the mission, TL increases employees' perceived self-efficacy (Shamir et al., 1993), and possibly their ISE as well. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed;

H3a: II.C has a significant positive direct impact on ISE.

Secondly, IM is characterised by a positive and clear communication with followers through which a leader clarifies followers' roles, allowing them to better comprehend what is expected from them (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1999). A clear comprehension of one's role in the workplace can contribute to a greater sense of control, which is a vital element of self-efficacy (Bandura and Wood, 1989). Also, Chen and Bliese (2002) found that the more employees understand their roles, the more efficacious they are, indicating that more understanding of work roles can increase employees' ISE even more. Further, the value of a leader's vision and its application represent key elements of TL, which inspirationally motivate employees to improve their self-efficacy and enhance their performance (Shamshad and Naqi Khan, 2022), and possibly improve their ISE as well. Additionally, through IM, Bass and Avolio (1990) stated that employees might become more confident in their ability to develop novel ideas, and possibly innovative ideas as well (cited in Djourova et al., 2020). Accordingly, the following hypothesis is suggested;

H3b: IM has a significant positive direct impact on ISE.

Thirdly, through IS, transformational leaders assist their followers in finding new ways to overcome the challenges they face, and so, stimulating followers to find better ways of doing things (Sivanathan et al., 2004), which eventually leads to higher self-efficacy levels (Salanova et al., 2022), and possibly higher ISE levels as well. Moreover, via IS, transformational leaders make positive changes in employees' behaviours, and therefore, it is reasonable to assume that TL promotes employees' CSE (Slåtten, 2014), and probably their ISE as well. Further, as cited in Maria et al. (2022), based on IS, it is possible for transformational leaders to stimulate their employees' creative and independent thinking skills through developing their CSE (Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, 2009), and also probably through improving their ISE. Similarly, Dvir et al. (2002) showed that TL enhances employees' critical thinking, and so, employees perceive themselves as being able to generate creative outcomes (Choi, 2019), and potentially innovative outcomes as well. Accordingly, the following hypothesis is insinuated;

H3c: IS has a significant positive direct impact on ISE.

Finally, through IC, transformational leaders acknowledge followers' abilities, listen to their concerns, meet their needs, and emphasise their significance in accomplishing desired outcomes (Bass and Avolio, 1990), and this consideration increases followers' self-efficacy (Djourova et al., 2020), and also may increase their ISE. Moreover, based on IC, Jing et al.

(2021) highlighted that transformational leaders send their respect and recognition signals to their employees through incentive feedback, which may enable employees to increase their ISE when interacting with their leaders. Further, through transformational leaders' mentorship, employees will have successful mastery experiences, which will increase their self-efficacy (Choi, 2019), and potentially promote their ISE as well. Additionally, transformational leaders show consideration, support, and encouragement for employees' efforts to take the initiative in performing tasks, and with such support and encouragement, this assists in sustaining employees' CSE (Choi, 2019), and probably sustaining their ISE as well. Consequently, the following hypothesis is assumed;

H3d: IC has a significant positive direct impact on ISE.

4.5. The Mediating Role of ISE in The Relationship Between TL and EIB

Previous studies found that TL is effective in promoting EIB, but it is suggested that the association between TL and creative outcomes is dependent on many factors and so, is likely to be more complex than previously thought (Reuvers et al., 2008; Afsar et al., 2014). Also, Rosing et al. (2011) and Tse et al. (2018) questioned the relationship between TL and EIB regarding through what explanatory mechanisms (through what mediators) TL might promote EIB. So, in this section, the researcher explains how ISE can mediate the relationship between TL and EIB.

As previously mentioned, several studies proved that TL has an important positive influence on EIB (Bednall et al., 2018; Umrani and Afsar, 2019; Afsar and Umrani, 2020b; Su et al., 2020; Grošelj et al., 2021; Rafique et al., 2022; Lim and Moon, 2022; Korku and Kaya, 2022). Also, few studies supported the association between ISE and EIB (Dörner, 2012; Ma et al., 2016; Putri and Etikariena, 2022). Likewise, many studies confirmed that TL has a positive impact on employees' self-efficacy (Gkolia et al., 2018; Choi, 2019; Djourova et al., 2020; Bayraktar and Jiménez; 2020; Lei et al., 2020; Shamshad and Naqi Khan, 2022; Tian and Guo, 2022), CSE (Afsar and Masood, 2018; Azim et al., 2019; Chaubey et al., 2019; Tran et al., 2021; Maria et al., 2022), and ISE (Dörner, 2012; Jing et al., 2021). Furthermore, many studies found that CSE mediates the relationship between TL and various outcomes such as employee creativity (Gong et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2014; Chaubey et al., 2019; Tran et al., 2021; Maria et al., 2022), innovative activities (Slåtten, 2014), and EIB (Afsar and Masood, 2018). Additionally, Lei et al. (2020) approved that self-efficacy mediates the association between TL and innovation capabilities.

Thus, combining the debates of H1, H2 and H3, and based on the previous discussion, the researcher suggests that ISE serves as an ideal mediator in the relationship between TL and EIB. This means that ISE acts as the underlying mechanism through which TL influences EIB. Further, this hypothesis is based on the idea that TL enhances perceptions of ISE, and in turn, ISE positively impacts EIB. Specifically, Afsar and Masood (2018) stressed that by applying TL's principles, this will help in building the environment which nourishes and stimulates CSE, and by nourishing and stimulating CSE, this will provide the facilitating conditions for expressing EIB because employees with high CSE are likely to perform more IBs due to their confidence in their creative abilities (Jiang and Gu, 2017). This indicates that employees' ISE can also be stimulated by TL, which will lead to more IBs because of employees' confidence in their innovative capabilities. Moreover, supervisors who adopt a TL style can positively impact employees' CSE, which in turn positively affects employees' creativity (Wang et al., 2014; Tran et al., 2021; Maria et al., 2022). This insinuates that TL can also affect employees' IBs through improving their ISE. Accordingly, the following hypothesis is proposed;

H4: ISE positively mediates the relationship between TL and EIB.

Specifically, regarding II.C, people's self-efficacy evolves through emulating role models (Bandura, 1986; Shamshad and Naqi Khan, 2022), and Afsar and Masood (2018) stated that through serving as creative role models, transformational leaders convince their employees that they can do creative activities, thereby increasing their CSE, which indirectly will support them to express more IBs. From this notion, employees' ISE can be increased as well by transformational leaders, leading indirectly to performing IBs. So, the following hypothesis is suggested;

H4a: ISE positively mediates the relationship between II.C and EIB.

Moreover, concerning IM, Avolio et al. (1999) stressed that conveying a strong organisational vision and providing a positive and clear communication with employees increase their sense of control greatly, which is a vital element of self-efficacy (Bandura and Wood, 1989), and make them feel more efficacious (Chen and Bliese, 2002; Shamshad and Naqi Khan, 2022), and may give them the confidence necessary to perform creative activities. This indicates that through IM, transformational leaders can convey a vigorous organisational vision and provide a clear and positive communication which may stimulate employees' ISE, fostering them indirectly to express IBs. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed;

H4b: ISE positively mediates the relationship between IM and EIB.

Further, regarding IS, transformational leaders use their self-regulation feature to increase employees' independent thinking abilities and convince them that they can provide creative outcomes through developing their CSE (Gong et al., 2009; Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, 2009; Maria et al., 2022). So, through IS, it is also possible that transformational leaders may convince their employees that they can be more innovative, which might increase their ISE, leading to expressing IBs indirectly. Hence, the following hypothesis is offered;

H4c: ISE positively mediates the relationship between IS and EIB.

Finally, concerning IC, Afsar and Masood (2018) and Jing et al. (2021) declared that by offering individual encouragement and support and incentive feedback to employees, transformational leaders ease employees' fear and anxiety arising from the uncertainty of creative activities, which will increase their CSE, resulting in more confidence to perform IBs. This shows that transformational leaders' support and encouragement and incentive feedback can probably increase employees' ISE, which in turn may give them the confidence necessary to conduct IBs. Consequently, the following hypothesis is assumed;

H4d: ISE positively mediates the relationship between IC and EIB.

4.6. The Moderating Role of POS in The Relationship Between TL and EIB

The relationship between TL and EIB is complex and significant boundary conditions (moderators) are likely to shape this relationship and can determine whether this relationship is positive or negative (Umrani and Afsar, 2019), and it is believed that POS can be one of these boundary conditions (moderators) (Choi et al., 2016). Particularly, a positive relationship exists between POS and EIB (Xerri, 2013; Afsar and Badir, 2015, 2017; Nazir et al., 2018, 2019; Mathafena and Grobler, 2021; Park and Kim, 2022; Muñoz et al., 2023). Particularly, Afsar and Badir (2015) declared that the association between POS and EIB can be established in the social exchange context. Moreover, it is suggested that innovation requires organisational support through creating good environments that allow employees to interact and exchange resources with their leaders, and when this organisational support is perceived by employees, they tend to reciprocate by increasing their IBs (Muñoz et al., 2023). Further, exchanging IB from employees occurs when they perceive high organisational support (Afsar and Badir, 2015). Moreover, Eisenberger et al. (2001) stated that perceptions of organisational support increase as employees are involved in several tangible and intangible outcomes through the daily exchange process with the organisation. When this exchange results in positive outcomes, employees' extra-role behaviours are triggered (Afsar and Badir, 2017), such as IB. Specifically, Cole et al. (2002) stated that employees and supervisors develop good workplace relationships and these relationships are reciprocal in nature because they are beneficial for both employees and the organisation. Also, EIB can be stimulated by encouraging a work context in which employees feel supported to create, promote, and implement innovative ideas (Bos-nehles and Veenendaal, 2019). Based on that, under perfect working conditions, having effective workplace relationships make employees perceive themselves as being supported by their organisation, and so, they are more stimulated to render back their organisation through their IBs (Nazir et al., 2019; Akhtar et al., 2019). Also, a high POS level can stimulate EIB better, while a low POS level might discourage employees' contributions to the organisation, reducing their motivation to be innovative (Choi et al., 2016).

Interestingly, the researcher suggests that POS can be a good moderator in the relationship between TL and EIB. In fact, previous studies have proved that POS moderates the relationship between leadership and innovation (Choi et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2021b; Musenze and Mayende, 2022). For instance, Wang et al. (2021b) confirmed that POS moderates the relationship between exploitive leadership and green IB, while Musenze and Mayende, (2022) acknowledged that POS moderates the relationship between ethical leadership and EIB. More particularly, Choi et al. (2016) realised that POS positively moderates the association between TL and EIB. Specifically, POS strengthens trust between transformational leaders and employees and ensures that employees are committed to the work of the organisation (Choi et al., 2016). Accordingly, when employees in an organisation trust their leaders, they usually respond through action (Whitener, 2001), and since employees are highly committed, they will be innovative in solving existing problems (Choi et al., 2016; Le and Lei, 2019). Thus, the organisation having a high POS level will strengthen the positive impact of TL on EIB due to developing intrinsic motivation among employees (Choi et al., 2016). In other words, POS assists transformational leaders in uniting and motivating their employees to achieve the organisational vision through IB, and so, POS positively moderates the association between TL and EIB (Choi et al., 2016). Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed;

H5. POS positively moderates the relationship between TL and EIB.

However, Choi et al. (2016) explored the role of TL in general and overlooked the impact of its dimensions. In this study, the researcher investigates how POS may moderate the association between TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) and EIB. Firstly, regarding II.C, the researcher suggests that POS may strengthen the impact of TL's II.C on EIB. Specifically, supportive leaders act as good role models and appreciate members' contributions (Yoon et al., 2019; Korku and Kaya, 2022). Also, Amabile et al. (1996) declared that supportive leaders are good communicators and establish a clear direction without being suppressed (cited in Yoon et al., 2019). Further, supportive organisations foster organisational members to create an environment that increases employees' intrinsic motivation and stimulates them to be committed to work projects (Kouzes and Posner, 2006; Choi et al., 2016), which will foster exhibiting more IBs. Accordingly, perceiving organisational support through TL's II.C may influence EIB through the following hypothesis;

H5a. POS positively moderates the relationship between II.C and EIB.

Secondly, concerning IM, the researcher suggests that POS might strengthen the impact of TL's IM on EIB. Particularly, POS encourages transformational leaders to increase their IM among employees and communicate the organisational vision to them (Bednall et al., 2018). Accordingly, transformational leaders inspire employees to engage in IBs through forming a strong sense of shared vision with the organisation (Afsar and Umrani, 2020b; Rafique et al., 2022). Also, when employees perceive organisational support from their transformational leaders through IM, this assists employees to demonstrate behaviours that focus on discovering novel ways of doing things (Afsar et al., 2014), and may stimulate them to express IBs. Thus, POS might reinforce the impact of TL's IM on EIB through the following hypothesis;

H5b. POS positively moderates the relationship between IM and EIB.

Thirdly, relating to IS, the researcher suggests that POS may strengthen the impact of TL's IS on EIB. Specifically, since IS emphasises employees' creativity and innovativeness (Khan et al., 2020a) and assists employees to be creative in solving problems (Lim and Moon, 2022), it is suggested that POS can influence TL's IS even more, encouraging employees to demonstrate more IBs as Suhana et al. (2019) confirmed that a higher IS will increase IBs. Particularly, if employees perceive that their transformational leaders support them and stimulate their intellectual thinking through questioning and challenging their thinking continuously, they will be motivated to conduct IBs (Afsar et al., 2019). Accordingly, POS may strengthen the impact of TL's IS on EIB through the following hypothesis;

H5c. POS positively moderates the relationship between IS and EIB.

Finally, regarding IC, the researcher suggests that perceiving organisational support through TL's personalised attention and support for employees' needs will stimulate them to engage in creative activities (Afsar et al., 2019; Rafique et al., 2022). Similarly, it is suggested that POS can influence TL's IC through a better understanding of employees' needs and providing encouragement for creativity (Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, 2009), which may lead to demonstrating more IBs. Also, if employees perceive that their transformational leaders support them through IC, they will be encouraged to reciprocate with greater innovativeness (Afsar et al., 2014; Lim and Moon, 2022), and potentially demonstrate more IBs. Consequently, POS could underpin the impact of TL's IC on EIB through the following hypothesis;

H5d. POS positively moderates the relationship between IC and EIB.

Therefore, based on the previous hypotheses, the researcher concludes the following conceptual framework and hypotheses in Figure 4.1.

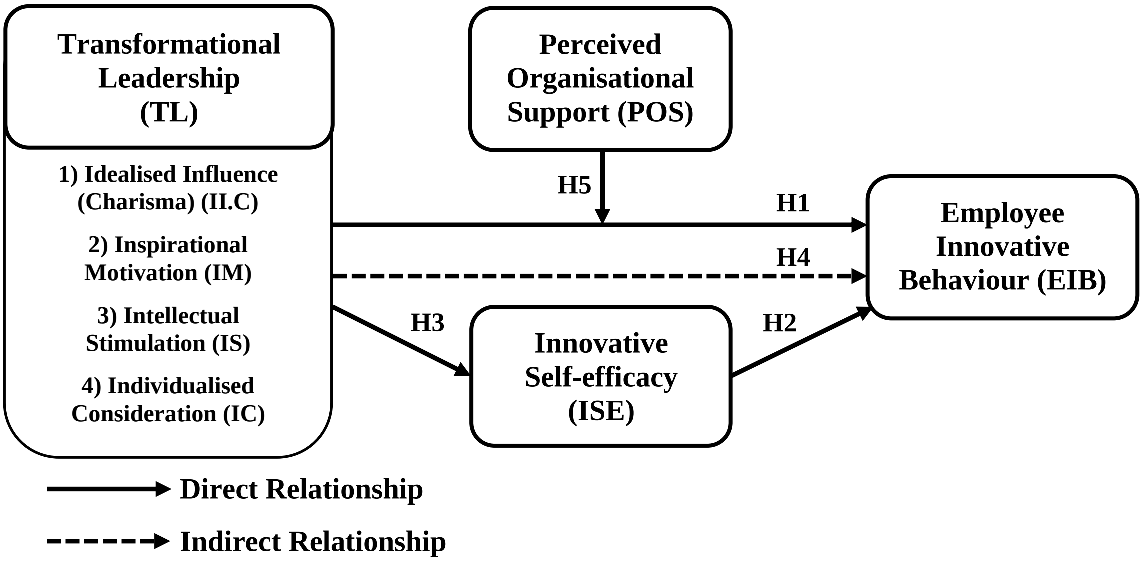


Figure 4.1. Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

In summary, the researcher lists all the suggested hypotheses as follows;

H1. TL has a significant positive direct impact on EIB.

H1a. II.C has a significant positive direct impact on EIB.

H1b. IM has a significant positive direct impact on EIB.

H1c. IS has a significant positive direct impact on EIB.

H1d. IC has a significant positive direct impact on EIB.

H2. ISE has a significant positive direct impact on EIB.

H3: TL has a significant positive direct impact on ISE.

H3a: II.C has a significant positive direct impact on ISE.

H3b: IM has a significant positive direct impact on ISE.

H3c: IS has a significant positive direct impact on ISE.

H3d: IC has a significant positive direct impact on ISE.

H4: ISE positively mediates the relationship between TL and EIB.

H4a: ISE positively mediates the relationship between II.C and EIB.

H4b: ISE positively mediates the relationship between IM and EIB.

H4c: ISE positively mediates the relationship between IS and EIB.

H4d: ISE positively mediates the relationship between IC and EIB.

H5. POS positively moderates the relationship between TL and EIB.

H5a. POS positively moderates the relationship between II.C and EIB.

H5b. POS positively moderates the relationship between IM and EIB.

H5c. POS positively moderates the relationship between IS and EIB.

H5d. POS positively moderates the relationship between IC and EIB.

In the next chapter, the researcher explores the research methodology.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1. Introduction

This chapter presented the theoretical aspects of the relationship between TL and EIB and the mediating role of ISE and the moderating role of POS. Particularly, this chapter reported the research methodology which refers to how research is performed scientifically and represents a systematic way for fulfilling the research objectives (Saunders et al., 2019; Singh, 2022). Further, research methods demonstrate the procedures and techniques employed for conducting research including those relating to data collection, statistical techniques, and evaluating the accuracy of the results (Saunders et al., 2019; Singh, 2022). Accordingly, research method is a part of the research methodology. In fact, Kothari (2004) realised that the research methodology includes the research methods, considers the logic behind the methods used in a research study, and determines why a specific method is employed rather than other methods so that research results can be evaluated either by the researcher himself/herself or by others.

Accordingly, this chapter was structured in the following sequence. The researcher started with exploring the research philosophy including its ontological and epistemological assumptions and types of research philosophies as well as highlighting whether this research was deductive, inductive, or abductive. Then, the research design of this thesis was clarified. Afterwards, the researcher examined the research approach whether quantitative, qualitative, or mixed. Subsequently, data collection methods were highlighted including questionnaires' design and layout, translation, pilot testing, validity, and reliability in addition to interviews' design and layout, validity, and reliability. After that, the researcher explained the sampling technique procedures including the population, sampling frame, sampling size, and sampling technique regarding both quantitative and qualitative data collection. Next, the researcher emphasised quantitative data analysis methods including descriptive statistics, common method bias (CMB), and structural equation modelling (SEM), followed by qualitative data analysis methods including thematic analysis. Then, the researcher considered the research ethics, and finally mentioned the limitations in the research methodology and provided suggestions for future research.

5.2. Research Philosophy

The term research philosophy refers to a system of beliefs and assumptions about developing knowledge, emphasises using argument and reason in seeking truth, and is regarded as a framework that guides researchers concerning how scientific research should be conducted (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). Significantly, understanding philosophical issues can help to clarify the overall research strategy employed including the type of data collection and its source and how it will assist in answering the research questions, and also it can help to support evaluating various methodologies and methods (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). Mainly, several research philosophies exist such as positivism, critical realism, interpretivism, pragmatism (Saunders et al., 2019), post-positivism, social constructivism, advocacy/participatory (Creswell and Creswell, 2017), and others. Grix (2004) stated that the selection amongst these philosophies depends on the nature of the study questions and the chosen methods for studying the study questions. Although there are several research philosophies, for realising the research objectives, the researcher adopted only post-positivism and compared it to positivism so as to justify why it was more suitable for this study. However, before exploring these philosophies, Saunders et al. (2019) and Bell et al. (2022) declared that to distinguish between these philosophies, two main philosophical assumptions must be taken into consideration, namely ontology and epistemology as they highlight the researcher's choice of methods and application of outcomes to various essential issues in social sciences.

Firstly, ontology refers to assumptions about the nature of reality (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022), and signifies how researchers view the world, how they form their reality, and what they can know about it (Gray, 2014). Additionally, ontology answers the question "to what extent can an external reality exist" (Howell, 2013) or "what the nature of reality is" (Saunders et al., 2019). Secondly, epistemology represents assumptions about knowledge and what constitutes acceptable, valid, and legitimate knowledge (Burrell and Morgan, 2017; Bell et al., 2022), clarifies what contributions to knowledge are made (Saunders et al., 2019), and is concerned with organising and clarifying knowledge relating to theories (Schmitt, 1994). Moreover, two main aspects distinguish between ontology and epistemology, namely objectivism and subjectivism (Saunders et al., 2019). Objectivism argues that the social reality exists but it is external to social actors or people and is outside of human thoughts, beliefs and conceptions (Saunders et al., 2019). Also, objectivism depends on facts and it is not biased, and therefore, there is a limited interaction between the researcher and the researched to remain value-free concerning the research studied and its outcome (Remenyi et al., 1998). On the other hand, subjectivism emphasises that social reality and phenomena are made from the perceptions and consequent actions of social actors or people, and so, subjectivism depends on opinions and it is biased as it relies on sentiments and viewpoints, which require a close relationship between the researcher and the researched (Saunders et al., 2019).

Accordingly, regarding ontology, from an objectivist perspective, researchers believe that there is only one reality, which is external from the social actors or people (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022), and so individuals are independent from the world and reality (Eriksson and Kovalainen, 2008), while from a subjective perspective, subjectivism embraces social constructionism, meaning that reality is constructed through social interaction in which social actors or people create partially shared meanings and realities (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). On the other hand, concerning epistemology, from an objectivist view, Saunders et al. (2019) declared that objectivists pursue discovering the truth about the social world through observable and measurable facts, from which law-like generalisations can be drawn about the universal social reality, whereas from a subjectivist view, Saunders et al. (2019) stated that the subjectivist researcher is interested in different opinions, narratives, contexts, and specifics that can help to account for different social realities of various social actors. In summary, the main points for ontology and epistemology and their objective and subjective aspects were summarised in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1. Philosophical Assumptions and Their Objective and Subjective Aspects

Assumption type	**Questions**	**Continua with two sets of extremes**		
		Objectivism	⟷	**Subjectivism**
Ontology	What is the nature of reality?	External	⟷	Social constructed
Epistemology	What is considered acceptable knowledge?	Facts	⟷	Opinions
	What kinds of contribution to knowledge can be made?	Law-like generalisations	⟷	Individuals, contexts, and specifics

(Source; Saunders et al. 2019).

Consequently, based on the philosophical assumptions of ontology and epistemology and their objective and subjective aspects, the researcher compared between positivism and post-positivism, and justified why post-positivism was more suitable for this study ontologically and epistemologically. Positivism assumes that a single reality exists which can be understood, identified, and measured (Park et al., 2020), and also presumes that reality is objective in which subjective bias can be removed (Johnson and Duberley, 2000; Bell et al., 2022). Additionally, according to Easterby-Smith et al. (2008), positivism stresses that researchers and the subject are independent in which cause and effect relationships can be examined, and findings can be measured and generalised. Moreover, positivist researchers use existing theory to develop hypotheses, look for causal relationships in their data to create law-like generalisations, and employ highly structured quantitative methodology to facilitate replication such as surveys and experiments (Hatch and Cunliffe, 2006; Easterby-Smith et al., 2008; Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). Interestingly, ontologically, positivism denotes that researchers are governed by a one single objective reality (Hatch, 2010; Saunders et al., 2019), and Plack (2005) confirmed that this reality can be studied independently and then analysed to establish a deeper understanding of a phenomenon. On the other hand, epistemologically, positivism believes that a scientific inquiry begins through specific signals provided by the world and acknowledges that researchers should conduct their investigations separate from the subject in order not to affect the results (Ha, 2011), use empiricist scientific methods for producing pure data and measurable and observable facts uninfluenced by human interpretation or bias, and make law-like generalisations (Saunders et al., 2019). However, the reality of human behaviours is characterised by diversity and complexity where positivism alone is inadequate to reflect people's real lives, because focusing on the cause and effect relationships can result in findings that explain very narrow situations instead of the broader complex nature of social phenomena (Johnson and Duberley, 2000). Besides, positivism in social sciences is a relatively dated philosophy, which has been substituted by post-positivism (Howell, 2013), as positivism do not provide a whole solution to a study's questions.

Specifically, post-positivism symbolises the thinking after positivism, challenging the old view of the absolute knowledge truth, and so, realising that positivism is not relevant to the allegations of knowledge when investigating human behaviour and actions in management and business research (Phillips and Burbules, 2000). Mainly, post-positivism declares that realities do exist, but imperfectly because of human factors (Saunders et al., 2019). Accordingly, observations can be imperfect, in which reality is approximated or inferred rather than explained perfectly (Gray, 2014; Habib, 2020). Interestingly, ontologically, post-positivism believes in objective reality like positivism, but argues that human inquiry has its limitations which lead to discovering imperfect realities (Hatch, 2010; Habib, 2020). On the other hand, epistemologically, according to Guba and Lincoln (1994), post-positivism has the same epistemological view as positivism, but argues that truth in findings is not absolute and can be falsified or corrected in future research as post-positivism stresses that the total discarding of interaction between the researcher and the researched is not possible. In summary, the characteristics of positivism and post-positivism were presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2. Ontological and Epistemological Comparison Between Positivism and Post-positivism

Philosophy	Ontology (Nature of reality or being)	Epistemology (What constitutes acceptable knowledge)
Positivism	- Objective reality. - One true reality. - Real, external, and independent.	- Scientific empiricist method. - Observable and measurable facts. - Law-like generalisations. - Researcher is completely independent from the research.
Post-positivism	- Objective reality. - Imperfect reality. - Partially external or independent.	- Observable and measurable facts but could be falsified or corrected in the future. - Law-like generalisations. - Researcher is partially independent from the research.

(Source; Adapted from Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Hatch, 2010; Saunders et al., 2019).

Consequently, in this study, the post-positivism philosophy was more suitable for several reasons. Specifically, positivism is linked to a quantitative inquiry and a deductive approach and uses large samples. On the other hand, in a post-positivism research, research methods that are to be applied in a particular study should be selected based on the research questions being addressed (Habib, 2020). Particularly, post-positivism is more open to a combination of quantitative and qualitative inquiry, utilises an abductive approach, and also employs large samples (Hatch, 2010; Creswell and Creswell, 2017). In fact, Henderson (2011) confirmed that post-positivism legitimises the potential for employing mixed methods and offers a practical approach for collecting data using more than one method. Accordingly, post-positivism was more suitable than positivism in this study because the researcher utilised mixed methods approach by using structured questionnaires with triangulation via semi-structured interviews.

Additionally, this study aimed to investigate the cause and effect relationship between TL and EIB. This indicated that there was some objective reality showing that there is a relationship between TL and EIB. Ontologically, it seemed that positivism would be suitable. However, the researcher believed that this reality was imperfect and showed only a part of the full picture, giving more support to post-positivism. Particularly, recalling chapter four (conceptual framework), some studies proved the positive association between TL and EIB (Rafique et al., 2022; Lim and Moon, 2022), others suggested a negative relationship (Pradhan, 2015; Rizki et al., 2019), and others claimed that there was no relationship at all (Krause, 2004; Moss and Ritossa, 2007), suggesting that the reality concerning the association between TL and EIB was imperfect and required further investigation, supporting the ontological assumption of the post-positivism philosophy. From another point, positivism proposes a linear relationship between cause and effect (Giddings and Grant, 2007). However, drawn from chapter four, Bednall et al. (2018) suggested that the relationship between TL and EIB is non-linear and declared that the positive impacts of TL on EIB will be stronger at low and high levels of TL. This also shows that the reality concerning the relationship between TL and EIB was imperfect, and thus, supporting post-positivism as it showed that human beings' behaviours and actions were resulting from a complex collection of causes that interacted together for generating outcomes (Giddings and Grant, 2007). Consequently, the ontological assumption of post-positivism was grounded in this thesis as it showed a partial objective reality, indicating that objective reality existed but it was imperfect.

Moreover, epistemologically, the researcher developed hypotheses, identified relationships, emphasised causes and effects, and generalised findings among frontline employees in the Egyptian tourism industry. This way of demonstrating EIB seemed to be independent of the researcher and the facts could be observed and performed independently. Nevertheless, the researcher believed that it was impossible to complete this in a completely value-free way and the facts could be falsified or corrected in the future. Particularly, imperfect understanding of EIB could have resulted from human factors, and so, the researcher was partially independent of the research, supporting the epistemological assumption of the post-positivism philosophy. Specifically, to comprehend human behaviour in business research, people's interpretations and perceptions may affect the examined study (Johnson and Duberley, 2000). The researcher considered that the relationship between TL and EIB can be observed, theories can be applied, and results can be generalised. This might signify a positivism philosophy, but the researcher believed that human factors can influence the study. For instance, in the beginning of the study, to explore the association between TL and EIB in the Egyptian tourism industry, the researcher examined several studies and conducted a review about leadership and EIB in the tourism and hospitality industry and found that the relationship between TL and EIB was not extensively explored in the Egyptian tourism industry, emphasising the need to further investigate this relationship. Importantly, exploring these studies emphasised the partial independence between the researcher and the research, supporting the epistemological assumption of the post-positivism philosophy. Also, questionnaires were delivered to frontline employees who answered questions based on their subjective perception. This subjective perception came from using Likert Scale (explained further within the questionnaire design and layout in section 5.5.1) in which frontline employees answered questions according to their perception. Furthermore, the researcher interviewed frontline employees, interacted with them, understood their perceptions, and solicited their answers, meaning that the researcher was partially independent which also supported the epistemological assumption of the post-positivism philosophy. Consequently, based on the previous reasons, ontologically and epistemologically, post-positivism was more suitable for this study than positivism.

Subsequently, depending on the post-positivism philosophy, the researcher adopted the abductive approach in this thesis. Specifically, Saunders et al. (2019) declared that there are three main approaches that clarify the relationship between theory and research; deductive, inductive, and abductive. Firstly, the deductive approach refers to the process by which a rational conclusion is achieved by a reasonable generalisation of a realised fact (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). Secondly, the inductive approach represents a process of observing certain phenomena and based on this observation, conclusions are realised (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016). Thirdly, the abductive approach combines the deductive and inductive approaches within the same research (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). Further, these three approaches have various characteristics which were highlighted in Table 5.3. Also, the processes of the deductive and the inductive approaches were shown in Figure 5.1.

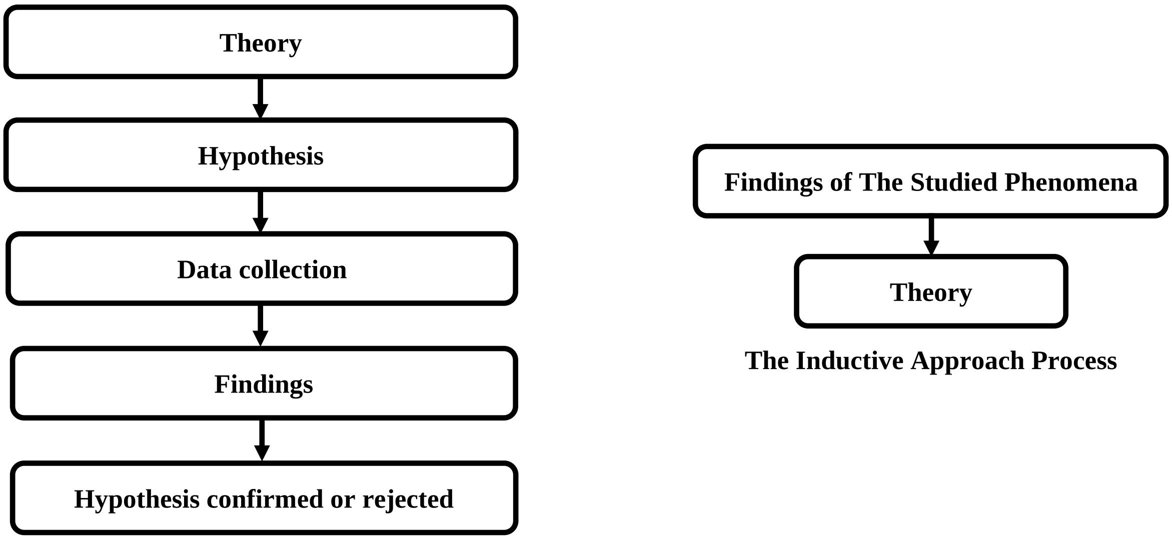
Table 5.3. Comparison Between Deductive, Inductive, and Abductive Approaches

Approach	Characteristics
Deductive	* Generalises from the general to the specific (Saunders et al., 2019).
	* Highlights what is happening (Saunders et al., 2019).
	* Is strongly associated with the quantitative research (Bell et al., 2022).
	* Is used for theory verification or falsification (Saunders et al., 2019), and the theories are tested by employing the empirical results (Vanderstoep and Johnston, 2008).
	* In this approach, data collection is used for evaluating hypotheses relating to an existing theory (Saunders et al., 2019).
Inductive	* Generalises from the specific to the general (Saunders et al., 2019).
	* Encompasses the ability to understand people's ways of thinking about the world (Saunders et al., 2019).
	* Is strongly associated with the qualitative research (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022).
	* Reverses the stages applied in the deductive research (Lancaster, 2005; Bell et al., 2022).
	* Does not need previous theories or hypotheses as it is used for theory generation and building, and so, it is more flexible than the deductive approach (Saunders et al., 2019).
	* Focuses on observations which lead to developing hypotheses and theories for explaining those particular observations (Lancaster, 2005).
	* In this approach, data collection is used for exploring a phenomenon, identifying themes and patterns, and creating a conceptual framework (Saunders et al., 2019).
Abductive	* Generalises from the interactions between the specific and the general (Saunders et al., 2019).
	* Begins with observing a surprising fact, and then it works out a reasonable theory of how this can happen (Saunders et al., 2019).
	* Is associated with both the quantitative and the qualitative research (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022).
	* Is used for theory generation or modification as it incorporates an existing theory where appropriate for building a new theory or modifying an existing theory (Saunders et al., 2019).

	* In this approach, data collection is used for investigating a phenomenon, identifying themes and patterns, locating these themes and patterns in a conceptual framework, and testing them through subsequent data collection (Saunders et al., 2019).
	* In practice, at least some element of abduction is used by most management researchers because pure deduction or pure induction are so difficult to realise (Saunders et al., 2019).

(Source; Lancaster, 2005; Vanderstoep and Johnston, 2008; Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022).

Figure 5.1. The Deductive Approach and The Inductive Approach Processes



The Deductive Approach Process

The Inductive Approach Process

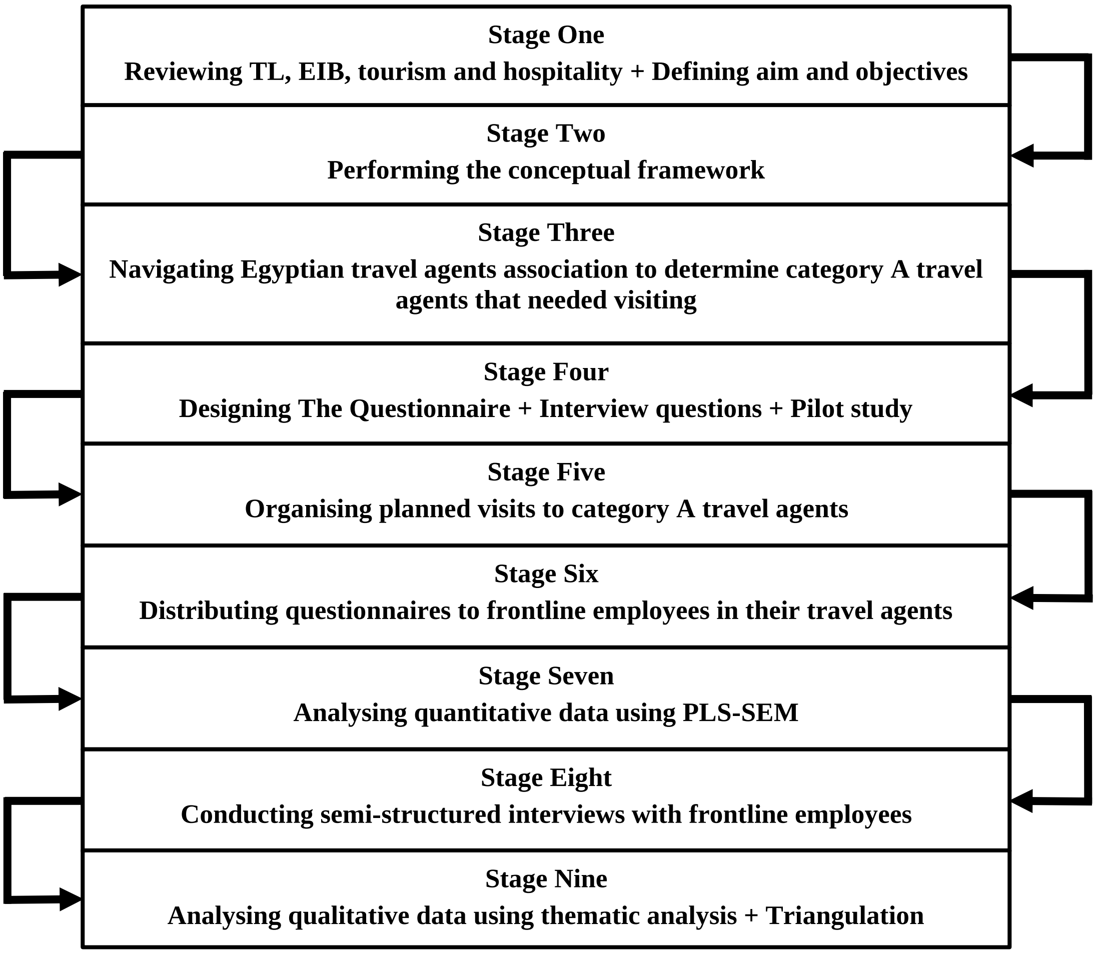
Source; Bryman (2016) and Bell et al. (2022)

Accordingly, the abductive approach was utilised in this thesis. Particularly, the researcher employed mixed methods approach by using structured questionnaires to test the proposed hypotheses quantitatively with triangulation through utilising semi-structured interviews to provide further qualitative insights justifying the quantitative findings resulted from analysing the questionnaires' data. Specifically, through using triangulation, researchers can "guard against the accusation that a study's findings are simply the artifact of a single method or a single data source" (Henderson, 1991, p. 11). Also, triangulation is relevant when post-positivism philosophy is used (Decrop, 1999), which was employed in this thesis (triangulation was explained further in section 5.4). In the next section, research design was examined.

5.3. Research Design

A research design is a plan or framework used for conducting the research and answering the research questions (Yin, 2003; Gray, 2014; Saunders et al., 2019; Kumar, 2019). Also, the research design highlights preparing conditions for collecting and analysing the data required for realising the research purpose (Kothari, 2004; Bryman, 2016). Accordingly, the research design of this thesis was divided into nine stages as shown in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2. The Research Design Nine Stages



The first stage included reviewing the literature on TL and EIB in the tourism and hospitality industry for formulating the aim, the objectives, and the research questions of this study. In the second stage, the researcher designed his study. Particularly, the researcher conducted the conceptual framework and proposed hypotheses that needed to be analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. To do that, in the third stage, the researcher navigated the Egyptian Travel Agents Association (ETAA) online as it has a complete list of travel agents that are accessible (ETAA, 2020). This was done in order to determine how many category A travel agents exist at Greater Cairo so that the researcher can deliver the questionnaires to frontline employees working in these travel agents using convenience sampling.

In the fourth stage, considering the relevant literature, the questionnaire was designed, including the MLQ's items for measuring TL, items for measuring EIB, ISE, and POS, and other personal questions on demographics which required answering by frontline employees in the end of the questionnaire. In the questionnaire, frontline employees were required to assess the transformational leadership behaviours of their leaders (travel agents' owners), their IBs, ISE, and POS provided by their travel agents. Further, the questionnaire included information about the research, asking for frontline employees' permission to participate in the research, assuring their confidentiality and anonymity, and their right to withdraw from the answering the questionnaire if they wanted to. The questionnaire also included a question asking frontline employees if they would be willing to participate in an interview after completing their questionnaire using purposive sampling in which the researcher created a list of questions related to the study constructs to be used for the semi-structured interviews to provide more depth and add more insights to the study's constructs. After that, a pilot study was performed for the questionnaire where some minor changes were required and then the final questionnaire was reproduced in copies (questionnaire design and pilot testing were discussed further in sections 5.5.1 and 5.5.3).

In the fifth stage, 644 category A travel agents were planned to be visited in order to get the required sample size of travel agents (320) in which all of these travel agents were centered in the whole Cairo Governorate. Further, since distributing and gathering questionnaires outside Greater Cairo will cost a lot of money, waste a lot of time, and other difficulties, the researcher mainly highlighted category (A) travel agents located in Cairo – Egypt (the sampling size and technique were explored further in section 5.6.1).

In the sixth stage, the researcher started collecting the data at different times and periods based on the availability of frontline employees. The questionnaires were delivered personally to frontline employees in their travel agents and 330 questionnaires were collected. Afterword, in the seventh stage, all the quantitative data were recorded through the statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) and analysed using partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM). Next, in the eighth stage, 25 semi-structured interviews were conducted with frontline employees who agreed to participate in the interviews after completing their questionnaires. In that way, the researcher had already an opinion from the questionnaires collected and he could ask further questions to gain more insights and enhance the data gathered. Finally, in the ninth stage, all the interviews' qualitative data were transcribed and analysed using thematic analysis (discussed further within qualitative data analysis methods in section 5.7.7). Then, the qualitative data were triangulated with the quantitative data to provide further interpretations of the findings and enhance their validity and credibility.

The data collection started in April 2021 when the pilot study was conducted. Then due to delays because of the devastating impact of COVID-19, the researcher distributed the main survey during the period from May till September 2021. After putting all the quantitative data in SPSS and analysing them using (PLS-SEM), the researcher conducted the semi-structured interviews during the period from December till January 2022. After that, the researcher transcribed the interviews and thematically analysed the qualitative data and triangulated them with the quantitative data for adding further insights and providing more credibility and validity to the data collected. The whole process lasted almost ten months, mainly because of delays caused by COVID-19 which delayed the researcher from travelling back to Egypt to collect the data. In the next section, research approach was investigated.

5.4. Research Approach (Mixed; Quantitative and Qualitative)

Saunders et al. (2019) and Bell et al. (2022) declared that there are three approaches that can be used by researchers in conducting their research; quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods approaches. Recalling chapters two and three (EIB and leadership), quantitative research dominated the EIB research and the tourism and hospitality leadership research (93.87%, 56.37%, respectively) (Deng et al., 2022; Elsetouhi et al., 2022; Idris et al., 2022; Belias et al., 2022), qualitative research represented only 5.19% of the EIB research (Zhou and Velamuri, 2018; Kwon and Kim, 2020) and 36.28% of the tourism and hospitality leadership research (Cave et al., 2022; Wang and Li, 2022), while mixed methods research was the least research used in comparison with quantitative and qualitative research as it represented only 0.94% of the EIB research (Sundbo et al., 2007; Li and Hsu, 2017) and only 7.35% of the tourism and hospitality leadership research (Al Rasyid et al., 2019; Spasojevic et al., 2019). Further, Table 5.4 compared the three approaches.

Table 5.4. Comparison Between Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches

Quantitative Method Approach
* Is used for testing theories by examining the causal relationships between variables (Bryman, 2016; Kumar, 2019).
* Researchers are generally regarded as independent from those being researched and those taking part are known as respondents (Saunders et al., 2019).
* Uses highly structured data collection techniques, relates to a deductive approach, associates with experimental and survey research strategies which are usually conducted through using questionnaires, and usually utilises probability sampling techniques for ensuring generalisability (Saunders et al., 2019).
* Data collection results in numerical and standardised data (Saunders et al., 2019).
* Unfortunately, it produces knowledge which may be too abstract and too general for a direct application, and quantitative researchers may lack flexibility or have insufficient time for discovering the roots of a phenomenon as quantitative research is concerned with testing a theory rather than building a new theory (Gray, 2014; Bernard and Ryan, 2016).

Qualitative Method Approach
* Aims to answer the research questions by exploring topics in their original contexts to interpret phenomena based on the meanings of people who have more experience about the topics (Thomas, 2003; Malhotra et al., 2012).
* Researchers are considered as not being independent from those researched and those taking part are known as participants (Saunders et al., 2019).
* Initiates with an inductive approach, in which a research design is used for building a theory or developing a richer theoretical perspective through using in-depth semi-structured or unstructured interviews, and utilises non-probability sampling techniques (Saunders et al., 2019).
* Data collection results in non-standardised data that generally necessitate being classified into categories (Saunders et al., 2019).
* Unfortunately, knowledge generated by a qualitative research may not be generalised to different contexts or other people as it is difficult to know how findings can be generated when collecting data from individuals in organisations (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Bryman, 2016), and also collecting and analysing qualitative data are very time consuming, and the researchers are not independent which make their results personally biased (Saunders et al., 2019).
Mixed Methods Approach
* Combines philosophies, methods, and data collection and analysis elements of both quantitative and qualitative methods (Plowright, 2011; Creswell and Creswell, 2017).
* Demonstrates a logic of inquiry which uses induction and deduction and provides a bridge between quantitative and qualitative methods due to its intuitive and logical appeal (Johnson et al., 2007).
* Integrates employing quantitative and qualitative data collection methods and analysis procedures in the same research, and therefore, it depends on the philosophical assumptions that guide mixing quantitative and qualitative data collection methods and analysis procedures (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022).

(Source; Thomas, 2003; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Johnson et al., 2007; Plowright, 2011; Malhotra et al., 2012; Gray, 2014; Bernard and Ryan, 2016; Bryman, 2016; Creswell and Creswell, 2017; Saunders et al., 2019; Kumar, 2019; Bell et al., 2022).

Significantly, the researcher employed a mixed methods approach in this study. Mainly, utilising mixed methods can confirm the research findings and minimise the weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative methods (Creswell and Clark, 2017). Furthermore, using mixed methods is associated with the post-positivism philosophy (Henderson, 2011). Additionally, mixed methods can be employed for various purposes in a study, giving a stronger evidence for conclusions through converging and corroborating findings (Saunders et al., 2019; Leavy, 2022). Further, mixed methods can assist in answering research questions that cannot be answered by quantitative or qualitative methods alone (Creswell and Clark, 2017). Likewise, mixed methods can increase the generalisability of the results and allow researchers to be more integrative, flexible, and holistic in their analytical techniques (Harrison and Reilly, 2011; Leavy, 2022). Moreover, using a mixed methods approach in this study will provide a methodological contribution to the tourism research as it was not utilised extensively comparing to quantitative and qualitative methods approaches.

Particularly, in this thesis, the researcher utilised mixed methods approach by using structured questionnaires with triangulation via semi-structured interviews. Triangulation is defined as examining the same phenomenon or research question from more than one data source in which information coming from various sources can be utilised to elaborate or corroborate the research problem, which reduces personal and methodological biases, enhances a study's generalizability, and provides more credible and reliable findings (Decrop, 1999; Saunders et al., 2019). More specifically, regarding leadership, integrating qualitative with quantitative methods through triangulation contributes to obtaining a more comprehensive and valid evaluation of leadership (Berson, 1999), particularly TL in this thesis.

Moreover, regarding triangulation's benefits, Bans-Akutey and Tiimub (2021) acknowledged that triangulation helps to confirm research findings, provides more insights that help researchers to better explain a phenomenon, reduces deficiencies from using one method or one source, ensures that inconsistent data that are not related to a study's objectives are easily noticed and possibly eliminated, and assists in improving the credibility and validity of a study's findings through reducing sampling biases and researcher biases. Moreover, in the case of conflicting findings from employing quantitative and qualitative methods, researchers can easily explain reasons for these conflicting findings through triangulation (Bans-Akutey and Tiimub, 2021). All these benefits justified using triangulation in this thesis.

More particularly, Denzin (1978) identified four main triangulation types; methodological, data, theory, and investigator triangulation. In this thesis, the researcher used methodological triangulation which entails using multiple methods to study a single problem through employing a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods (Decrop, 1999). Also, employing methodological triangulation assists in expanding the scope of the studied phenomenon and makes the research more credible (Dzwigol, 2022). Besides, methodical triangulation is highlighted as a mixed methods research (Bekhet and Zauszniewski, 2012). Accordingly, in this thesis, methodological triangulation was used for ensuring greater validity in which the qualitative data collected through semi-structured interviews were used for adding more depth and interpreting any unexpected findings regarding the relationship between TL and EIB which were identified through analysing the questionnaire's data. In the next section, data collection methods were explored.

5.5. Data Collection Methods

In this section, data types were clarified. Also, data collection methods for both quantitative and qualitative approaches were examined. Further, the questionnaires' design and translation, the constructs' measures, pilot testing, the semi-structured interviews' design, and validity and reliability of both questionnaires and interviews were emphasised.

Firstly, regarding the data types, there are two main data types; primary data and secondary data. Primary data are collected for handling a particular issue and they include case studies, observations, focus groups, questionnaires, and structured, semi-structured or unstructured interviews (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). On the other hand, secondary data are accessible to any researcher to obtain what is needed, meaning that they are not collected for a specific issue (Saunders et al., 2019). Additionally, secondary data embrace raw data and published summaries and are suitable for descriptive and explanatory research (Collis and Hussey, 2014; Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). Accordingly, based on the research questions and objectives, this study employed both primary and secondary data. Particularly, the researcher collected primary data by firstly giving structured questionnaires to frontline employees, where the data were analysed to test the hypotheses and realise research results, and secondly conducting semi-structured interviews with frontline employees for clarifying the results of the quantitative data collected through the questionnaires. Moreover, the researcher collected secondary data from the Egyptian Travel Agents Association (ETAA, 2020) to know the travel agents' names, numbers, and locations. Also, the researcher used several papers to review chapters two and three as a secondary data (see the selection criteria in sections 2.3 and 3.4).

Secondly, concerning data collection methods, the researcher used questionnaire surveys and semi-structured interviews. The questionnaire survey is a collection of questions given to respondents (Bryman, 2016), gives various responses to standardised questions, and so, various meanings (Bryman, 2016), and can be used for explanatory research as it provides insights on the associations between various variables (Saunders et al., 2019; Kumar, 2019; Bell et al., 2022) which is suitable for this thesis as it explored the causal relationship between TL and ELB. Further, Saunders et al. (2019) stressed that the choice over which questionnaire to use is impacted by several factors relating to the research questions and objectives such as the respondents' characteristics, the sample size required for the analysis, and the types and number of questions needed for collecting the data. Additionally, according to Gray (2014), questionnaire surveys cost less in terms of both money and time comparing to the cost of interviews and permit greater anonymity for the respondents to give their answers freely.

Moreover, Gray (2014), Saunders et al. (2019), and Bell et al. (2022) distinguished two types of questionnaires; self-administered and interviewer-administered. Firstly, self-administered questionnaires are typically completed by the respondents themselves and include three sub-types; (1) the postal questionnaire, which is sent to respondents by post, (2) email-based questionnaires that are administered either through a website or through a wordprocessed document attached to an e-mail, and (3) the delivery-and-collection questionnaire, in which the researcher delivers the questionnaire by hand to each respondent and collects it later (Gray, 2014). Secondly, in interviewer-administered questionnaires, the interviewer (the researcher) records the respondents' answers and can collect the data through two methods; (1) the telephone questionnaire in which the researcher telephones the respondents and completes the questionnaire based on their answers, and (2) the interview questionnaire in which the interviewer meets the respondents face to face and asks them questions directly (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022).

Accordingly, the researcher employed self-administrated questionnaires which were given to the respondents by the delivery-and-collection method for many reasons. Firstly, recalling chapters two and three (EIB and leadership), questionnaire surveys dominated the EIB research (93.40%) and the tourism and hospitality leadership research (54.41%) (Deng et al., 2022; Elsetouhi et al., 2022; Idris et al., 2022; Koo et al., 2022). Secondly, this method was suitable to the Egyptian environment as respondents preferred to deal with paperwork. Thirdly, a direct face to face contact between the researcher and the respondents can encourage a greater proportion of people to complete the questionnaire, enhancing the response rate and allowing the researcher to clarify ambiguous questions to the respondents (Gray, 2014; Bryman, 2016).

On the other hand, research interviews are data collection methods which require interviewees to express their thoughts and feelings through answering questions (Collis and Hussey, 2014). According to Saunders et al. (2019), there are three main types of research interviews; structured, semi-structured interviews, and unstructured interviews as shown in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5. Comparison Between Structured, Semi-Structured, and Unstructured Interviews

Structured Interviews
* Are performed using researcher-completed questionnaires in which researchers read out each question from the questionnaire exactly as it is written and then record the response on a standardised schedule, usually with pre-coded responses (Saunders et al., 2019).
* Are labelled as "quantitative research interviews" as they are used to collect quantifiable data (Saunders et al., 2019).
Semi-Structured Interviews
* Include standardised questions such as asking about age, gender, and educational qualifications, and open-ended questions designed to extract more qualitative information (Clarke, 1999).
* Are most frequently employed in explanatory studies as they are useful for understanding the relationships between variables (Saunders et al., 2019; Leavy, 2022).
* Help in explaining the themes emerging from the quantitative surveys' results (Berg, 2012; Creswell and Creswell, 2017).
* In semi-structured interviews, researchers start with a predetermined list of themes and some main questions relating to these themes for guiding the conduct of each interview (Saunders et al., 2019).
Unstructured Interviews

* Are used to examine a general area of interest in-depth, meaning that they do not use predetermined questions or themes for structuring or guiding the interview (Saunders et al., 2019).
* Aim to investigate the participants' experiences, behaviours, feelings, and thoughts without putting preceding questions which may limit their answers and give them the opportunity to deal with issues freely (Punch, 2013).

(Source; Clarke, 1999; Berg, 2012; Punch, 2013; Creswell and Creswell, 2017; Saunders et al., 2019; Leavy, 2022).

Moreover, interviews can be conducted through two methods; one-to-one and one-to-many interviews (Saunders et al., 2019). One-to-one interviews can be performed in three various ways; face to face, telephone, and online interviews (Cooper and Schindler, 2008; Bryman, 2016; Saunders et al., 2019). Face to face interviews assist the researcher to adapt the questions as necessary for ensuring that the responses are accurately understood through repeated questions, and to clarify any doubts about the topic (Bryman, 2016), while telephone and online interviews allow the researcher to conduct more interviews with interviewees from a wider geographic area simultaneously and more quickly, and they are low-cost ways because they save travel expenses (Cooper and Schindler, 2008). On the other hand, one-to-many interviews are conducted between a researcher and a group of people, and they are led by a moderator who facilitates the interview and directs the group to exchange feelings, ideas, and experiences on a certain topic (Saunders et al., 2019).

Consequently, the researcher utilised face to face semi-structured interviews for two key reasons. Firstly, the researcher aimed to examine the causal relationship between TL and EIB, and semi-structured interviews can be employed to investigate the causal relationships between variables (Saunders et al., 2019). Secondly, although data collection depends on the interviewer's listening and communication abilities which makes it highly challenging, semi-structured interviews are flexible and emphasise main questions to provide an easier data collection and analysis (Finn et al., 2000). In the next subsections, the questionnaire's design and layout, translation, pilot testing, and validity and reliability were examined, and then the interview's design and layout, and validity and reliability were clarified.

5.5.1. Questionnaire Design and Layout

Saunders et al. (2019) and Bell et al. (2022) addressed that there are two types of questions to be asked in a questionnaire; open-ended and closed-ended. Firstly, open-ended questions are useful when researchers seek more detailed answers that may require the writing of words or numbers. However, although this type of questions allows respondents to provide their answers in their own way, it can become off-putting if researchers leave excessive space (Bell et al., 2022). Secondly, closed-ended questions provide several alternative answers, in which the respondents are directed to choose from them, and they are easier and quicker for the respondents to answer (Saunders et al., 2019). Also, the answers can be demonstrated by three, five, seven, or more answers ranging from positive to negative or they can be represented as a yes/no choice, in which the respondents are required to signal a choice from a group of answers and they are limited by the offered choices, highlighting that the respondents are not allowed to be creative (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022).

Moreover, the questionnaire can be structured, semi-structured, or unstructured (Saunders et al., 2019). A structured questionnaire, which was employed in this study, includes questions and their recognised answers which are appropriate for quantitative studies (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). Also, the questionnaire requires four information types; knowledge, beliefs, behaviour, and attributes; knowledge information represents the knowledge people have about something, beliefs information connects with people's thoughts, viewpoints, and judgments, behavioural information emphasises people's planning for the future and what are they going to do, and attributes information signifies the personal demographic characteristics of people such as gender, age, qualifications or job experience (Taylor-Powell, 1998). For this thesis, a collection of all these information types was necessary in designing the questionnaire.

Specifically, this study utilised a self-administered structured questionnaire with closed-ended questions for collecting data from frontline employees in the Egyptian tourism industry. Also, the questionnaire with closed-ended questions offers several choices from which the respondents can select and these choices are presented in the Likert scale which enables the respondents to show their perceptions by choosing the most applicable answer for them (Saunders et al., 2019). The Likert scale is one of the main rating scales utilised as a measurement tool in social sciences research (Tanujaya et al., 2022) as it is simple and easy to use (McNabb, 2013), useful regarding data collection and interpretation (Zikmund et al., 2013; Collis and Hussey, 2014), and has an easy construction (Ghuman, 2010). Furthermore, the Likert scale might range from 5 to 10 points in which the respondents can choose from them (Collis and Hussey, 2014). Particularly, in this study, the researcher used the five-point Likert scale which ranged from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) because Hinkin (1998) emphasised the five-point Likert scale as the most suitable for most constructs and Hoe (2008) confirmed that utilising the five-point Likert scale as a continuous scale will not cause great distortion to the model fit indices. Moreover, the Likert scale which has more points does not add reliability (Madu, 2003) or more advantages (Dawes, 2008). Essentially, concerning the questionnaire's layout, its final form which was given to frontline employees of travel agents in Egypt entailed six subsequent parts containing 51 statements as exhibited in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6. The Questionnaire Layout

Questionnaire Part	Description	References
Part One	Included the Introduction.	Bryman (2016)
Part Two	Represented TL which was divided into four dimensions; II.C reflected in 7 statements from (1 – 7), IM represented by 5 statements from (8 – 12), IS signified by 5 statements from (13 – 17), and IC demonstrated by 4 statements from (18 – 21).	Bass and Avolio (1997, 2000) and Avolio and Bass (2002)
Part Three	Emphasised EIB represented by 6 statements from (22 – 27).	Scott and Bruce (1994)
Part Four	Highlighted ISE reflected in 10 statements from (28 – 37).	Tierney and Farmer (2002) and Dörner (2012)
Part Five	Demonstrated POS reflected in 8 statements from (38 – 45).	Eisenberger et al. (1986, 1990, 1997)
Part Six	Showed the respondents' personal information including their gender, age, educational level, organisational tenure or years of experience in the tourism industry, firm size (number of employees), and marital status demonstrated by 6 statements from (46 – 51).	Afsar and Masood, 2018; Bin Saeed et al., 2019; El-Kassar et al., 2022; Hoang et al., 2022

(Source; The researcher's own data).

Regarding part one (the introduction), Bryman (2016) declared that an introductory paragraph providing information about the research and ensuring confidentiality is an essential aspect in fostering the respondents to complete the questionnaire. Therefore, this study used a cover page which explained the purpose of the study and included the researcher's contact details in case the respondents have any further inquiries.

Moreover, parts two, three, four, and five encompassed the essential knowledge concerning the study variables; TL, EIB, ISE, and POS, respectively. Each part included structured and closed-ended statements and the respondents were required to give answers to them ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Specifically, the study variables (TL, ISE, POS, EIB) were measured as first-order factors with reflective measurement items which were approved from different scales from previous studies for ensuring validity and reliability. Also, the measurement items of the four variables were reshaped to suit the Egyptian language and make the questionnaire understandable (see Appendix 5.1). Moreover, regarding the measures of the study variables, TL was measured using a 21 items scale modified from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ – Form 5X) (Bass and Avolio, 1997, 2000; Avolio and Bass, 2002), EIB was measured using a 6 items scale developed by (Scott and Bruce, 1994), ISE was measured using a 10 items scale adapted from (Dörner, 2012), and POS was measured using an 8 items scale selected from the survey of POS (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990, 1997). The researcher explained further and justified in more detail why these measures were chosen in this study in Appendix 5.2.

Finally, the demographic characteristics mentioned in part six were selected in this study as they were strongly believed to impact EIB (Afsar and Masood, 2018; Newman et al., 2018a; Afsar et al., 2019; Bin Saeed et al., 2019; El-Kassar et al., 2022; Hoang et al., 2022). Also, this part comprised structured and closed-ended statements with multiple options for the respondents to choose from.

5.5.2. Questionnaire Translation

Translating the questionnaire into another language requires the researcher to consider grammar, syntax, lexical, idiomatic, and experiential (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). Particularly, there are three main techniques used for translating questionnaires; direct, parallel, and back translation (Saunders et al., 2019). In this study, back translation was employed as a technique for attaining a planned questionnaire in which the researcher translated the source questionnaire (English) into a target language (Arabic) and then two independent translators translated it back into the original language (English), and next, the source questionnaire and the new translated questionnaire in the original language were compared for creating the final version.

Specifically, the form was originally written in English language. Then for validity issues, its shape was translated back into Arabic language, which was the respondents' mother tongue, for ensuring that the questions were comprehended and understood. One more time, the Arabic copy was translated back into English language to be compared with the main form according to validity procedures of back translation techniques (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). Then, the resulting two source questionnaires were compared by the researcher. The comparison showed that 20 items have diverse implications in the new questionnaire, which were restated, and thus, the first new form of the questionnaire was developed. Afterward, the questionnaire was delivered to two professional and academic people, specialising in the business field, to check its validity; an associate professor from Faculty of Commerce, Mansoura University, Egypt and a reader in Management at Liverpool John Moores University, UK. Most of the feedback highlighted that the items were related to their constructs with some minor rephrasing to make the questionnaire more understandable and more suitable to the Egyptian environment which resulted in designing the second new form of the questionnaire.

5.5.3. Questionnaire Pilot Testing

A pilot test is performed to pre-test and enhance the questionnaire for ensuring that the respondents answer the questions smoothly without any problems (Saunders et al., 2019). Further, a pilot test ensures that questions are clear, valid and easy to understand, confirms that data are easily recorded and validated (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022), and helps in refining the research instruments (Creswell and Creswell, 2017). Moreover, ensuring a sufficient sample size is one of the main aspects of a pilot test in which samples between 10 and 30 are practically acceptable because they facilitate data processing (Hill, 1998). Accordingly, the researcher conducted a pilot test with 40 travel agents' frontline employees in Egypt.

Specifically, the pilot test was conducted during the period from 1st to 12th of April 2021 using a small sample to realise Cronbach's alpha. During this period, the questionnaire was sent in copies to 50 travel agents' frontline employees for piloting targets and gaining some assessment relating to the questionnaire's reliability. 40 usable questionnaires were collected (a response rate of 80%). Saunders et al. (2019) stated that it is sensible for questionnaires delivered and collected by a person to have a 30% response rate, and also declared that a sample of ten is considered acceptable for piloting questionnaires. Thus, this response rate was acceptable. Particularly, among those 40 respondents who provided a valid response, 70% were males; 47.5% were aged between 18–29 and 42.5% were aged between 30–39; 97.5% had a bachelor's degree; 50% had a job experience of less than 5 years and 35% had a job experience between 5–9 years; 57.5% worked in firms with a size of 1–10 employees; 45% were single and 52.5% were married. Additionally, some of those respondents suggested doing minor reshaping to some of the questionnaire's items so that they become clearer and easily understood, and so, the researcher reshaped these items which resulted in forming the third and final form of the questionnaire (See Appendix 5.3 for the changes made after pilot testing and Appendix 5.4 and 5.5 for the final English and Arabic questionnaire versions). Furthermore, concerning the questionnaire's reliability, the results showed that Cronbach's alpha for all constructs were above 0.70 except IC ($\alpha = 0.580$), indicating an acceptable internal consistency. In further details, Cronbach's alpha and corrected item-total correlations for all constructs resulting from the pilot test were presented in Appendix 5.6. From another point, Saunders et al. (2019) confirmed that a pilot test evaluates the questionnaire's validity and reliability, which were highlighted in the next subsection.

5.5.4. Questionnaire Validity

Validity is defined as the degree to which a measurement instrument precisely measures what it is supposed to measure (Bell et al., 2022). Further, validity evaluates whether a construct's indicators are strongly correlated with each other, meaning that all indicators converge on the same construct and share a proportion of the variance higher than the error (Field, 2017; Bryman, 2016). Moreover, Bordens and Abbott (2002) emphasised that there are three main validity types; face validity, content validity, and construct validity as clarified in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7. Validity Types

Validity Type	Description
Face Validity	* Represents the instrument's degree of suitability on its face as a measure in acquiring needed information from the potential respondent's perspective (Bordens and Abbott, 2002).
	* Is described as a personal evaluation as it depends on experts' judgments who review the grammar of the tool, its fitness, and approval of its flowing reasonably (Bordens and Abbott, 2002), and so, face validity is regarded as the weakest validity form (DeVon et al., 2007).
Content Validity	* Also called expert validity which demonstrates the extent to which the recognised items reflect the concept's domain which is being measured (Salkind, 2010).
	* Highlights the degree of measuring the concept's different aspects by the indicators (De Vaus, 2002).
	* Is highly judgmental and subjective, which makes it challenging to evaluate (Bordens and Abbott, 2002).
Construct Validity	* Refers to the degree of how well the items do a great job in reflecting the construct and it is necessary for assessing the perceived overall validity of the measure and ensuring that it is high in validity (Howitt and Cramer, 2007).
	* Is divided into two major types; convergent validity and discriminant validity (Colton and Covert, 2007).

(Source; Bordens and Abbott, 2002; De Vaus, 2002; DeVon et al., 2007; Howitt and Cramer, 2007; Colton and Covert, 2007; Salkind, 2010).

Essentially, the construct validity's two types; convergent validity and discriminant validity were assessed in the measurement model in chapter six (quantitative data analysis and results). Specifically, convergent validity is described as the degree to which there is a strong association between the construct's indicators, or the degree of correlation between theoretically similar indicators (Ketchen et al., 2006; Bell et al., 2022). Furthermore, for assessing convergent validity, average variance extracted (AVE) was utilised which is defined as the overall amount of variance located in the items which are accounted for a construct (Hair et al., 2010). Besides, Dalgaard (2008) concluded that the AVE should be greater than 0.5 for achieving a sufficient convergent validity.

On the other hand, discriminant validity is defined as the degree of difference among the constructs and other related constructs (Tarling, 2008; Hair et al., 2010), highlighting that a construct's indicators should not be strongly correlated with other constructs' indicators, and so, indicators across constructs should be discriminant rather than convergent (Hair et al., 2010). Further, Colton and Covert (2007) stated that discriminant validity emerges if there is a weak relationship among the constructs, meaning that if the construct is unique, the discriminant validity will be high (Hair et al., 2010). Moreover, Fornell and Larcker (1981) said that discriminant validity is being estimated by the AVE's square root which must be higher than the relationships among the constructs. Particularly, for each construct, discriminant validity is supported if the AVE is greater than its shared variance which represents the amount of variance that a construct is capable of explaining in another construct (Hair et al., 2010).

5.5.5. Questionnaire Reliability

A scale reliability is defined as the extent to which an instrument can be explained consistently across various occasions (Bordens and Abbott, 2002; Field, 2017; Bell et al., 2022), and it signifies the consistency of a construct's measure (Bryman, 2016), meaning that the scale is reliable when the respondents deliver a similar reply in diverse situations (Bell et al., 2022). Furthermore, Colton and Covert (2007) confirmed that scale reliability is measured through internal consistency which explores the scale homogeneity as it focuses on the associations between items that are located within a single instrument. Specifically, the internal consistency can be estimated by calculating Cronbach's alpha (α) which is generally used for evaluating scale reliability (Ketchen et al., 2006; Bell et al., 2022). Moreover, Hair et al. (2010) and Field (2017) agreed that Cronbach's alpha must be equal to or above 0.60 or 0.70 to be acceptable. Additionally, item-total correlations are used for assessing internal consistency as they reflect how one item is correlated with the other items in a given set of items (Kline, 2005). Particularly, the aim of utilising item-total correlations is to remove or retain the item in the scale, and Field (2017) stressed that the correlation should be above 0.30. Accordingly, if the value is put between 0.35 and 0.80, then corrected item-total correlations should be retained (Netemeyer et al., 2003). From another point, Field (2017) clarified that composite reliability (CR) reflects how the scale is impacted by errors. Besides, Hair et al. (1998) advised that CR should be equal to or more than 0.70 to become acceptable, and this reliability type was estimated in the measurement model in chapter six. Accordingly, after designing and translating the questionnaire, conducting pilot testing, and highlighting questionnaire's validity and reliability, the researcher conducted the main survey, but before explaining how the questionnaires were distributed in detail, the researcher explored the population, sample size, and sampling technique which were clarified further in section 5.6.1. In the next subsections, the interview design and layout and its validity and reliability were discussed.

5.5.6. Interview Design and Layout

Semi-structured interviews are usually utilised to explain the themes emerging from a questionnaire or assist in interpreting quantitative findings (Creswell and Creswell, 2017; Bell et al., 2022). Further, unstructured, general questions are used to find out participants' opinions and views in semi-structured interviews (Creswell and Creswell, 2017). Thus, in this study, the semi-structured interview included both open and closed-ended questions which were developed based on the themes of the questionnaire. Moreover, after getting a permission from frontline employees to use a voice recorder, note-taking and a recorder were used for recording the interview data as these methods allow the interviewees to concentrate and give the researcher the ability to collect data easily by listening to the interview again and provide an accurate and unbiased record (Saunders et al., 2019).

Specifically, this study's semi-structured interview included five main open-ended questions about the how TL, ISE, and POS impact EIB which were developed based on the study of Al-Husseini (2014) that provided the questions to leaders. However, the researcher in this study developed these questions so that it can be provided to frontline employees for realising the research objectives. Also, the semi-structured interview included another six closed-ended questions relating to the participants' personal information including their gender, age, educational level, organisational tenure or years of experience, firm size (number of employees), and marital status (See Appendix 5.7 and 5.8 for the English and Arabic interview versions).

5.5.7. Interview Validity and Reliability

In qualitative research, Saunders et al. (2019) highlighted bias, validity, and reliability as three crucial issues concerning semi-structured interviews. Firstly, bias includes two types; (1) interviewer bias in which the interviewer's comments, tone, or non-verbal behaviour establish bias in the way that interviewees respond to the questions being asked, and (2) interviewee bias which can be caused by interviewees' perceptions about the interviewer (Saunders et al., 2019).

Secondly, validity and reliability in qualitative research are not realised in the same way as in quantitative research (Creswell and Creswell, 2017). Specifically, in qualitative research, validity highlights the extent to which the researcher gains access to the participants' experience and knowledge and applies certain procedures for ensuring the accuracy of the findings (Creswell and Creswell, 2017), while reliability signifies whether other researchers will reveal similar information (Berg, 2012). Accordingly, to avoid bias and ensure the interviews' validity and reliability, Saunders et al. (2019) recommended that interviewers should conduct the following methods as emphasised in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8. Methods to be Followed to Avoid Bias and Ensure The Interviews' Validity and Reliability

1) Being ready and prepared in advance to avoid poor performance.
2) Giving a copy of the interview schedule to the participants before starting the interview for promoting the validity and reliability of the information given and enabling the interviewees to prepare themselves for the discussion.
3) Developing good and positive relationships with the interviewees to create a confidential climate and make them more relaxed and open about the information they are willing to discuss.
4) Taking a full record of the interview and making notes.
5) Speaking in a friendly manner to the interviewees before beginning the interview.
6) Using clear and open questions to reduce bias.
7) Avoiding too many theoretical concepts and specific terms.
8) Listening thoughtfully to the interviewees, providing them with a reasonable amount of time, listening to their explanations, and checking that they have understood the questions.

(Source; Saunders et al., 2019).

Subsequently, in this study, the interview's validity and reliability were established through following all of the above methods and also through integrating the interviews' findings with the data collected by the questionnaires. Accordingly, after designing the semi-structured interviews and highlighting their validity and reliability, the researcher conducted the interviews, but before discussing how the interviews were conducted in more detail, the researcher discussed the interview sampling and sampling technique which were examined further in section 5.6.2.

5.6. Sampling Technique

In this section, the population, sampling, sampling frame, sampling size, and sampling techniques for both questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were clarified. After that, the researcher explained in detail how the questionnaires were distributed and how the interviews were conducted. Firstly, population is a complete group of elements in which a sample is extracted from it (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022; Singh, 2022). This study was applied on tourism travel agents located in Egypt and since this study explored the relationship between TL and EIB, the target population consisted of all travel agents' frontline employees in Egypt. Specifically, as mentioned in chapter one (introduction), travel agents in Egypt were chosen in this study because they were an essential sector of the tourism industry and represented a business or a person selling the travel services to consumers in which they connected consumers, tourists, and travel suppliers together through airlines, hotels, cruise lines, and railways (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2009; Elsetouhi et al., 2018; El-Sisi et al., 2020). Additionally, in Egypt, travel agents organise tours and tourist visits and link between tour operators and national tourism service providers to deliver individual, group, and package tourism services (Elsetouhi et al., 2022).

Moreover, Elsetouhi et al. (2018) stated that since the tourism industry faces a lot of competitive pressure, travel agents were acknowledged as essential business improvement sources where frontline employees can play a significant role through expressing their IBs to overcome the problems they may encounter during their work. Besides, nowadays, Egypt faces many threats such as economic and political crises, terrorism, and an international pandemic (Covid-19) (Salem et al., 2022). These threats impact travel agents' ability to function properly and jeopardise their ability to attract clients or foster travelling because according to Ahmed et al. (2018) and Selim et al. (2020), tourism is one of the major pillars that Egypt depends on for its economy, and so, essential IBs were necessary to overcome these threats and attract more clients or tourists. Particularly, according to Abou-Shouk (2012), there are three categories of travel agents in Egypt; category A, B, and C which were presented in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9. Travel Agents Categories in Egypt

Category	Definition
A	Firms that handle packages for individuals or groups either incoming or departing from Egypt and arrange all of these packages' other components such as accommodation.
B	Firms that sell and/or book travel tickets and luggage transfers on various means of transportation including water-based transportation, airline transportation, or other means of transportation.
C	Sea, air, or land transport firms that transfer tourists and their luggage.

(Source; Abou-Shouk, 2012).

Additionally, frontline employees, who were the main sampling unit in this study, were selected because they play a major role in the service delivery process (Peng et al., 2022), are a crucial link between organisations and their customers (Crawford et al., 2022), make several interactions directly and personally with different customers to serve them (Zablah et al., 2012), and deliver new ideas and solutions to them for fulfilling their needs and requirements (Ramdas et al., 2012), which make them ideal people to know the needs and concerns of their consumers. Further, Stock (2015) stated that frontline employees are highly involved in creating new solutions, generating novel ideas for difficult issues, and converting innovative ideas into useful applications during the service encounter. Besides, innovative frontline employees can reveal customers' hidden needs, make good contacts with customers (Coelho et al., 2011), and adjust to varying customers' needs (Rego et al., 2014).

Secondly, concerning sampling, samples are employed because there are limitations in time and budget and analysing the whole population is inconvenient (Saunders et al., 2019; Leavy, 2022). Also, it is important to select a sample to examine all research types (Saunders et al., 2019). Additionally, the certainty degree emphasising that simplifications can be done from the sample to the whole population is one of the most vital criteria that signify a good sample which depends on the sample size and its representativeness (Saunders et al., 2019). Confirming that, Vogt (2007) acknowledged that the sample's representativeness is the most essential criteria.

Moreover, Vogt (2007), Saunders et al. (2019), and Bell et al. (2022) declared that there are two main sampling classifications; probability sampling and non-probability sampling. In probability sampling or representative sampling, the probability of selecting each case from the target population is known and it is commonly the same for all cases (Saunders et al., 2019). Further, probability sampling eliminates bias from the process of selecting cases and enlarges the external validity (Vogt, 2007), and it is most commonly employed in survey-based research (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). On the other hand, in non-probability sampling or non-random sampling, the probability of selecting each case from the target population is not known, the majority of the techniques used to select samples include an element of subjective judgement, and researchers may be able to generalise from non-probability samples about the target population, but not on statistical grounds (Saunders et al., 2019). Essentially, in this study, both probability and non-probability sampling were used which were explained further in the next subsections. In the next subsection, the researcher determined the sample size and sampling technique regarding the quantitative data collection.

5.6.1. Sample Size and Sampling Technique Regarding The Quantitative Data Collection

Essentially, to answer the research questions and realise the research objectives, a large sample size of frontline employees was required since the larger the sample, the lower the error which depends on the sample size (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). Further, although the target population was frontline employees, it was difficult to determine their actual number in the Egyptian travel agents, and so, there was no sampling frame for frontline employees, meaning that it was difficult to calculate their sample size precisely. However, the Egyptian travel agents where frontline employees worked had an actual sampling frame. Accordingly, the researcher firstly determined the sample frame and sample size required from travel agents and secondly determined the sample size required from frontline employees working in these chosen travel agents.

Particularly, Saunders et al. (2019) and Bell et al. (2022) defined the sampling frame as a list of full cases in the population from which the sample will be selected. In this study, category (A) travel agents was the central sampling frame. Specifically, a complete list of travel agents was accessible from the Egyptian Travel Agents Association (ETAA) (ETAA, 2020), which issued a full directory of travel agents in Egypt by category. Mainly, category (A) was the central sampling frame in this study because according to (ETAA, 2020), 1272 category (A) travel agents existed in Egypt which were centered in the whole Cairo Governorate. Further, as previously mentioned in section 5.3, due to the extremely high concentration in Greater Cairo and the other governorates' geographical diffusion across Egypt, distributing and collecting questionnaires outside Greater Cairo will be costly, waste a significant amount of time, and other difficulties. So, the researcher mainly focused on the 1272 category (A) travel agents located in Cairo – Egypt.

Essentially, to determine the actual sample size of frontline employees, this study followed two stages; travel agents' sample size level and frontline employees' sample size level. Specifically, the sample size's choice is based on many factors such as the confidence level, the margin of error requested, types of analyses conducted, and the population's total size (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). Researchers usually perform to a 95% confidence level and most management research conducts a margin of error of plus or minus 3 – 5% of the true value if the margin of error is taken into account (Saunders et al., 2019). Particularly, Saunders et al. (2019) confirmed that the actual sample size exploited in a study (n^a) can be derived using the following formula;

$$n^a = \frac{n\ X\ 100}{re\%}$$

In which (n^a): is the actual sample size that needs to be visited,

(*n*): is the required sample size which is stated regarding the margin of error and a 95% confidence level,

(*re%*): is the assessed response rate which is exhibited as a percentage.

Mainly, Saunders et al. (2019) acknowledged that if the margin of error is 5% and the travel agents' population size is between 1000 and 2000, the required sample size will be from 278 to 322 travel agents. This study used the upper limit of the sample size; 322 travel agents. However, some of these travel agents (322) may not cooperate with the researcher for collecting the required data. So, Saunders et al. (2019) recommended visiting more than the required sample size by using the following formula to get the actual sample size which was 644 travel agents as follows;

$$n^a = \frac{322\ X\ 100}{50} = \frac{32{,}200}{50} = 644 \text{ travel agents}$$

Significantly, regarding the high concentration of travel agents in Greater Cairo, a stratified random sampling technique was adopted to select these 644 travel agents out of 1272 because a full list of these travel agents and their telephone numbers can be collected from (ETAA, 2020). Generally, stratified random sampling is a probability sampling technique which involves dividing the target population into relevant and significant strata representing all the categories or groups in the population and this ensures that the sample is representative, and also the sample frame will be divided into a number of subsets (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). Specifically, Kothari (2004) declared that a population is stratified based on various criteria of the population under study and then a random sample is selected from each stratum. Moreover, stratified random sampling has several advantages such as being accurate, easy, accessible, divisible into relevant strata, and low-cost (Saunders et al., 2019). Accordingly, in this study, the 1272 travel agents in Cairo – Egypt were stratified according to 36 districts, and from these districts, 644 travel agents were chosen using the random sampling technique. Table 5.10 represented the stratification of travel agents in Cairo – Egypt according to 36 districts.

Table 5.10. Stratification of 1272 Travel Agents in Cairo – Egypt According to 36 Districts

Number of districts	Name of district in Cairo – Egypt	Number of travel agents in the district
1	Downtown	302
2	New Cairo	284
3	Nasr City	233
4	Maadi	146
5	Kasr Elnil	58
6	Alnouzhaa	48
7	Abdeen	43
8	Zamalek	29
9	Shoubra	18

10	**Azbakiya**	**15**
11	**Mokatam**	**15**
12	**Abasia**	**11**
13	**Garden City**	**9**
14	**Manyal**	**7**
15	**Sayeda Zainab**	**7**
16	**Alzaytoun**	**7**
17	**Boulaq**	**6**
18	**Misr Elkadema**	**5**
19	**Sahel**	**4**
20	**Helmyt Al-Zaiton**	**3**
21	**Ain Shams**	**3**
22	**Roud Elfarag**	**3**
23	**Khalifa**	**2**
24	**Hadyek Elqouba**	**2**
25	**Elmarag**	**1**
26	**Agouza**	**1**
27	**Zaher**	**1**
28	**Salam**	**1**
29	**Nozha Elgadida**	**1**
30	**Boulaq Abo Elela**	**1**
31	**New Maadi**	**1**
32	**Rouda**	**1**
33	**6 October**	**1**
34	**Helwan**	**1**
35	**Mohandessen**	**1**
36	**Masbeero**	**1**

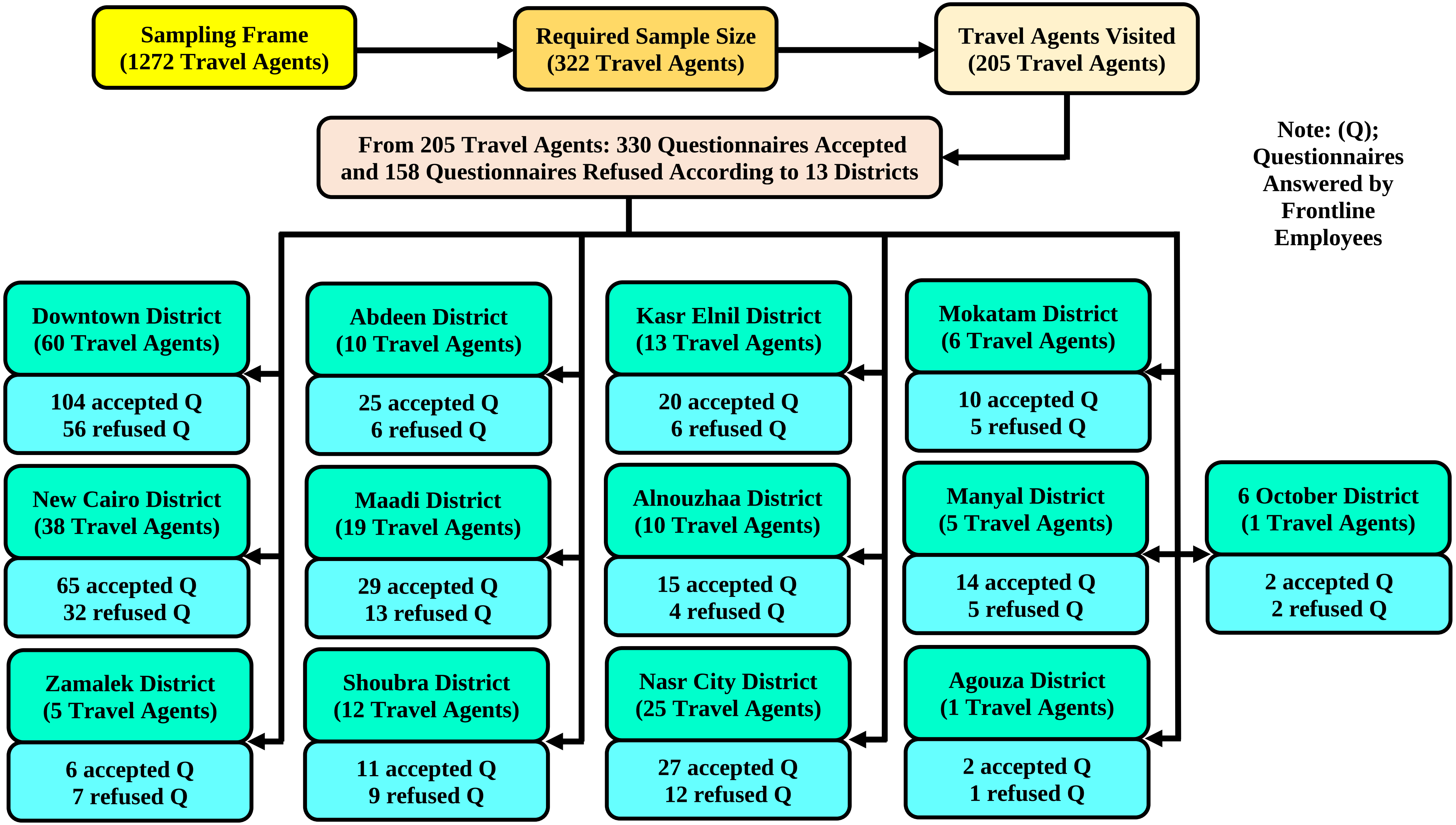
(Source; The researcher's own data which is adapted from the ETAA, 2020)

More importantly, after randomly selecting these 644 travel agents from the 36 districts, the researcher determined the required sample size of frontline employees (the main sample size needed in this study) from these 644 travel agents using a convenience sampling technique because frontline employees were easily available. Specifically, convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique that occurs when sample cases (frontline employees in this study) are selected because they are easily available or are mostly convenient to obtain for the sample (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). However, convenience samples are difficult to generalise to the target population (Creswell and Creswell, 2017), and so, this was stated as a limitation of this study which can be avoided in future research by adopting other sampling methods. Interestingly, despite this limitation, Bryman (2016) recognised that convenience sampling in social research and organisation studies is very common and more prominent than probability sampling and may provide interesting data. Moreover, recalling chapters two and three (EIB and leadership), convenience sampling represented (8.02%) of the EIB research (Wang et al., 2021b; Elsetouhi et al., 2022) and (7.85%) of the tourism and hospitality leadership research (Elsetouhi et al., 2022; Shehawy, 2022). Additionally, several articles that were published in high ranked journals utilised convenience sampling (Dhar, 2016; Ng and Lucianetti, 2016; Li and Hsu, 2016b; Bani-Melhem et al., 2018; Li and Hsu, 2018).

Accordingly, after determining the sampling frame, sample size, and sampling technique regarding the quantitative data collection, the researcher conducted the main survey. Specifically, after performing the pilot test, the researcher conducted the main survey during the period from 1st of May till 28th of September 2021 which lasted for approximately five months. Specifically, questionnaires were delivered personally to frontline employees in their travel agents. Additionally, proceedings were followed to certify the final form of the questionnaire and guarantee that it measured what it was supposed to measure.

Unfortunately, the tourism industry in Egypt has been hit aggressively by the global pandemic of Coronavirus (COVID-19) (Sobaih et al., 2021; Salem et al., 2022). International travel restrictions constrained tourism to Egypt (Breisinger et al., 2020), and so, small tourism companies were severely impacted and had difficulties in business recovery (Sobaih et al., 2021). Accordingly, the researcher had difficulty in collecting the required data during the pandemic because many travel agents were closed and more employees were laid off. Further, the remaining employees were reluctant to participate in the study because they were just focusing on surviving during the pandemic. Consequently, only 205 travel agents across 13 districts were visited randomly (response rate = 63.66%; 205 out of 322 travel agents which is the required sample size). Specifically, 488 questionnaires were delivered to frontline employees in these 205 travel agents. 330 questionnaires were collected (response rate = 67.62%; 330 out of 488 questionnaires), while the remaining 158 questionnaires were refused. Out of 330 questionnaires collected, 320 of them were valid and had no missing data, while the remaining 10 were unusable. The missing data were handled using a simple listwise deletion strategy (Byrne, 2016). The 10 cases all had missing values for the study variables in the data, and so, they were excluded from all computations. Figure 5.3 summarised the process of collecting quantitative data from frontline employees. After finishing the sampling technique for the quantitative data collection and conducting the main survey, the researcher examined the sampling, sample size, and sampling technique concerning the qualitative data collection and conducted the interviews in the next subsection.

Figure 5.3. Process of Collecting Quantitative Data from Frontline Employees



Source: Researcher's Own Data

5.6.2. Sample Size and Sampling Technique Regarding The Qualitative Data Collection

Since the population used for this study and the sampling frame were defined earlier, selecting interviewees regarding the qualitative data collection was easier. Geographically, the sampling frame was limited to category A travel agents located in Greater Cairo and the target population was travel agents' frontline employees since the main focus was on their IB. During the quantitative data collection process through questionnaires, the researcher gained permission to conduct interviews with relevant frontline employees. Accordingly, purposive (judgemental) sampling (a non-probability sampling technique) was utilised in the qualitative data collection, whereby particular persons are deliberately selected because of the essential information they can provide, which will help in realising the research aims and objectives (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). Particularly, purposive sampling includes many techniques such as extreme case, heterogeneous, homogeneous, typical case, and critical case sampling (Saunders et al., 2019) as exhibited in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11. Purposive Sampling Techniques

Purposive Sampling Technique	Description
Extreme Case Sampling	* Focuses on special cases and enables researchers to answer their questions based on the data collected from the unusual outcomes.
Heterogeneous (Maximum Variation) Sampling	* In this sampling, the data collected enable researchers to explain the key themes from different cases.
Homogeneous Sampling	* In this sampling, researchers focus on one particular group, in which all the sample members are similar, enabling researchers to study that group in more depth.
Typical Case Sampling	* Provides an illustrative profile of what is 'typical' to readers and may be unfamiliar with the subject matter.
Critical Case Sampling	* In this sampling, critical cases are selected on the basis that they are crucial for answering the research questions.

(Source; Saunders et al., 2019).

Consequently, since the interviewees were frontline employees who were similar sample members, homogeneous purposive sampling was adopted for the qualitative data collection to help the researcher examine frontline employees' behaviours in more depth. Interestingly, regarding the sample size, Saunders (2012) recommended that the sample size for a homogeneous sample should be between four and 12 participants. Likewise, as cited in Boddy (2016), qualitative sample sizes of ten are adequate for sampling among a homogenous population (Sandelowski, 1995). Accordingly, the researcher planned to interview 30 frontline employees to add more depth to the collected data. However, the researcher conducted the semi-structured interviews during the period from 20th of December 2021 till 20th of January 2022 with only 25 frontline employees because data saturation was reached. Specifically, data saturation is defined as the point at which no new additional themes, information, issues, or insights are detected in the data from completing additional interviews, and the data start to repeat so that any further data collection is redundant, emphasising that an adequate sample size is realised (Guest et al., 2006; Hennink and Kaiser, 2022). Furthermore, the idea of sampling till data saturation is reached can be used as a justification for using a particular sample size in any qualitative study guided by this idea (Boddy, 2016). That is why the researcher conducted 25 interviews and the sample size was suited for this study. Moreover, the profile of interviewees was presented in chapter seven (qualitative data analysis and results). In the next section, data analysis methods were explored.

5.7. Data Analysis Methods

In this section, quantitative data analysis methods including descriptive statistics, common method bias (CMB), and structural equation modelling (SEM) were examined. Also, the qualitative data analysis methods were highlighted. The next subsection started with descriptive statistics.

5.7.1. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were used in this study for describing and comparing the variables' data values numerically (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022). Larson-Hall and Plonsky (2015) regarded descriptive statistics as the basis of all quantitative reasoning and they are vital to be reported in research studies. Also, Byrne (2016) confirmed that data screening is essential before testing the measurement model for ensuring that no assumptions of the model are violated which may cause problems with the estimations.

Particularly, descriptive statistics were calculated through using SPSS. Bryman and Teevan (2005) confirmed that SPSS is one of the oldest and most widely utilised software programmes for statistical analysis as it is a comprehensive and flexible statistical analysis and data management system. Further, according to De Vaus (2002), SPSS can generate tabulated reports, charts, and complex statistical analyses, compile survey responses, assist researchers in coding variables, and analyse quantitative data (Bell et al., 2022). Accordingly, in this study, the researcher employed SPSS version 20 to analyse the respondents' profile and the descriptive statistics of the data including the mean and standard deviation and assess the normality of the data through evaluating the skewness (asymmetry) and kurtosis (peakedness) of each item.

Specifically, according to Hair et al. (2021), normality highlights the extent to which the sample data are distributed according to normal distribution, and Field (2017) declared that skewness and kurtosis are suitable measures for evaluating the normality of the observed items and should be within the (-2 to +2) range for obtaining a reasonably normal distribution. Skewness characterises the symmetry of the data and whether they are positively or negatively distributed away from the centre; a zero skewness signifies a perfectly symmetrical distribution, a positive skewness indicates that the tail on the right side is longer, and a negative skewness demonstrates that the tail on the left side is longer (Field, 2017). On the other hand, kurtosis explains the peak of the distribution and whether the data are heavy – tailed or light – tailed concerning the normal distribution; a zero kurtosis demonstrates a normal distribution, a positive kurtosis is shown by peaked distribution (high Kurtosis), and a negative kurtosis is reflected by flat distribution (low kurtosis) (Field, 2017).

5.7.2. Common Method Bias (CMB) Analysis

Common method bias (CMB) is often regarded as a threat to the integrity of a study's results and can significantly impact its empirical results and derived conclusions (Burton-Jones, 2009; Podsakoff et al., 2012; Kock et al., 2021). Also, CMB has been explored in various research disciplines, including management journals (Jakobsen and Jensen, 2015; Tehseen et al., 2017; Jordan and Troth, 2020) and tourism and hospitality journals (Min et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2019; Kock et al., 2021). More specifically, CMB was measured in this study because according to Kock et al. (2021), most tourism and hospitality researchers did not mention CMB, and so, they did not report whether their study constructs are tested for CMB or acknowledge it as a limitation to their research, which was addressed in this study. Additionally, the epistemology of most tourism research is inclined to depend on theories that test relationships between constructs, and such theoretical foundations make tourism research more inclined toward the threat of CMB (Kock et al., 2021).

Particularly, CMB occurs when all data (independent, dependent, mediating, and moderating variables) are measured within one survey, using the same response method, which can be detrimental to a study's validity and possibly lead to the artificial inflation of relationships (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986; Jordan and Troth, 2020; Kock et al., 2021). In fact, Podsakoff et al. (2012) declared that there are two main negative impacts caused by CMB. Firstly, CMB can negatively impact the measures' validity and reliability, meaning that if CMB is not contained, it will be combined with the systematic variance of the main construct, and this is a problem as it can lead to incorrect judgements about the adequacy of a scale's reliability and convergent validity (Jordan and Troth, 2020). Secondly, Kock et al. (2021) declared that CMB may impact the parameter estimates of the hypothesised associations between constructs such as correlation. This impact can either inflate or deflate the relationships between constructs, and so, results in reducing the scale's discriminant validity (Podsakoff et al., 2012), and leads researchers to commit Type I error (incorrectly rejecting the null hypothesis) or Type II error (failing to reject the null hypothesis) (Kock et al., 2021). Moreover, there are two main sources of CMB; sources that relate to the respondent and sources that relate to the measurement instrument (Kock et al., 2021) as highlighted in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12. Sources of CMB

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Respondent – Related Sources</th></tr>
<tr><td>Common Rater Effects</td><td>* Cause a systematic error variance which emerges when the rater (respondent) of both independent and dependent variables is the same (Podsakoff et al., 2003), which can result in erroneous findings concerning the proposed relationships (Kock et al., 2021).

* Include three types; (1) acquiescence bias which highlights the tendency to agree or disagree; (2) consistency motif which emphasises the attempt to answer all survey questions in a consistent manner; (3) social desirability that represents the inclination to reply to survey questions in a socially acceptable manner instead of expressing true sentiments (Baumgartner and Steenkamp, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003).</td></tr>
<tr><td>Individual Characteristics Effects</td><td>* May negatively impact the respondents' motivation to answer the questions accurately (MacKenzie and Podsakoff, 2012).

* Examples include; (1) low cognitive ability can prompt respondents to reply in a similar manner despite the content of the question (Podsakoff et al., 2012); (2) lack of experience concerning the study's topic may affect respondents' ability to retrieve the information required to answer the questions (Kock et al., 2021); (3) too much experience and familiarity with survey taking and frequently used research methods, labelled as non-naivety (Chandler et al., 2015) can be a source of CMB; (4) certain personality traits such as being outgoing or reserved can trigger stylistic responding; introverts have a tendency of nay-saying, while extroverts are likely to agree with statements impulsively (Baumgartner and Steenkamp, 2001).</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="2">Measurement Instrument – Related Sources</th></tr>
<tr><td>Item Characteristics Effects</td><td>* Some item attributes such as ambiguous or complex item wordings can contribute to stylistic responding from respondents, and so, they can be a source of systematic error variance (Kock et al., 2021).

* Additionally, the answer format of scales such as the ordinal type scales can be a source of response bias (Dolnicar, 2020).</td></tr>
<tr><td>Item and Measurement Context Characteristic Effects</td><td>* Highlights the specific characteristics of the survey instrument's design (Kock et al., 2021).

* Examples include; (1) CMB can appear if the independent and dependent variables are measured at the same place and at the same point in time (Podsakoff et al., 2003); (2) the order of survey questions estimating independent and dependent variables can suggest causal relationships between them, and so, this encourages respondents' answers to fit the assumed relationships (Viswanathan and Kayande, 2012); (3) grouping items that evaluate the same constructs and labelling them can foster respondents to provide similar answers to all questions (Viswanathan and Kayande, 2012); (4) employing lengthy scales can cause fatigue among respondents which may reduce their motivation to utilise enough cognitive efforts to answer the questions (Kock et al., 2021).</td></tr>
</table>

(**Source;** Baumgartner and Steenkamp, 2001; Podsakoff et al., 2003; Viswanathan and Kayande, 2012; MacKenzie and Podsakoff, 2012; Podsakoff et al., 2012; Chandler et al., 2015; Dolnicar, 2020; Kock et al., 2021).

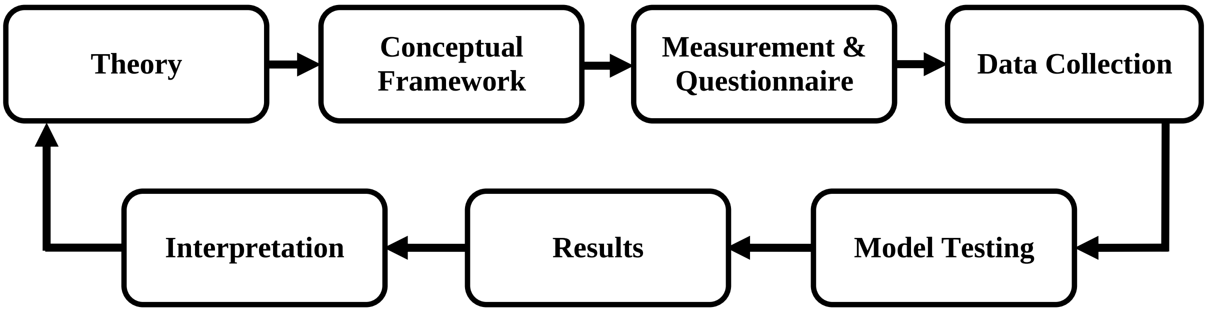
Accordingly, to reduce the negative impacts of CMB, Podsakoff et al. (2012) provided two key strategies; procedural strategies, which aim to ensure that the respondents are capable of answering the questions on self-report measures more accurately without systematic bias, and statistical strategies, which are employed after data collection is complete and aim to identify, but not prevent, potential CMB (Kock et al., 2021). Firstly, procedural strategies include the following; (1) providing a clear research information, definitions of terms, and instructions to the respondents because if they know how the information will be used or how it will benefit them or the organisation, their motivation to be accurate will increase (MacKenzie and Podsakoff, 2012); (2) keeping the survey short and reducing redundant measures for helping the respondents to give more precise responses (Podsakoff et al., 2012); (3) improving scale item clarity by keeping the questions concise and simple and avoiding double-meaning items because ambiguous scale items are difficult to understand and will make the respondents uncertain about how to respond and will be influenced by their natural response tendency (extreme or agreeable) (Podsakoff et al., 2012); and (4) minimising common scale properties such as the type or number of scale points because they increase CMB (Johnson et al., 2011), and this can be realised by developing a survey including a 5-point Likert-type scale (Jordan and Troth, 2020). Consequently, to reduce CMB in this study, a self-administrated questionnaire with a 5-point Likert-type scale was used and the anchors of "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" were utilised. Also, a clear information about the research, definitions of terms, and ensuring the respondents' anonymity were presented in the questionnaire to them. Further, the questions were short, precise, clear, and simple without using any redundant measures or double-meaning items and this was confirmed after conducting the pilot study.

Secondly, regarding statistical strategies, among most tourism research, the Harman's single factor test is the dominant statistical technique employed for detecting CMB (Kock et al., 2021). Thus, the Harman's single factor test was measured in this study. Particularly, this test utilises both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses for detecting CMB (Kock et al., 2021). According to Fuller et al. (2016), the Harman's exploratory factor analysis (EFA) test suggests that CMB exists if all items from each of the constructs are loaded onto a single factor which accounts for more than 50% of the variance among the variables. This procedure is similar to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) that examines whether a single factor explains the majority of the variance in the measurement items (Podsakoff et al., 2003), in which CMB exists if the one factor measurement model fits the data and the hypothesised model (Korsgaard and Roberson, 1995), and if it does not fit, then CMB is not a major issue. Besides, Kock et al. (2021) acknowledged that the Harman's single factor test is popular because it is simple, has a straightforward interpretation, and can be employed after data collection. Nevertheless, Kock et al. (2021) argued that employing this test through both EFA and CFA will be redundant as both analyses do not control for CMB, but they only help in determining whether it exists or not. Consequently, to prove that there is no CMB, the single factor should not represent more than 50% of the variance among the variables (Kock et al., 2021). In this study, the results of the Harman's single factor test were presented in chapter six.

5.7.3. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) (Confirmatory Factor Analysis)

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a statistical technique that takes a confirmatory (Hypothesis-testing) approach which enables researchers to model and simultaneously evaluate the causal relationships between variables using relevant theories and concepts, and examine measurements' quality (Hair et al., 2010; Sarstedt et al., 2014, 2021). Further, SEM enables researchers to test theories and conceptual models empirically (Rigdon, 1998; Hair et al., 2012, 2021). Specifically, to reach results, SEM has many steps as clarified in Figure 5.4.

Figure 5.4. The process of SEM results



(Source; Adapted from Kovačić et al., 2015; Richter et al., 2016; Ringle et al., 2020)

Fundamentally, SEM establishes a measurement model and a structural model to assess the relationships between factors (Hair et al., 2010, 2021). The measurement model refers to the relationships between indicators and latent variables and is used for evaluating the validity and reliability of the observed variables (indicators) to measure the latent variables, while the structural model evaluates the relationships between the latent variables, specifying the direct and indirect associations between them (Byrne, 2016; Hair et al., 2021). However, before evaluating the measurement and structural models, the researcher categorised the study's constructs first. Accordingly, in the following subsections, the researcher explored the categorisation of the constructs and their nature, measurement model, and structural model in further details.

Additionally, a main function of SEM is examining the interactions between one or more independent and dependent variables through evaluating the goodness of fit between the hypothetical model and the sample data, in which the hypothesised model can be tested statistically for determining the extent to which it is consistent with the data (Byrne, 2016). Besides, the results confirm the credibility of the hypothesised relations between the variables if the goodness of fit is adequate, while reject it if the goodness of fit is inadequate (Blunch, 2012; Byrne, 2016). Accordingly, in this study, to evaluate the model's goodness of fit, three criteria were used; Average Path Coefficient (APC), Average R-squared (ARS), and Average Variance Inflation Factor (AVIF) (Kock, 2021). Particularly, Kock (2021) recommended that APC and ARS are significant if ($P< 0.05$), while the value of AVIF should be below 5.

Essentially, to apply SEM, there are two essential approaches; variance-based partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS–SEM) and covariance-based structural equation modelling (CB–SEM) (Hair et al., 2021), and applying either PLS-SEM or CB–SEM depends on the research goal, data features, and the model. Accordingly, Sarstedt et al. (2014) determined many conditions for choosing between PLS–SEM and CB–SEM as clarified in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13. Conditions For Choosing Between PLS–SEM and CB–SEM

SEM Approach	Conditions of Using The Approach
PLS-SEM	1) From a research perspective, PLS–SEM is more appropriate in several research settings encompassing exploring studies, predicting constructs, and deciding on proceedings factors (Sarstedt et al., 2014).
	2) PLS–SEM is superior if the goal of a study is to predict and explain the variance of the dependent variables when estimating a model (Henseler and Sarstedt, 2013; Hair et al., 2021).
	3) PLS-SEM uses a non-parametric statistical approach which includes using large sample sizes (Mohamad et al., 2019).
CB-SEM	1) CB–SEM is more suitable if the aim of the research is comparing between alternative theories (Henseler and Sarstedt, 2013).
	2) CB–SEM is a superior approach for selecting, comparing, and validating models (Henseler and Sarstedt, 2013).
	3) CB-SEM uses a parametric statistical approach which includes using small sample sizes (Mohamad et al., 2019).

(Source; Henseler and Sarstedt, 2013; Sarstedt et al., 2014; Mohamad et al., 2019; Hair et al., 2021).

Subsequently, to test the structural model and fulfil the study's aims and objectives, this study employed the variance based partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS–SEM) using Warp PLS version 7.0 (Kock, 2021) for several reasons. For instance, PLS-SEM fulfils the aims of investigating and predicting constructs and clarifying the variance of the dependent variables (Henseler and Sarstedt, 2013; Hair et al., 2021). Particularly, this study examined the relationship between TL and EIB, the mediating role of ISE, and the moderating role of POS in the relationship between TL and EIB. Confirming that, James et al. (2006) declared that PLS-SEM is suitable for examining mediation hypothesis, which made it suitable for this study to evaluate the mediating role of ISE in the relationship between TL and EIB. Further, PLS–SEM supports complex models with either reflective or formative latent variables in the same analysis (Hair et al., 2021). Specifically, the structural model of this study was made up of four reflective constructs (TL, EIB, ISE, POS) which were clarified in the following subsection. Moreover, in comparison with CB-SEM, Dash and Paul (2021) found that the item loadings and values of AVE and CR are usually higher in PLS-SEM than CB-SEM, indicating a better construct validity and reliability.

Furthermore, PLS-SEM depends on a set of nonparametric estimation criteria for evaluating the results of measurement and structural models (Hair et al., 2021). Particularly, Kock (2021) confirmed that one of Warp PLS's advantages is that this software evaluates P values and standard errors through employing nonparametric estimation techniques which do not require the data to be normally distributed, and these estimation techniques are called Stable or resampling techniques. These estimation techniques include seven types; Stable1, Stable2, Stable3, Parametric, Jackknifing, Blindfolding, and Bootstrapping (Kock, 2021). Among these types, the researcher adopted the Stable3 resampling method in this study as it depends on directly applying exponential smoothing formulas which makes it more easily to be implemented and tested by researchers, is especially useful in investigating large datasets, generates more accurate estimates of the actual standard errors in several cases than those obtained via bootstrapping (Kock, 2018), and it is more precise than the Stable1 and Stable2 methods, making it to be set as the software's default starting in version 5.0 (Kock, 2021). Consequently, given the previous reasons, PLS–SEM was justified as the most appropriate data analysis method to be used in this study. In the next subsection, the nature of the constructs and their categorisation were investigated.

5.7.3.1. Categorisation of The Constructs and Their Nature

The study's latent variables were categorised into exogenous latent variables which explain other constructs and endogenous latent variables that are being explained in the model (Hair et al., 2021). Table 5.14 showed the latent variables along with their coding for the study.

Table 5.14. Latent Variables and Their Coding

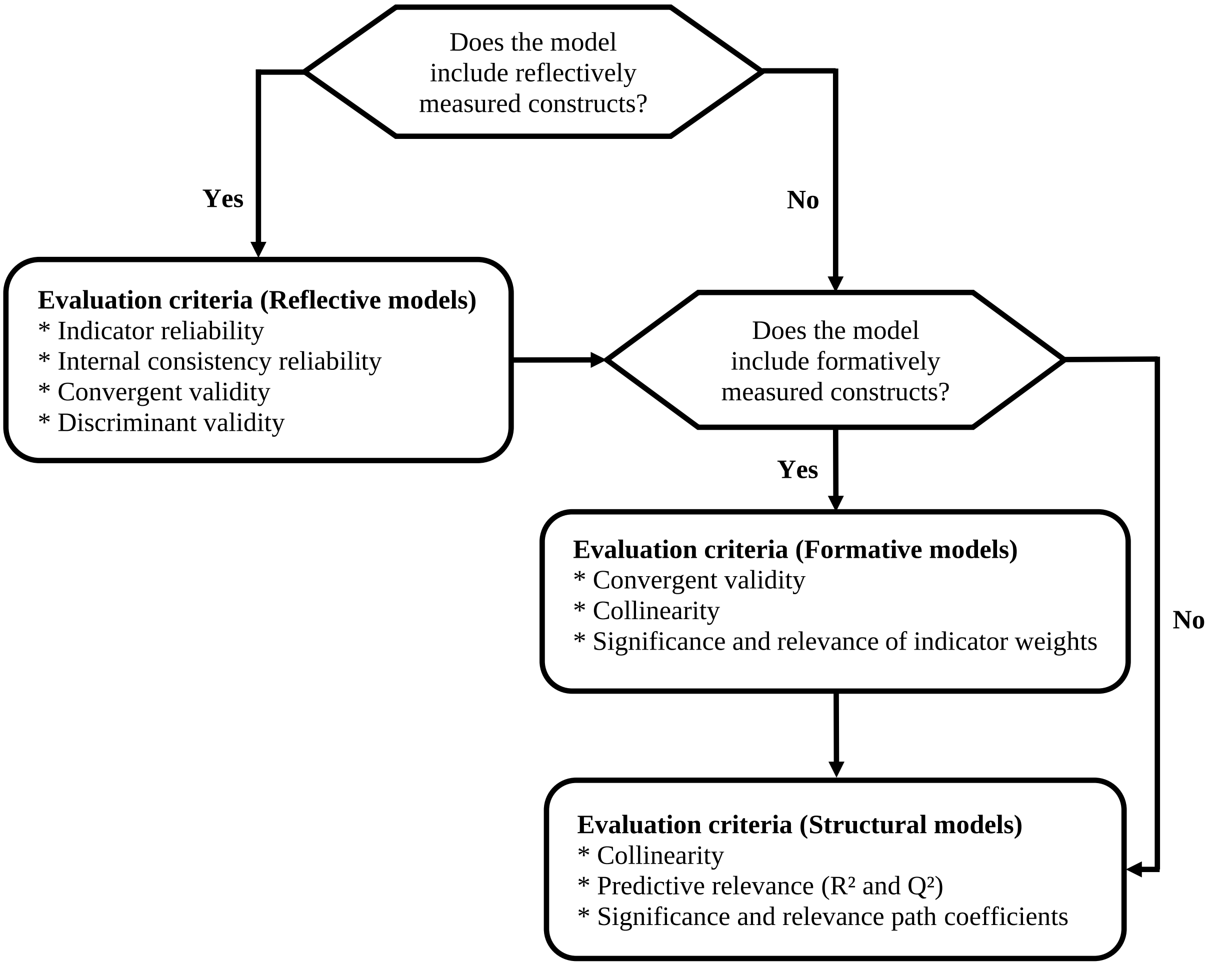
Variables	Codes
Exogenous Variable	
Transformational Leadership	**TL**
Idealised Influence (Charisma)	**II.C**
Inspirational Motivation	**IM**
Intellectual Stimulation	**IS**
Individualised Consideration	**IC**
Mediator Variable	
Innovative Self-Efficacy	**ISE**
Moderator Variable	
Perceived Organisational Support	**POS**
Endogenous Variable	
Employee Innovative Behaviour	**EIB**

Concerning the nature of the constructs, in PLS-SEM, latent variables (unobserved variables) must be estimated by observed variables (indicators/items). Particularly, employing more than one indicator can reduce measurement errors and cover several aspects of the variable, and so, provide more precise variable measurement (Sarstedt et al., 2014; Hair et al., 2021). Accordingly, the basic step before the measurement analysis is identifying the nature of latent variables' measurements.

According to Gudergan et al. (2008) and Mackenzie et al. (2011), latent variables are estimated by formative and reflective constructs. Formative constructs presume that a construct is a result of the associated indicators, and so, the goal is covering the full aspects of a concept using various indicators with less overlap (Mackenzie et al., 2011; Hair et al., 2021). In other words, items should cover all potential causes of a construct independently (Robins, 2012; Becker et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2021), and the relationship arrow in this case goes from the indicators to the construct (Sarstedt et al., 2014, 2021). On the other hand, reflective constructs assume that a construct causes all associated indicators, meaning that the construct is a characteristic explaining the items, and the relationship arrow in this case goes from the construct to the indicators (Sarstedt et al., 2014, 2021). Specifically, this reflective relationship between the constructs and the indicators leads to strong correlations between the associated indicators, and so, the indicators are interchangeable in which omitting a single item will not harm the construct's meaning, and this implies that the aim in reflective measurements case is maximising the indicators' overlap (Sarstedt et al., 2014, 2021; Hair et al., 2021).

However, Sarstedt et al. (2014) argued that there is no clear way for choosing between reflective or formative constructs, and so, several guidelines are articulated for selecting among constructs' measurements. In this study, the researcher followed the PLS-SEM evaluation procedure for differentiating between formative and reflective constructs and determining the necessary stages in the measurement and structural models (see Figure 5.5). Specifically, a reflective construct is causing and explaining the indicators, and so, the indicators are interchangeable and are considered as consequences of the reflective construct (Hair et al., 2021). Confirming that, Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001) proposed that the interchangeable nature of the items of reflective constructs emphasises that eliminating any item does not harm the associated construct, while on the other hand, omitting a formative item denotes removing a part of the related construct. Accordingly, drawing on Figure 5.5, all the constructs in this study were reflective as they cause and explain the associated indicators, and the study's indicators were highly correlated and interchangeable (Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer, 2001; Hair et al., 2021). In the next subsection, the measurement model was examined.

Figure 5.5. PLS-SEM Evaluation Procedure



Source: (Adapted from Sarstedt et al., 2014, 2021)

5.7.3.2. The Measurement Model

The first stage of evaluating results in the PLS-SEM is analysing the measurement model in which this stage is about evaluating the quality of measurements before assessing the associations between constructs of the structural model (Sarstedt et al., 2014, 2021). Once the measurement model's evaluation reveals a satisfactory quality level, researchers can proceed to the second stage of assessing the structural model and testing hypotheses (Sarstedt et al., 2014, 2021). Drawing on the PLS-SEM evaluation procedure given in Figure 5.5, the evaluation criteria for reflective models comprised indicator/individual item reliability, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. For carrying out the measurement model analysis, each evaluation criterion should fulfil a certain threshold (see Table 5.15) (Hair et al., 2021). Specifically, based on Ringle et al. (2012), the researcher employed indicator loadings for estimating indicator/individual item reliability, utilised Cronbach's alpha (α) and composite reliability (CR) for evaluating internal consistency reliability, determined the AVE for measuring convergent validity, and adopted the Fornell – Larcker criterion for estimating discriminant validity. All of these evaluation criteria were analysed in chapter six.

Table 5.15. Evaluation Thresholds For The Measurement Model

<table>
<tr><th>Evaluation Criteria</th><th>Threshold</th></tr>
<tr><td>Indicator/Individual Item Reliability</td><td>Indicator's outer loadings should be higher than 0.70.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Internal Consistency Reliability</td><td>Cronbach's alpha should be equal to or higher than 0.60 or 0.70.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Composite reliability should be higher than 0.70.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Convergent Validity</td><td>Average Variance Extracted (AVE) should be higher than 0.50.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Discriminant Validity</td><td>Indicator's outer loadings on a construct should be higher than all its cross-loadings with other constructs.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Fornell Larcker criterion (square root of the AVE of each construct is higher than its highest correlation with any other construct).</td></tr>
</table>

Source: (Ringle et al., 2012; Hair et al., 2021)

5.7.3.3. The Structural Model

Sarstedt et al. (2014, 2021) confirmed that the structural model analysis tests hypotheses through the causal associations between latent variables and shows the extent to which these associations are meaningful and significant, indicating the prediction quality of the model. In other words, the structural model analysis signifies the concepts and theories behind the path model, and so, it is vital to estimate how strong and significant these hypothesised relationships are (Sarstedt et al., 2014, 2021). Drawing on the PLS-SEM evaluation criteria for structural models shown in Figure 5.5, the researcher estimated collinearity, predictive relevance (R^2 and Q^2), and significance relevance of path coefficients by identifying how theories fit reality concerning the path model.

Firstly, determining the collinearity between variables is vital before exploring the associations' strength and significance between variables because if collinearity exists between two variables, these variables will be highly correlated and the estimation of path coefficient β and P values will be biased (Sarstedt et al., 2014, 2021). For assessing collinearity, full collinearity variance inflation factors (VIFs) are employed for measuring overall collinearity for all latent variables in a model (Kock, 2021). Secondly, regarding (R^2 and Q^2), R^2 represents the percentage of the variance in the endogenous latent variable which is explained by the latent variable(s) that are hypothesised to impact it (Kock, 2021), while Q^2 estimates the predictive validity or relevance of the model's endogenous latent variables (Kock, 2015). Thirdly, for estimating the relationships between constructs, two main assessments were employed; path coefficients β, which determine the inner model quality (Sarstedt et al., 2014, 2021), and P values, which indicate the statistical significance and they are given for indicators associated with all latent variables (Kock, 2021). The collinearity, R^2 and Q^2, and estimating the associations between the constructs through path coefficients β and P values were explored in further details in chapter six. In the next subsection, after highlighting the quantitative data analysis methods, the researcher examined the qualitative data analysis methods.

5.7.4. Qualitative Data Analysis Methods

According to Creswell and Creswell (2017), there are several generic steps that are usually followed in a qualitative data analysis including; transcribing the interviews, extracting a general sense of information to identify the ideas conveyed by the participants, coding the data into categories in which data are organised into chunks, and similar texts and comments are put into the same category and are given a label, and then clustering similar topics and assigning bits of texts from each interview to various topics, and grouping interrelated topics into themes which form the major findings of the qualitative research. Specifically, the researcher conducted a thematic analysis which aims to search for themes or patterns that appear across a data set such as a series of interviews (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022), which were analysed in this study.

Thematic analysis refers to a qualitative approach which explores research data by identifying, analysing, and reporting themes within data that appear significant for clarifying the qualitative richness of a phenomenon (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Further, according to Neuman (2005), a thematic analysis is described as a textual data codification and synthesis technique for uncovering deeper meanings of the texts to improve the interpretations (Cited in Wipulanusat et al., 2019). Particularly, a theme is defined as a consistent integration of repeated patterns of meaning in the information which interprets aspects of the phenomena, defines possible observations, and recognises the findings (Vaismoradi et al., 2013; Bell et at., 2022). Also, Maguire and Delahunt (2017) defined a theme as a pattern that depicts something important or interesting about the data and/or research question. Moreover, Saunders et al. (2019) confirmed that searching for themes or patterns is the essential purpose of thematic analysis. Specifically, the researcher utilised thematic analysis for two main reasons as highlighted in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16. Reasons For Choosing Thematic Analysis

1) Thematic analysis offers a systematic and flexible approach for analysing qualitative data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). • Systematic as it provides an orderly and logical way to analyse qualitative data, meaning that it can be used to analyse small and large qualitative data sets, leading to richer descriptions, explanations and theorising (Saunders et al., 2019). • Flexible as it is not tied to a certain research philosophy and can be used whether researchers are following a deductive, inductive, or abductive approach, and it is fairly straightforward (Saunders et al., 2019).
2) Thematic analysis offers that systematic and flexible approach through six specific steps which will help in realising this study's aims and objectives including; being familiar with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing a report regarding tested propositions (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Saunders et al., 2019; Scroggie et al., 2022).

(Source; Braun and Clarke, 2006; Saunders et al., 2019; Scroggie et al., 2022).

Specifically, the researcher conducted the semi-structured interviews personally with 25 frontline employees in their offices at their travel agents during the period from 20^{th} of December 2021 till 20^{th} of January 2022 as follows. The researcher started by recording the interviews after getting interviewees' permission to facilitate translating and transcribing their answers for analysing the data. According to Saunders et al. (2019) and Bell et al. (2022), this method allowed the researcher to focus on providing an accurate and unbiased record, asking questions and listening to the answers, listening to the interviews more than once, and using direct quotes. Additionally, all interviewees were assured confidentiality and told that their names will not be recognised in the transcripts of the interviews as requested. Moreover, the interviews were conducted in Arabic and the answers given by the frontline employees were translated into English.

Then, to conduct the thematic analysis, NVivo 9 software was employed which was available to the researcher. NVivo 9 software can assist researchers to structure, code, and display summaries of the data, automate searching, facilitate code construction, and compare and create models of what the data represent (Gass and Mackey, 2012; Collis and Hussey, 2014). Particularly, NVivo 9 software was useful for this study for the following reasons; it is specifically developed for mixed methods research, it enables the unstructured qualitative data to be analysed and organised, it can be used for examining various types of research data such as texts and audio data, and it enables the thematic analysis to be undertaken (Alfadhel, 2021).

Accordingly, the thematic analysis's six steps were examined as follows. Firstly, to be familiar with the data, the researcher listened to every interview twice and then transcribed the interviews accurately, copied these transcriptions in a word file (doc.) and imported them into NVivo 9 software so that none of the interviewees' responses are missed (Alfadhel, 2021), and reviewed the transcriptions line by line. During this step, these transcripts were carefully edited to identify irrelevant phrases or concepts which were not related to this study. Further, these transcripts were reviewed without analysis or coding to gain an understanding of the content (Bryman, 2016), to control the quality of the actual process, and to be familiar with the data (Alfadhel, 2021).

Secondly, initial coding was generated. Damayanthi (2019) defined coding as identifying all relevant data within the whole dataset for answering the research questions. Further, Maguire and Delahunt (2017) highlighted that coding reduces lots of data into small chunks of meaning. Moreover, according to Braun and Clarke (2013), a code is a word or brief phrase that describes the essence of why a particular bit of data can be useful. In this study, coding was conducted to examine the content and texts from every transcript, specifically those with similar intentions, values, and meanings. Therefore, the transcribed interviews were arranged into categories which were entered into NVivo 9 software and the researcher coded each segment of data that captured something important or relevant to the research questions. Furthermore, the researcher coded only what was relevant to the study questions and did not code every piece of the transcripts. Particularly, this step encompassed searching for common patterns and interesting features in the collected data by employing the highlighting tool to mark the text using the mouse and pull the highlighted text to the identified node. Nodes provide the storage areas in NVivo for references to coded texts and demonstrate any categories including people, concepts, organisations or places (Bryman, 2016). Therefore, the dominant words and sentences that appeared were coded in the NVivo nodes and sub-nodes with annotations designated for emphasising their importance for later analysis (Alfadhel, 2021).

Thirdly, the coded segments were examined and grouped together to form themes and sub-themes (Wipulanusat et al., 2019). In this step, the researcher emphasised what were this study's themes about, how they would influence the study's objectives, why they were significant in relation to the topic, and how they would clarify the results of the quantitative stage. Fourthly, the researcher reviewed and refined the list of possible themes and sub-themes to understand their meaning and ensure coherence within each theme and distinctness from other themes. Fifthly, the researcher defined and named themes and sub-themes after confirming that there were no more potential themes and sub-themes, highlighting that the process reached theoretical saturation which refers to the point at which collecting more data about a construct produces no new properties, nor generates any further theoretical insights (Elison et al., 2014; Hennink and Kaiser, 2022). Accordingly, four main themes with a total of four sub-themes and 29 codes were resulted from thematically analysing the 25 interviews which were shown in Appendix 5.9.

Finally, findings were extracted and triangulated by using the identified themes to explain the quantitative results in which the themes were supported by quotations extracted from the transcripts (Wipulanusat et al., 2019). Particularly, the interviewees' quotations were included in the analysis for ensuring the interviews' validity and reliability. In the next section, research ethics were emphasised.

5.8. Research Ethics

Several ethical considerations arise when conducting a research study and it is crucial for the researcher to emphasise these considerations as they protect the rights and safety of both the researcher and the research participants (Fistein and Quilligan, 2012; Myers, 2019). Research ethics are defined as respecting morals and values in every step of the research study from both the researcher's and the participants' viewpoints (McNabb, 2013). Also, research ethics highlight adopting an appropriate behaviour concerning the rights of the individuals or groups being studied or affected by a study (Saunders et al., 2019; Bell et al., 2022), and emphasise what is allowed and what is not while conducting a research (Kalof et al., 2008). Generally, the main ethical principles that researchers must ensure involve gaining informed consent, assuring privacy, avoiding harm, and preventing deception (Bryman, 2016).

Essentially, besides the abovementioned ethical considerations and before conducting the quantitative and qualitative data collection of this study, the researcher was required to confirm that the research followed Plymouth University's ethical protocol requirements. Accordingly, an application for the ethical approval of this study (including participation information sheet, consent forms for both questionnaires and interviews, risk assessment, questionnaire and interview questions, and data management plan) was submitted online to the Research Ethics Committee of Plymouth Business School at University of Plymouth on 24th of November 2020 before beginning the pilot study. The application was for the quantitative approach (questionnaire) and the qualitative approach (interview), and it was approved on 2nd of February 2021 (see Appendix 5.10).

Specifically, in this study, research ethics were guaranteed through realising four main ethical principles; (1) gaining informed consent for both questionnaires and interviews, (2) ensuring and protecting privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality of respondents and participants, (3) guaranteeing security of respondents and participants and protecting them from harm, and (4) preventing deception while conducting the research (McNabb, 2013; Bryman, 2016; Myers, 2019). The first principle emphasised gaining informed consent for both the study's questionnaires and interviews, while the second principle highlighted ensuring and protecting the respondents' and participants' privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality. Essentially, to ensure and protect privacy, the researcher should consider the respondents' anonymity and confidentiality issues (Bryman and Bell, 2011). Mainly, anonymity and confidentiality issues are crucial when the participants share information about their workplace (Bell et al., 2022). Due to the nature of this study, frontline employees were emphasised as the research target, and so, their anonymity and confidentiality issues were central to the ethical conduct of this study. Moreover, the third principle showed how the researcher assured the respondents' and participants' security and protected them from harm. Moreover, the fourth principle clarified how the researcher prevented any form of deception while conducting the research. Importantly, the procedures followed by the researcher to realise these four key ethical principles in this study were explored in further details in Appendix 5.11.

5.9. Limitations of The Research Methodology and Suggestions For Future Research

Regarding the study's methodology, sampling limitations exist. For instance, this study's sample was limited to the tourism industry, particularly the Egyptian travel agents, and so, the findings may not be generalised to other sectors/industries. Accordingly, future research should examine the study's relationships further in other sectors/industries to investigate whether the findings of the current study are supported or not. Additionally, only Greater Cairo was chosen as the geographical sampling frame which limited data collection to a great part of Egypt but not all of it. Also, some outdated results regarding travel agents in Egypt may have been found as a result of depending on the latest available edition of the Egyptian travel agents' directory which was issued in 2020 (ETAA, 2020). Therefore, it would be reasonable for future research to use more recent findings from the Egyptian travel agents' directory and think about duplicating the findings in the remaining areas of Egypt for gaining more clarity and credible results.

Moreover, concerning the study's measures, the measures of TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC), ISE, POS, and EIB were developed from several previous studies (Bass and Avolio, 1997, 2000; Avolio and Bass, 2002; Tierney and Farmer, 2002; Dörner, 2012; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990, 1997; Scott and Bruce, 1994). Although these studies have strong validity and reliability and despite the strong construct validity that was realised in this study (explained further in chapter six), some variables' items had low loadings and were omitted from the study's analysis. Accordingly, future research could increase the number of items and examine the constructs in various contexts to gain more robust findings. Furthermore, ISE is still a new concept and its measure that was used in this study was derived from Dörner (2012). Despite the fact that this measure showed a strong validity and reliability in this study (explained further in chapter six), future research needs to investigate the concept of ISE further to gain more understanding about it and try to find out new scales to measure it which could provide more accurate and vigorous findings.

Additionally, regarding the methodological choice, this study employed mixed methods with triangulation via interviews to compensate for the weaknesses of each method (quantitative and qualitative) and increase the sample's response rate (Saunders et al., 2019). However, regarding the quantitative method approach, based on a valid sample of 320 respondents (Response rate = 67.62%) collected by questionnaire surveys, many significant findings have been found in this study (explained further in chapter six). Nevertheless, a larger sample would bring more statistical power and allow for more developed statistical analysis. To do so, future research could utilise multiple data collection methods such as postal questionnaires or e-surveys which might contribute to obtaining a larger response rate. Furthermore, the researcher used variance based partial least square structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM) because this study depended on priori built theories and previously used measurement scales. Consequently, future research could complement PLS-SEM by focusing on covariance based structural equation modelling (CB-SEM) through employing the Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) as it can assist in building attitudinal and behavioural models that reflect complex relationships more accurately than standard multivariate statistics techniques such as PLS-SEM. Finally, concerning the qualitative method approach, this study utilised semi-structured interviews for data collection. Although this method assisted in clarifying the quantitative findings and revealed new themes about this study's relationships (explained further in chapter seven), using focus groups by future research could help in identifying more factors that might impact the relationship between TL and EIB and could validate the findings more. In the next chapter, the quantitative data analysis and results were investigated.

CHAPTER SIX: QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

6.1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to realise the third objective of this study which is quantitatively estimating the relationship between TL and EIB, the mediating role of ISE, and the moderating role of POS in the relationship between TL and EIB, which is done through exploring the results of the quantitative data analysis from the questionnaire surveys of 320 frontline employees working in travel agents in Egypt. In chapter seven, the qualitative data are analysed, and then both data results (quantitative and qualitative) are discussed in chapter eight.

This chapter consists of five sections as follows. Firstly, it begins with an introduction about the aim of this chapter. Secondly, it summerises the respondents' profile including their age, gender, education level, organisational tenure, firm size, and marital status. Thirdly, it highlights how the researcher checks for common method bias and the adequacy of the sample. Fourthly, it explains SEM applied by the researcher to analyse the data including its two steps; a measurement model for evaluating the construct validity and reliability of the model and a structural model for testing and assessing the causal relationships among the variables. Finally, it reports the assessment of hypotheses whether supported or rejected and provides a conclusion of this chapter. In the next section, the respondents' profile is examined.

6.2. Profile of The Respondents

The demographic characteristics of frontline employees working in Category A travel agents including their age, gender, education level, organisational tenure, firm size, and marital status are highlighted in Table 6.1 as follows.

Table 6.1. Demographic Characteristic Profile of The Respondents (N = 320)

Characteristic	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	196	61.3%
Female	124	38.7%
Age		
18 – 29 years	167	52.2%
30 – 39 years	111	34.7%
40 – 49 years	30	9.4%
50 years and more	12	3.7%
Educational Level		
High School and Below	27	8.4%
Bachelor's Degree	274	85.6%
Master's Degree and Above	19	6%

Organisational Tenure or Job Experience		
Less than 5 years	132	41.3%
5 – 9 years	105	32.8%
10 – 14 years	48	15%
15 years and More	35	10.9%
Firm Size (Number of Employees)		
1 – 10	149	46.6%
11 – 20	81	25.3%
21 – 30	51	15.9%
31 – 40	11	3.4%
41 – 50	1	0.3%
51 and More	27	8.5%
Marital Status		
Single	163	50.9%
Married	150	46.9%
Divorced	4	1.3%
Widowed	3	0.9%

From Table 6.1, concerning gender, matching with the studies of Elsetouhi et al. (2018, 2022) and Mkheimer et al. (2022), more than half of the respondents are males (61.3%), while the rest are females (38.7%) which is totally understandable in the Egyptian society. Assaad et al. (2018) and Hendy (2021) declared that in the middle east and north Africa (MENA) region, including Egypt, the participation rates of female labour remain low and stagnant. Also, Hendy (2015) confirmed that the 2011's revolution in Egypt negatively impacted females' position in the labour market in which the female labour force's participation has dropped significantly (Assaad and Krafft, 2015). Additionally, Heyne and Gebel (2016) found that, in comparison to men, it takes much longer time for Egyptian women to secure a first job due to the legal and culturally-generated mobility barriers for young women. Specifically, as cited in Heyne and Gebel (2016), women still face several barriers because of the predominance of traditional Egyptian attitudes, absence of family support, and hiring and mobility restrictions (Spierings et al., 2010). Besides, as cited in Ziada et al. (2021), in Egypt, mainly men may interact with foreigners and tourists, whereas women may not work in tourism and often are confined to the home (Abou Zeid, 2006), and take care of their children and other family members (Spierings et al., 2010). Furthermore, regarding innovation and creativity literature, Mostafa and El-Masry (2008) acknowledged that males have more favourable attitudes toward creativity in comparison to females. Accordingly, the number of males who are working in Egypt is higher in comparison with their females counterparts.

As far as age is concerned, matching with the studies of Elsetouhi et al. (2018, 2022) and Kumar et al. (2019), most participants fall into two age groups; namely, 18 – 29 (52.2%) and

30 – 39 (34.7%). This is expected in the Egyptian tourism industry. Probable causes for this can be that the age group of 18 – 29 is attractive for travel agents as this group usually includes fresh graduates who are excited to work and earn money, and so, they will channel their enthusiasm to their clients, in which according to Ulandssekretariatet (2020), the proportion of employed youth (15 – 24) in Egypt has reached 73% in 2017, and by 2020, this proportion has increased even more. The same for the age group of 30 – 39 who has more experience and passion than the previous group, and thus, this group will keep attracting new clients and at the same time will train its younger age groups to follow its lead (Ulandssekretariatet, 2020). Furthermore, because of the devastating impact of COVID-19, most old employees were either laid off or they just quit because they were afraid of getting infected and preferred to stay at home (Radwan and Radwan, 2017; Bartik et al., 2020). Specifically, according to Jasmine (2020), due to COVID-19, firms reduced employees' salaries, had staff laid off, and applied work from home. Moreover, many small businesses that were impacted by COVID-19 have decided to lay off their employees (Bartik et al., 2020). Also, permanent employees (for instance, old employees) were replaced with part-time employees (Radwan and Radwan, 2017). Additionally, in a time of crisis, random layoff procedure was the only solution in the Egyptian tourism industry as managers believed that it would cut costs and employees suffered from aggressive layoffs and losing rights (Atia, 2014). Further, old employees have a low presence in their work because their retirement age ranges from 50 (early optional retirement) to 60 (retirement age), in which Yusuke (2021) confirmed that in January 2020, the pension reform law was imposed in Egypt and as a result of this reform law, the retirement age will steadily increase from 60 to 65 years old. That is why there is only 30 respondents (9.4%) who have an age distribution of 40-49 years and 12 respondents (3.7%) who have an age distribution of 50 years and more. The younger age groups (18 – 29) and (30 – 39) are expected to continue working because earning money is necessary for survival despite the risk of getting infected from COVID-19.

Moreover, concerning educational level, matching with the studies of Elsetouhi et al. (2018, 2022), most of the respondents have a bachelor's degree (274 respondents, 85.6%). This is expected because according to Daif and Elsayed (2019), most employees in travel agents in Egypt have a bachelor's degree. Also, Baum and Kokkranikal (2004) confirmed that in the tourism and hospitality industry, staff should have academic qualifications such as a diploma or a higher degree. Accordingly, the bachelor's degree group represents 85.6% of the respondents in comparison with 27 respondents (8.4%) who have a degree of 'high school and below' and 19 respondents (6%) who have a master's degree and above.

Additionally, regarding job experience, since most of the respondents who are working in travel agents in Egypt are fresh graduates and have a bachelor's degree, 41.3% of them (132 respondents) have a job experience of less than 5 years demonstrating the highest percentage, which is consistent with the studies of Elsetouhi et al. (2018, 2022), followed by the job experience of 5 – 9 years (105 respondents, 32.8%). Also, since there are few old respondents working, only 15% (48 respondents) have a job experience of 10 – 14 years, whereas 10.9% (35 respondents) have a job experience of 15 years and more highlighting the least percentage.

Furthermore, with regard to firm size, travel agents represent a typical category of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) (Abou-Shouk and Eraqi, 2015), which are classified by the number of employees (Abou-Shouk, 2012). Further, Ahmed and Kim (2020) declared that SMEs are considered as a significant source of Egypt's economic growth. Also, in Egypt, SMEs signify the greatest share of the productive units of the Egyptian economy and are defined as those having 10 – 49 and 50 – 99 workers, respectively (Zaied, 2012). Accordingly, as represented in Table 6.1 and matching with the study of Elsetouhi et al. (2018), most of the travel agents visited by the researcher are small sized (include no more than 50 employees) and few are medium sized (include more than 50 employees). Specifically, 292 respondents confirmed that they are working in small sized travel agents as follows; 149 respondents highlighted that their firm size includes only 1 – 10 employees, emphasising the highest percentage (46.6%), followed by a size of 11 – 20 (81 respondents, 25.3%), a size of 21 – 30 (51 respondents, 15.9%), and a size of 31 – 40 (11 respondents, 3.4%). On the other hand, 28 respondents showed that they work in medium sized travel agents as follows; only one person said that his/her firm size includes 41 – 50 employees, representing the least percentage (0.3%), while 27 respondents confirmed that their firm size contain 51 employees and more (8.5%).

Finally, regarding marital status, Arab countries, including Egypt, experience later ages at marriage and growing numbers of men and women who stay unmarried till middle age or later (Singerman and Ibrahim, 2001). Also, Arab News (2021) declared that the number of couples getting married in Egypt has continued to decrease because the costs of marriage are high and the couples do not have enough financial security to marry. Additionally, in Egypt, the problem of delayed marriage is related to the harsh labour market conditions and high marriage costs faced by young people, especially men, and also Egyptian women's employment experiences may impact marriage timing (Salem, 2016). Moreover, for Egyptian men, paying high costs to get married and being the main breadwinners in a new union put a huge burden on them, causing them to postpone marriage and stay single (Salem, 2016). Consequently, as shown in Table 6.1, matching with the study of Mkheimer et al. (2022), more than half of the respondents (163 respondents, 50.9%) are single, who are probably represented by the respondents aged 18 – 29 years, while on the other hand, 150 respondents are married (46.9%), which is quite close to the other half of the respondents and can be demonstrated by the respondents aged 30 years and older. For men, being employed and having a public sector job are essential economic requirements for marriage (Assaad et al., 2021). Specifically, Egyptian men with good labour market experiences attract a spouse and marry faster than others because a good labour market position facilitates marriage by signalling that Egyptian men can finance a family and they look more attractive to their potential brides (Salem, 2016). Similarly, once securing a good job, Egyptian men become both more attractive marriage partners and more financially capable of gathering the necessary resources to marry (Assaad et al., 2021). Lastly, only 4 respondents are divorced (1.3%), whereas 3 respondents are widowed (0.9%). In the next section, descriptive statistics are presented.

6.3. Descriptive Statistics

As previously explained in chapter five (Section 5.5.7.1), before evaluating the measurement model, it is crucial to describe the basic characteristics of the data and assess their quality. Therefore, the descriptive statistics of the data including the mean, standard deviation, skewness (asymmetry), and kurtosis (peakedness) of each item are clarified in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2. Descriptive Statistics (N = 320)

Items	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
1) My leader acts in ways that build others' respect for me.	4.2125	0.82961	-0.945	0.136	0.905	0.272
2) My leader instils pride in me when associated with others.	4.0625	0.78535	-0.462	0.136	-0.349	0.272
3) My leader talks about my most important values and beliefs.	3.8844	0.86144	-0.486	0.136	0.083	0.272
4) My leader convinces me to go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	4.1750	0.88915	-1.185	0.136	1.531	0.272
5) My leader considers moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	4.0875	0.90894	-1.031	0.136	1.145	0.272
6) My leader emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	4.1313	0.78082	-0.830	0.136	1.041	0.272
7) My leader displays a sense of power and confidence.	4.1688	0.80142	-0.792	0.136	0.239	0.272
8) My leader talks optimistically about the future.	3.9156	0.96445	-0.758	0.136	0.329	0.272
9) My leader talks enthusiastically about what needs to be established.	4.1688	0.82456	-0.897	0.136	0.926	0.272
10) My leader articulates a compelling vision of the future.	3.9469	0.93369	-0.754	0.136	0.321	0.272

11) My leader expresses confidence through his/her behaviours that goals will be achieved.	3.9188	0.88507	-0.605	0.136	0.256	0.272
12) My leader develops a team attitude and spirit among members of the staff.	3.8719	1.01671	-0.677	0.136	-0.102	0.272
13) My leader re-examines the critical assumptions and questions whether they are appropriate.	3.9031	0.88880	-0.699	0.136	0.537	0.272
14) My leader gets others to look at problems from many different angles.	3.7688	1.01538	-0.717	0.136	0.204	0.272
15) My leader suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	3.8406	0.99351	-0.737	0.136	0.266	0.272
16) My leader seeks different perspective when solving problems.	3.8406	0.95489	-0.720	0.136	0.321	0.272
17) My leader encourages me to rethink ideas that have never been questioned before.	3.6313	0.95426	-0.467	0.136	-0.080	0.272
18) My leader spends time coaching, teaching, and mentoring his/her followers.	3.3656	1.17206	-0.390	0.136	-0.701	0.272
19) My leader treats others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group.	3.5281	1.07369	-0.349	0.136	-0.467	0.272
20) My leader considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.	3.8344	0.95711	-0.807	0.136	0.611	0.272
21) My leader helps others to develop their strengths.	3.8344	0.97012	-0.824	0.136	0.626	0.272
22) I find out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product ideas.	4.0969	0.86012	-0.693	0.136	0.216	0.272
23) I generate creative ideas.	4.0531	0.79988	-0.503	0.136	-0.103	0.272
24) I promote and champion ideas to others.	4.0375	0.81819	-0.519	0.136	0.034	0.272
25) I investigate and secure funds needed to implement new ideas.	2.7938	1.32541	0.043	0.136	-1.115	0.272
26) I develop adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas.	3.6625	0.99772	-0.636	0.136	0.358	0.272
27) I am innovative.	3.8250	0.87494	-0.330	0.136	-0.064	0.272
28) I feel that I am good at generating novel ideas.	4.0938	0.78222	-0.759	0.136	1.091	0.272
29) I have confidence in my ability to solve problems creatively.	4.0688	0.74801	-0.655	0.136	0.959	0.272
30) I have a gift for further developing the ideas of others.	4.0188	0.79947	-0.626	0.136	0.500	0.272
31) I have a gift for making others enthusiastic for new ideas.	4.0656	0.80286	-0.814	0.136	1.283	0.272
32) I have confidence in my ability to convince others of the benefit of new ideas.	4.1719	0.77489	-0.877	0.136	1.363	0.272
33) I have the social contacts needed to find supporters for realising new ideas.	3.6875	1.02439	-0.647	0.136	0.137	0.272
34) I have confidence in my ability to implement new methods at work.	4.0281	0.76101	-0.734	0.136	1.121	0.272

35) I have confidence in my ability to implement new products at work.	4.0500	0.75367	-0.481	0.136	0.182	0.272
36) I feel that I am good at adopting new methods at work.	4.0688	0.74801	-0.565	0.136	0.681	0.272
37) I feel that I am good at adopting new products at work.	4.0313	0.79119	-0.629	0.136	0.747	0.272
38) My travel agent cares about my opinions.	3.7719	0.99898	-0.631	0.136	0.143	0.272
39) My travel agent cares about my well-being.	3.4250	1.13673	-0.438	0.136	-0.297	0.272
40) My travel agent considers my goals and values.	3.5344	1.06176	-0.517	0.136	-0.071	0.272
41) Help is available from my travel agent when I have a problem.	3.7406	1.04067	-0.606	0.136	-0.083	0.272
42) My travel agent will forgive an honest mistake on my part.	3.5094	1.18238	-0.669	0.136	-0.224	0.272
43) If given the opportunity, my travel agent will not take advantage of me.	3.7250	1.15262	-0.844	0.136	0.069	0.272
44) My travel agent shows concern for me.	3.7906	0.99996	-0.819	0.136	0.598	0.272
45) My travel agent is willing to help me if I need a special favour.	3.9531	1.00827	-1.051	0.136	1.029	0.272

(Note: SD; Standard Deviation, SE; Standard Error).

From the table, the mean ranges from (3.36) to (4.21) for TL, from (2.79) to (4.09) for EIB, from (3.68) to (4.17) for ISE, and from (3.42) to (3.95) for POS. On the other hand, standard deviation ranges from (0.78) to (1.17) for TL, from (0.79) to (1.32) for EIB, from (0.74) to (1.02) for ISE, and from (0.99) to (1.18) for POS. Further, the absolute values of skewness and kurtosis for the four constructs range from (-1.18) to (1.53) which are within the range of (-2 to +2) (Field, 2017). Accordingly, the normality of the data in this study is accepted. In the next section, common method bias is analysed.

6.4. Common Method Bias (CMB)

In this study, the Harman's single factor test is extracted based on principal component analysis (PCA) which is the most commonly employed approach in factor analysis (Field, 2017). PCA emphasises the statistical process employed to highlight variation for which principal data components are estimated and reveal robust patterns in the dataset which will help in determining whether the statements demonstrate identifiable factors relating to the study constructs (Shrestha, 2021). Accordingly, the Harman's single factor test reveals that the single factor signifies 27.72% of the variance which is less than 50%, emphasising that CMB is not a major issue in this study (See Appendix 6.1). From another point, in this study, the researcher utilises Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of Sphericity to test the adequacy of the sample size and evaluate the suitability of data for factor analysis or assess the factorability of the data (Shrestha, 2021) as shown in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3. KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		**0.893**
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	**7984.546**
	Df	**990**
	Sig.	**0.000**

(**Note:** Df: Degrees of Freedom)

Field (2017) declared that the value of KMO measure should be above 0.50 and the results show that the value is 0.893 which is above 0.50, indicating a high sampling adequacy. Also, Bartlett's test of Sphericity highlights that the chi-squared value is 7984.546 with 990 df ($p< 0.01$) (Hair et al., 2010), supporting the validity of the variables and highlighting that all variables are uncorrelated. In the next section, the researcher starts the PLS-SEM analysis and assesses the measurement model and the structural model.

6.5. PLS-SEM Analysis (Confirmatory Factor Analysis)

As demonstrated earlier in chapter five (research methodology), this study adopts PLS-SEM which employs a measurement model and a structural model for evaluating the relationships between factors (Hair et al., 2010, 2021). The next section commences with analysing the measurement model.

6.5.1. Measurement Model Analysis

As clarified in chapter five, analysing the measurement model is the first stage of evaluating the results in PLS-SEM in which the quality of measurements is examined before assessing the associations between constructs of the structural model (Sarstedt et al., 2014, 2021). Thus, drawing on Ringle et al. (2012) and following the PLS-SEM evaluation criteria for reflective models (see Figure 5.5) (Sarstedt et al., 2014, 2021), for evaluating the measurement model, the researcher utilises indicator loadings for estimating indicator/individual item reliability, employs Cronbach's alpha (α) and composite reliability (CR) for estimating internal consistency reliability, analyses the AVE for evaluating convergent validity, and checks items'/indicators' cross-loadings and adopts the Fornell – Larcker criterion for measuring discriminant validity. The next section starts by exploring the indicator/individual item reliability.

6.5.1.1. Reliability Assessment – Indicator/Individual Item Reliability

Indicator/Individual item reliability assesses the accuracy of indicator variables in measuring their constructs individually (Hair et al., 2012, 2021). In this study, the researcher assesses the indicator/individual item reliability by employing combined loadings and cross loadings as clarified in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4. Combined Loading and Cross Loading

	II.C	IM	IS	IC	EIB	POS	ISE	SE	P – VALUE
II.C.1	(0.835)	0.063	-0.044	0.068	0.135	-0.072	-0.117	0.048	<0.001
II.C.2	(0.746)	-0.189	-0.146	0.072	-0.058	0.028	0.178	0.048	<0.001
II.C.3	(0.757)	-0.055	-0.080	-0.055	-0.147	0.054	0.187	0.048	<0.001
II.C.5	(0.704)	0.089	0.080	-0.050	0.057	0.049	-0.143	0.048	<0.001
II.C.6	(0.665)	0.100	0.225	-0.050	0.002	-0.054	-0.113	0.048	<0.001
IM.1	0.081	(0.820)	-0.011	-0.010	-0.031	-0.014	0.002	0.048	<0.001
IM.2	0.060	(0.819)	-0.076	-0.036	0.017	-0.072	0.040	0.048	<0.001
IM.3	-0.002	(0.845)	-0.071	0.040	0.031	0.071	-0.089	0.048	<0.001
IM.4	-0.149	(0.763)	0.172	0.005	-0.019	0.014	0.054	0.048	<0.001
IS.1	0.088	0.063	(0.743)	0.075	0.038	-0.154	-0.026	0.048	<0.001
IS.2	-0.014	-0.092	(0.847)	-0.062	0.033	0.063	0.057	0.048	<0.001
IS.3	-0.018	0.035	(0.870)	-0.038	-0.022	0.007	-0.002	0.048	<0.001
IS.4	-0.046	0.000	(0.823)	0.036	-0.046	0.067	-0.033	0.048	<0.001
IC.1	-0.010	0.016	0.184	(0.757)	-0.053	-0.087	-0.047	0.048	<0.001
IC.2	0.039	-0.277	0.055	(0.792)	-0.080	0.065	0.119	0.048	<0.001
IC.3	-0.041	0.163	-0.136	(0.823)	0.000	-0.019	-0.031	0.048	<0.001
IC.4	0.013	0.092	-0.089	(0.801)	0.129	0.038	-0.042	0.048	<0.001
EIB.1	0.114	0.052	-0.046	-0.029	(0.892)	-0.022	-0.081	0.048	<0.001
EIB.2	0.011	-0.037	0.111	-0.046	(0.904)	-0.097	0.010	0.048	<0.001
EIB.3	-0.138	-0.016	-0.073	0.083	(0.812)	0.131	0.078	0.048	<0.001
POS.2	-0.041	0.108	0.130	-0.001	-0.084	(0.785)	-0.009	0.048	<0.001
POS.3	-0.043	0.060	0.160	-0.048	-0.050	(0.833)	-0.094	0.048	<0.001
POS.4	-0.051	0.088	-0.004	-0.069	0.096	(0.839)	-0.071	0.048	<0.001
POS.6	-0.083	-0.041	-0.006	-0.032	0.029	(0.764)	0.033	0.048	<0.001
POS.7	0.160	-0.087	-0.192	0.025	0.004	(0.837)	0.129	0.048	<0.001
POS.8	0.050	-0.131	-0.085	0.128	0.001	(0.795)	0.015	0.048	<0.001
ISE.2	-0.014	0.159	-0.047	-0.005	-0.101	-0.020	(0.669)	0.048	<0.001
ISE.3	-0.104	0.021	-0.006	0.048	-0.152	0.098	(0.663)	0.048	<0.001
ISE.4	-0.155	0.079	0.232	0.040	-0.056	-0.065	(0.645)	0.048	<0.001
ISE.7	0.084	-0.048	-0.071	-0.022	0.211	-0.053	(0.738)	0.048	<0.001
ISE.8	0.088	-0.007	-0.105	-0.028	0.118	-0.060	(0.784)	0.048	<0.001
ISE.9	0.058	-0.130	-0.037	-0.009	0.020	0.068	(0.791)	0.048	<0.001
ISE.10	0.001	-0.036	0.065	-0.012	-0.078	0.030	(0.772)	0.048	<0.001

Note: SE; Standard Error and P values are for loadings.
Note: P values < 0.05 are desirable for reflective indicators.

The indicators' loadings are an un-rotated structure matrix that includes Pearson relationships between measurement items and latent variables which evaluate how each item explains more variance than the error of the associated latent variable (Hair et al., 2012, 2021). Accordingly, reliability measures estimate the extent of individual differences between scores across groups of respondents (Becker et al., 2012). On the other hand, the cross-loadings are from a rotated pattern matrix and they encompass all the observed items which are loaded on the stated latent variables (Hair et al., 2012, 2021). Kock (2013) acknowledged that the cross-loadings values range between –1 and +1. Moreover, Hair et al. (2012, 2021) recommended that the loadings must be 0.50 or above and P-values that are associated with the loadings should be lower than 0.05. Additionally, Hair et al. (2021) declared that items with loadings higher than 0.70 are retained, while items with loadings less than 0.40 are omitted.

Consequently, applying this rule to the study, the researcher has omitted 12 items that have weak loadings from the model; II.C.4, II.C.7, IM.5, IS.5, EIB.4, EIB.5, EIB.6, POS.1, POS.5, ISE.1, ISE.5, and ISE.6, leaving the model with 33 items which will be employed in the following analyses without the deleted 12 items. Accordingly, Table 6.4 shows that all indicators' loadings for the remaining 33 items are higher than 0.50. Also, the table shows that the loadings and cross-loadings are extracted from a pattern matrix (rotated) and the values reveal that the load of the factor loadings scores higher on their theoretical recognised latent variable in comparison to other latent variables. Additionally, all items' P – values are below 0.05 ($p<0.001$), confirming that the measurement items are fulfilled based on the criteria and they have individual item reliability. In the next section, internal consistency reliability is measured.

6.5.1.2. Reliability Assessment – Internal Consistency Reliability

Internal consistency reliability estimates the consistency of the indicators forming the scale, highlighting that the respondents' scores on any certain indicator is likely to be associated with their scores on the other indicators (Bryman, 2016). Moreover, Hair et al. (2012, 2021) declared that internal consistency reliability measures the consistency of indicator variables in measuring their constructs jointly. Colton and Covert (2007) confirmed that evaluating internal consistency reliability assists in comparing results across and between items within a single instrument and enables researchers to presume that the instrument's scores are consistent, dependable, and more inclined to be generalised to other samples of behaviours (Hagan, 2014). In this study, the researcher employs Cronbach's alpha (α) and composite reliability (CR) for measuring the internal consistency reliability as shown in Table 6.5.

Table 6.5. Internal Consistency Reliability Assessment

Latent Variables	II.C	IM	IS	IC	EIB	POS	ISE
Cronbach's Alpha (α) Coefficients							
Values	0.796	0.828	0.839	0.804	0.839	0.894	0.849
Composite Reliability (CR) Coefficients							
Values	0.860	0.886	0.893	0.872	0.904	0.919	0.885

Conventionally, Hair et al. (2021) stated that Cronbach's alpha (α) coefficient is the best measure used for estimating scale reliability. However, Cronbach's alpha acts as a moderate measure of internal consistency reliability by presuming equal loadings for all items, and so, in SEM, an additional internal consistency reliability measure of composite reliability (CR) is used (Raykov, 2007; Hair et al., 2021). CR measures the relevance of participants' responses in tackling the construct (Hair et al., 2014), and shows how the scale is impacted by errors (Field, 2017). DeVaus (2002) stressed that in order to realise internal consistency reliability, Cronbach's alpha and CR should be at least 0.7, meaning that 70% of the variance associated with the items is reliable. Accordingly, In Table 6.5, coefficients of Cronbach's alpha and CR are greater than 0.70, proving the internal consistency reliability for this measure. In the next section, convergent validity is analysed.

6.5.1.3. Validity Assessment – Convergent Validity

After assessing scale reliability, the second step is estimating the validity of measures as validity cannot exist without reliability (Kimberlin and Winterstein, 2008; Hair et al., 2021). As previously mentioned in the chapter five, convergent validity signifies the extent to which there is a strong association between the construct's indicators (Ketchen et al., 2006), and is measured by employing average variance extracted (AVE) which refers to the overall amount of variance located in the indicators which are accounted for a construct (Hair et al., 2010, 2021) (See Table 6.6).

Table 6.6. Average Variances Extracted

Latent Variables	II.C	IM	IS	IC	EIB	POS	ISE
Values	0.553	0.660	0.676	0.630	0.758	0.655	0.526

In this study, since all measurements are reflective, a construct must account for a certain level of its indicators' variance compared to errors (Hair et al., 2010, 2021). Dalgaard (2008) concluded that for achieving a sufficient convergent validity, AVE should be greater than 0.50 at the construct level, emphasising that for a construct to be a valid reflective measure, it should clarify at least 50% on average of its indicators' variance. Otherwise, the error levels of the construct's indicators will be higher than their variance, weakening validity (Sarstedt et al., 2014, 2021; Hair et al., 2021). This study reveals that the values of AVE for all the constructs are greater than 0.50, and so, this measure is consistent with the rule of convergent validity. In the next section, discriminant validity is measured.

6.5.1.4. Validity Assessment – Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity, as previously examined in chapter five, refers to the degree of difference between the constructs and other related constructs (Hair et al., 2010, 2021), and it emerges when there is a weak relationship among the constructs (Colton and Covert, 2007). Further, Hair et al. (2012) acknowledged that there are two approaches for measuring discriminant validity; items'/indicators' cross-loadings and the Fornell-Larcker criterion. Items'/indicators' cross-loadings estimate validity at the indicators' level, while Fornell-Larcker criterion evaluates validity at the construct's level (Hair et al., 2012).

Particularly, the items'/indicators' cross-loadings approach emphasises that indicators should load highest with their associated construct compared to other constructs, which has been confirmed (see section 6.5.1.1). On the other hand, regarding the Fornell-Larcker criterion, discriminant validity is assessed by the AVE's square root which must be higher than the correlations among the constructs, meaning that each construct's AVE should be higher than its shared correlation with other constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2012). In other words, each construct should share higher variance with its indicators than with other constructs' indicators. Table 6.7 shows the measurement of discriminant validity.

Table 6.7. Factor Correlation Matrix with Square Roots of AVE

	Mean	SD	II.C	IM	IS	IC	EIB	POS	ISE
II.C	4.0756	0.61855	(0.744)	0.438	0.441	0.458	0.329	0.456	0.384
IM	3.9875	0.73285	0.438	(0.812)	0.526	0.455	0.298	0.445	0.390
IS	3.8383	0.79269	0.441	0.526	(0.822)	0.556	0.307	0.465	0.283
IC	3.6406	0.82700	0.458	0.455	0.556	(0.794)	0.310	0.543	0.292
EIB	4.0625	0.71865	0.329	0.298	0.307	0.310	(0.871)	0.250	0.433
POS	3.6948	0.86179	0.456	0.445	0.465	0.543	0.250	(0.809)	0.314
ISE	4.0473	0.55857	0.384	0.390	0.283	0.292	0.433	0.314	(0.726)

Note: AVE's square roots are shown in diagonal
* P value < 0.001
* SD: Standard Deviation

Through applying the Fornell-Larcker criterion, it is evident from Table 6.7 that the square root of AVE of each construct is higher than its highest correlation with any other construct (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Additionally, there are significant correlations ($P < 0.01$) between the constructs by the correlation matrix. Accordingly, all constructs in this study have discriminant validity. After confirming that the measurement model's evaluation is satisfactory and the measures' quality is acceptable, the second stage is conducting the structural model analysis in the next section.

6.5.2. Structural Model Analysis

The structural model with latent variables, as previously mentioned in chapter five, emphasises the concepts and theories behind the path model (Sarstedt et al., 2014, 2021), and so, it is crucial to evaluate how strong and significant the hypothesised relationships are. Following the PLS-SEM evaluation criteria for structural models (see Figure 5.5), the researcher examines collinearity, predictive relevance ($R^2$and Q^2), and significance relevance of path coefficients by determining how theories fit reality concerning the path model.

However, before examining these evaluation criteria, the researcher estimates the overall fit of the model fit indices through employing the following three measures; Average Path Coefficient (APC); Average R-squared (ARS) and Average Variance Inflation Factor (AVIF) (see Table 6.8).

Table 6.8. Model Fit Indices

Fit Measure	Actual Value	P Values	Accepted Fit
APC	0.095	P=0.012	P<0.05
ARS	0.279	P<0.001	P<0.05
AVIF	1.437	-----------	Good if AVIF < 5

General model elements:
Algorithm used in the analysis: **Warp3 PLS regression**
Resampling method used in the analysis: **Stable 3**
Number of data resamples used: **100**
Number of cases (rows) in model data: **320**
Number of latent variables in model: **13**
Number of indicators used in model: **39**
Number of iterations to obtain estimates: **6**
Range restriction variable type: **None**
Range restriction variable: **None**
Range restriction variable min value: **0.000**

According to Kock (2021), APC and ARS are significant if ($P< 0.05$) and the value of AVIF should be below 5. Accordingly, Table 6.8 indicates that these measures are in the range of the fitting model for the first order model and, so, this is a good fit model. In the next section, the researcher evaluates collinearity.

6.5.2.1. Collinearity Evaluation

Exploring the collinearity between variables is essential prior to examining the associations' strength and significance between variables as Sarstedt et al. (2014, 2021) stressed that if collinearity exists between two variables, then these variables are highly correlated, and hence, the estimation of path coefficient β and P values will be biased. Essentially, the first step in investigating the collinearity between variables is identifying each set of predictor variables. Regarding this study's structural model, II.C, IM, IS, and IC are predictors of both EIB and ISE. Additionally, both ISE and POS are predictors of EIB. For measuring collinearity, Warp PLS employs full collinearity Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) as highlighted in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9. Full Collinearity VIF

Variables	**II.C**	**IM**	**IS**	**IC**	**EIB**	**POS**	**ISE**
VIFs	1.815	1.811	2.006	2.034	1.370	1.741	1.515

VIFs are used to measure overall collinearity for all latent variables in a model and are estimated based on a full collinearity test which helps in identifying vertical and lateral collinearity (Kock, 2021). Vertical or classic collinearity is a predictor-predictor latent variable collinearity in individual latent variable blocks, whereas lateral collinearity is a predictor-criterion latent variable collinearity which can result in particularly misleading findings (Kock and Lynn, 2012). Full collinearity VIFs allow for simultaneously assessing both vertical and lateral collinearity in a SEM model and can also be used for measuring CMB and discriminant validity (Kock, 2021). Specifically, Hair et al. (2021) conditioned that the value of each predictor construct's tolerance (VIF) should be higher than 0.20 and less than 5. Accordingly, Table 6.9 reveals that all VIF values are within the threshold of 5.0>VIF>0.20, and so, there is no collinearity among all predictors' variables in the model. In the next section, predictive relevance (R^2 and Q^2) is examined.

6.5.2.2. Predictive Relevance or Validity (R^2 and Q^2)

Kock (2021) confirmed that the Q-squared coefficients (Q^2) and R-squared coefficients (R^2) are both measures that are calculated only for endogenous variable(s) [in this study, ISE (mediator) and EIB (dependent variable)]. Specifically, Q^2 is employed for measuring the predictive validity or relevance of the model's endogenous latent variables (Kock, 2015, 2021), whereas R^2, which is called the coefficient of determination, highlights the percentage of the variance in the endogenous latent variable which is explained by the latent variables that are hypothesised to impact it (Kock, 2021). In other words, each endogenous variable has R^2 value that signifies how well and accurately it is explained by its antecedent(s) (Sarstedt et al., 2021).

Further, Q^2 is sometimes demonstrated as a resampling equivalent of R^2 and it is often similar in value to that measure (Kock, 2021). Essentially, for obtaining an acceptable predictive validity, the value of Q^2 should be greater than zero, while a Q^2 value of less than zero indicates that the model is poor in predictive validity (Hair et al., 2010, 2021). Additionally, the higher the R^2, the better the explanatory power of the predictors of the latent variable(s) in the model in explaining the endogenous latent variable(s) (Kock, 2021). Q^2 and R^2 values are highlighted in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10. Q-squared Coefficients' and R-Squared Coefficients' Assessment

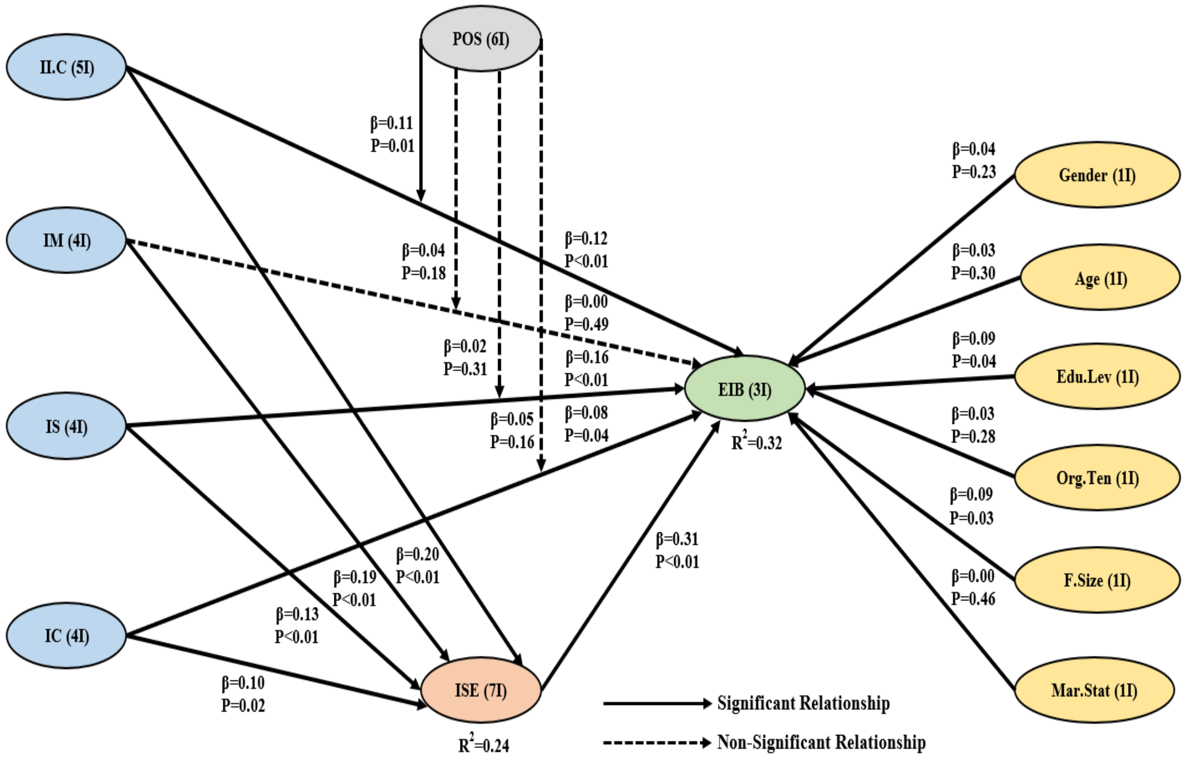
Variables	EIB	ISE
Q^2 coefficients	0.328	0.238
R^2 coefficients	0.322	0.236

Table 6.10 shows that Q^2 values for ISE and EIB are greater than zero, indicating an acceptable predictive validity or relevance. Also, R^2 value for EIB is 0.322, emphasising that the latent variables explain EIB by 32%, while R^2 value for ISE is 0.236, suggesting that it is being explained by the latent variables by approximately 24%. In the next section, the significance and relevance path coefficients of the structural relationships are evaluated.

6.5.2.3. Assessing The Structural Relationships Between Latent Variables

The structural model consists of the associations between variables, reflecting the proposed hypotheses in this study (see chapter four; conceptual framework). Two essential assessments evaluate the relationships between constructs; path coefficients β and P values (Hair et al., 2021). According to Sarstedt et al. (2014, 2021) and Kock (2021), path coefficients β signify the inner model quality and are labeled as Beta coefficients in PLS-SEM analysis. On the other hand, P values are calculated to determine the statistical significance and are provided for the indicators associated with all latent variables (Kock, 2021). Particularly, P values represent the validation parameters of a confirmatory factor analysis (SEM) (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004) as they result from testing a model in which the associations between the latent variables and their indicators are identified in advance (Kock, 2021). Figure 6.1 shows the structural model highlighting the associations between the latent variables and their assigned path coefficients β and P values.

Figure 6.1. The Structural Model



Moreover, in this study, effect sizes (f^2) are utilised for assessing the degree to which the independent latent variable(s) impact the dependent latent variable(s) (Cohen, 1988, 1992). Effect sizes are significant as they help in estimating the strength of empirically identified relationships (Lovakov and Agadullina, 2021). The researcher employs the following formula for calculating the effect size for each path coefficient (Cohen, 1988, 1992).

$$f^2 = (R^2 \text{ included} - R^2 \text{ excluded}) / (1 - R^2 \text{ included}).$$

Particularly, the importance of the relationships between the latent variables is assessed through employing the most widely used effect sizes' thresholds of 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35, representing small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively, in which any effect size's coefficient that is below 0.02 is considered too small or weak to be significant (Cohen, 1988, 1992; Lovakov and Agadullina, 2021). In the following sections, the researcher examines the impact of the direct relationships, the mediating impact, and the moderating impact including their path coefficients β, P values, and effect sizes.

Examining The Direct Associations Between Latent Variables

The path coefficients β, P values, and effect sizes of the direct relationships between the variables are shown in Table 6.11. Also, the path coefficients β and P values of control variables are included.

Table 6.11. β Coefficients, P values, and Effect Sizes of The Direct Relationships Between Variables

Hypotheses	Relationships	Path Coefficients	P Values	Results	Effect Sizes (f^2)	Description of Effect Sizes
Control Variables						
	Gender ⟶ EIB	-0.036	0.230	----------	----------	----------
	Age ⟶ EIB	0.026	0.295	----------	----------	----------
	Edu.Lev ⟶ EIB	-0.086	0.038	----------	----------	----------
	Org.Ten ⟶ EIB	0.028	0.280	----------	----------	----------
	F.Size ⟶ EIB	0.092	0.028	----------	----------	----------
	Mar.Stat ⟶ EIB	-0.004	0.463	----------	----------	----------
Direct effects						
H1a	II.C ⟶ EIB	0.117	0.008	Supported	0.041	Small (Weak)
H1b	IM ⟶ EIB	0.002	0.487	Rejected	0.000	Non-Significant
H1c	IS ⟶ EIB	0.163	<0.001	Supported	0.060	Small (Weak)
H1d	IC ⟶ EIB	0.083	0.043	Supported	0.028	Small (Weak)
H2	ISE ⟶ EIB	0.310	<0.001	Supported	0.138	Approx.Medium
H3a	II.C ⟶ ISE	0.205	<0.001	Supported	0.079	Small (Weak)
H3b	IM ⟶ ISE	0.195	<0.001	Supported	0.076	Small (Weak)
H3c	IS ⟶ ISE	0.131	0.003	Supported	0.047	Small (Weak)
H3d	IC ⟶ ISE	0.104	0.016	Supported	0.034	Small (Weak)

Table 6.11 shows that most of the direct associations between variables are supported except for H1b; the association between IM and EIB (β = 0.002, P = 0.487, and a non-significant effect size of 0.000), and so H1b is rejected. Further, despite most of the direct associations are supported, most of their effect sizes are small (weak) except for H2; the relationship between ISE and EIB in which its effect size is approximately medium (f^2 = 0.138). In the next section, the mediating impact of ISE is explored.

Exploring The Mediating Impact of ISE

The path coefficients β, P values, and effect sizes of the mediating impact of ISE in the relationship between TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) and EIB are clarified in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12. β Coefficients, P values, and Effect Sizes of The Mediating Impact of ISE

Hypotheses	Relationships	Path Coefficients	P Values	Results	Effect Sizes (f^2)	Description of Effect Sizes
Mediating Effect of ISE						
H4a	II.C → ISE → EIB	0.063	0.032	Supported	0.022	Small (Weak)
H4b	IM → ISE → EIB	0.060	0.038	Supported	0.018	Small (Weak)
H4c	IS → ISE → EIB	0.040	0.118	Rejected	0.015	Non-Significant
H4d	IC → ISE → EIB	0.032	0.172	Rejected	0.011	Non-Significant

After including the whole structural model as specified in Figure 6.1, the results indicate that the mediating impact of ISE in the association between II.C and EIB is significant (β = 0.063, P = 0.032, with a small (weak) effect size of 0.022), supporting H4a. Similarly, the mediating impact of ISE in the relationship between IM and EIB is significant (β = 0.060, P = 0.038, with a small (weak) effect size of 0.018), supporting H4b. Interestingly, when ISE is introduced as a mediator, the direct association between II.C and EIB remains significant (β = 0.117, P = 0.008), indicating that ISE is a partial mediator in the relationship between II.C and EIB, whereas the direct relationship between IM and EIB becomes non-significant (β = 0.002, P = 0.487), suggesting that ISE is a full mediator in the association between IM and EIB (see the section of examining the direct associations between latent variables**)**. On the other hand, the mediating impact of ISE in the association between IS and EIB is non-significant (β = 0.040, P = 0.118, with a non-significant effect size of 0.015). Similarly, the mediating impact of ISE in the association between IC and EIB is non-significant (β = 0.032, P = 0.172, with a non-significant effect size of 0.011). Accordingly, H4c and H4d are rejected.

Specifically, to confirm these mediating impacts, the researcher conducts the variance accounted for (VAF) test to find how much the indirect association of ISE takes out of the direct relationship between TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) and EIB (Sarstedt et al., 2014, 2021; Hair et al., 2021). According to Hair et al. (2021), the aim is finding the effect size that ISE accounts for and this is done by employing the VAF test which highlights the size of the indirect impact in relation to the total impact (direct impact + indirect impact). Particularly, Hair et al. (2021) highlighted that if VAF is less than 20%, then no mediation takes place; if VAF is between 20% and 80%, then partial mediation occurs; and if VAF is above 80%, then full mediation exists. The VAF formula is shown as follows and the effect size of the mediator (ISE) is provided in Table 6.13.

$$VAF = (Pim * Pmd)/(Pim * Pmd + Pid)$$

Where;

Pim; The path between the independent and the mediator variable.

Pmd; The path between the mediator and the dependent variable.

Pid; The path between the independent and the dependent variable.

Table 6.13. The Effect Size of The Mediator (ISE) Through The VAF Test

Formula Items	Relationships	Path Coefficients	VAF Equation (Pim*Pmd)/ (Pim*Pmd) + Pid
Pim	II.C → ISE	0.205	$\frac{(0.205 \text{ X } 0.310)}{(0.205 \text{ X } 0.310)+0.117} = 35.20\%$
Pmd	ISE → EIB	0.310	
Pid	II.C → EIB	0.117	
Pim	IM → ISE	0.195	$\frac{(0.195 \text{ X } 0.310)}{(0.195 \text{ X } 0.310)+0.002} = 96.80\%$
Pmd	ISE → EIB	0.310	
Pid	IM → EIB	0.002	
Pim	IS → ISE	0.131	$\frac{(0.131 \text{ X } 0.310)}{(0.131 \text{ X } 0.310)+0.163} = 19.94\%$
Pmd	ISE → EIB	0.310	
Pid	IS → EIB	0.163	
Pim	IC → ISE	0.104	$\frac{(0.104 \text{ X } 0.310)}{(0.104 \text{ X } 0.310)+0.083} = 27.98\%$
Pmd	ISE → EIB	0.310	
Pid	IC → EIB	0.083	

Table 6.13 shows four results as follows. 35.20% represents the effect size of ISE as a mediator in the association between II.C and EIB, confirming that ISE is a partial mediator in this association as it is higher than 20% but less than 80%. Furthermore, 96.80% denotes the effect size of ISE as a mediator in the relationship between IM and EIB, concluding that ISE is a full mediator in this relationship as it is higher than 80%. On the other hand, 19.94% highlights the effect size of ISE as a mediator in the association between IS and EIB, confirming that ISE is not a mediator in this association because it is less than 20%. Additionally, although the mediating impact of ISE in the relationship between IC and EIB is non-significant ($\beta = 0.032$, $P = 0.172$), after performing the VAF test, the results show that the VAF value is higher than 20% (27.98%), showing the existence of a partial mediator, but its impact is very weak as it is still close to 20%. Accordingly, all mediator impacts of ISE in the relationship between TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) and EIB are confirmed. In the next section, the moderating impact of POS is highlighted.

Measuring The Moderating Impact of POS

The path coefficients β, P values, and effect sizes of the moderating impact of POS in the relationship between TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) and EIB are shown in Table 6.14.

Table 6.14. β Coefficients, P values, and Effect Sizes of The Moderating Impact of POS

Hypotheses	Relationships	Path Coefficients	P Values	Results	Effect Sizes (f^2)	Description of Effect Sizes
Moderating Effect of POS						
H5a	POS ↓ II.C → EIB	0.112	0.010	Supported	0.024	Small (Weak)
H5b	POS ↓ IM → EIB	0.045	0.175	Rejected	0.004	Non-Significant
H5c	POS ↓ IS → EIB	0.024	0.311	Rejected	0.002	Non-Significant
H5d	POS ↓ IC → EIB	0.049	0.156	Rejected	0.006	Non-Significant

Table 6.14 reveals that the moderating impact of POS in the association between II.C and EIB is significant (β = 0.112, P = 0.010, with a small (weak) effect size of 0.024), and so, H5a is supported. On the other hand, the moderating impact of POS in the association between IM and EIB is non-significant (β = 0.045, P = 0.175, with a non-significant effect size of 0.004). Similarly, the moderating impact of POS in the association between IS and EIB is non-significant (β = 0.024, P = 0.311, with a non-significant effect size of 0.002), and the moderating impact of POS in the association between IC and EIB is non-significant (β = 0.049, P = 0.156, with a non-significant effect size of 0.006). Accordingly, H5b, H5c, and H5d are rejected.

6.6. Conclusion

This chapter investigates the analysis of the quantitative data employed in this study. Specifically, it begins with examining the profile of the respondents, followed by exploring the descriptive statistics and measuring the common method bias (CMB). Next, the researcher performs the PLS-SEM analysis by firstly analysing the measurement model which is done by assessing the reliability including the individual/indicator item reliability and internal consistency reliability and checking the validity including the convergent validity and discriminant validity.

Secondly, the researcher analyses the structural model through evaluating collinearity and examining the predictive validity or relevance of the model. Furthermore, the structural model analysis assesses the structural relationships between the latent variables including the direct impacts of TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) on both ISE and EIB, the direct impact of

ISE on EIB, the mediating impact of ISE, and the moderating impact of POS. Overall, the results show that out of 17 relationships, 11 relationships are supported, while six relationships are rejected. Specifically, out of nine direct relationships, eight relationships are supported, while only one relationship is rejected. Also, concerning the mediating impact of ISE, out of four mediating associations, two associations are supported, while the other two associations are rejected. Finally, regarding the moderating impact of POS, out of four moderating relationships, only one relationship is supported, whereas the remaining three relationships are rejected. In the next chapter, the qualitative data are analysed.

CHAPTER SEVEN: QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

7.1. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to realise the fourth objective of this study which is providing qualitative insights from frontline employees through triangulation via interviews regarding how TL, ISE, and POS impact EIB, which is performed through reporting the findings of the qualitative data analysis from interviewing 25 frontline employees working in travel agents in Egypt. Particularly, in this chapter, a thematic analysis is employed to analyse the qualitative data and explain the quantitative results by using NVivo 9 Software.

Accordingly, this chapter consists of three main sections as follows. Firstly, it begins with introducing the aim of this chapter. Secondly, it reports the results of the thematic analysis which are used in interpreting the quantitative results. Finally, a conclusion is provided. In the next section, the thematic analysis and its results are reported.

7.2. Reporting The Thematic Data Analysis Findings

According to results of the quantitative stage, as explored in chapter six, out of 17 relationships, 11 relationships are supported, while six relationships are rejected. The researcher applies thematic analysis to justify these results after interviewing 25 frontline employees face to face in their travel agents in Egypt. The profile of interviewees is available in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1. The Profile of Interviewees

Participants Number	Gender	Age	Educational Level	Organisational Tenure or Job Experience	Firm Size (Number of Employees)	Marital Status
P1	Female	30 – 39 years	Bachelor's Degree	Less than 5 years	1 – 10	Married
P2	Female	30 – 39 years	Master's Degree and Above	5 – 9 years	1 – 10	Single
P3	Male	18 – 29 years	Bachelor's Degree	Less than 5 years	51 and More	Single
P4	Female	40 – 49 years	High school and Below	15 years and More	51 and More	Single
P5	Female	30 – 39 years	Master's Degree and Above	5 – 9 years	1 – 10	Single
P6	Male	30 – 39 years	Bachelor's Degree	5 – 9 years	1 – 10	Married
P7	Male	18 – 29 years	Bachelor's Degree	Less than 5 years	1 – 10	Single
P8	Male	30 – 39 years	Bachelor's Degree	15 years and More	1 – 10	Married

P9	Female	18 – 29 years	Bachelor's Degree	Less than 5 years	1 – 10	Single
P10	Female	18 – 29 years	Bachelor's Degree	Less than 5 years	1 – 10	Single
P11	Male	18 – 29 years	Bachelor's Degree	5 – 9 years	51 and More	Married
P12	Male	30 – 39 years	Bachelor's Degree	5 – 9 years	1 – 10	Married
P13	Male	30 – 39 years	Bachelor's Degree	5 – 9 years	51 and More	Married
P14	Male	30 – 39 years	Bachelor's Degree	5 – 9 years	21 – 30	Married
P15	Male	30 – 39 years	Bachelor's Degree	5 – 9 years	31 – 40	Single
P16	Female	30 – 39 years	Bachelor's Degree	10 – 14 years	51 and More	Married
P17	Male	30 – 39 years	Bachelor's Degree	10 – 14 years	51 and More	Married
P18	Female	18 – 29 years	Bachelor's Degree	5 – 9 years	31 – 40	Single
P19	Male	30 – 39 years	Bachelor's Degree	10 – 14 years	31 – 40	Married
P20	Male	30 – 39 years	Bachelor's Degree	10 – 14 years	21 – 30	Married
P21	Male	18 – 29 years	Bachelor's Degree	Less than 5 years	1 – 10	Single
P22	Male	18 – 29 years	Master's Degree and Above	Less than 5 years	11 – 20	Single
P23	Male	18 – 29 years	Bachelor's Degree	Less than 5 years	1 – 10	Single
P24	Male	18 – 29 years	Bachelor's Degree	Less than 5 years	1 – 10	Single
P25	Male	18 – 29 years	Bachelor's Degree	Less than 5 years	11 – 20	Single

(Source: The researcher's own data) – (Note: P: Participant)

Specifically, as mentioned in chapter five, Braun and Clarke (2006) and Scroggie et al. (2022) declared that thematic analysis encompasses six main steps; being familiar with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing a report regarding the tested propositions. After conducting these six steps, the researcher uses the identified themes to provide possible reasons for the quantitative stage's results. Accordingly, each relationship's result is reported according to themes and supported with interviewees' quotations in the following sections.

7.2.1. Insights To The Relationship Between TL and EIB

7.2.1.1. Insights To The Relationship Between II.C and EIB

The quantitative results reveal that the association between II.C and EIB is significant. Concerning the qualitative analysis, interviewing the 25 frontline employees provides further insights to such an association. Specifically, all participants highlight that their leaders encourage them continuously to do their work and perform IBs and trust them to realise their tasks efficiently. Also, all participants show that their leaders are proud of them when they achieve a certain target or provide an innovative idea and encourage them in front of their colleagues or their leaders' superiors. These actions represent some characteristics of the II.C of transformational leaders according to (Bass and Avolio, 1997, 2000; Avolio and Bass, 2002).

Additionally, ten participants (P1, P2, P3, P8, P9, P12, P16, P18, P20, P25) emphasise their leaders' characteristics and their relationship with them and how this relationship will foster them to perform IBs. Moreover, seven participants (P8, P9, P12, P16, P17, P19, P21) highlight what will happen if their leaders are not charismatic and do not trust, encourage, or respect their employees. Table 7.2 shows some of the quotations supporting this discussion.

Table 7.2. Quotations Supporting The Direct Relationship Between II.C and EIB

Possible Reasons	P. N	Quotation
Leaders' encouragement and support to employees and showing pride in them.	**P1**	*'My leader calls me from home and asks me if I issued a certain ticket or not and gives its profit to me .... She replies; this is a gift for you .... which makes me want to be more innovative with clients and try new methods with them'.*
	P4	*'Yes of course he is proud of me..., when some managers are coming from outside Egypt to visit our branch here, my leader shows his pride in me in front of them'.*
	P8	*'He gives me the confidence that I will be able to engage with the client properly. Giving me this freedom represents trust in me'.*
Leaders' characteristics and their relationship with their employees.	**P1**	*'Female leaders appreciate the needs of their employees more than male leaders. Most of the male leaders do not care.... They focus strictly on business. But female leaders are more emotional'.*
	P3	*'When the leader gives me certain tasks and encourages me to do them, and I do them effectively, the relationship between me and him becomes better and better'.*
	P16	*'My leader is a true leader. He deals with me like I am the owner of the travel agent and engages with me as if he knows me forever... He always solves problems. He always talks with me with great humility and humble'.*
Risks of leaders' not having charisma, and not encouraging or trusting employees.	**P8**	*'If my leader did not encourage us, we will not provide good outcomes. If I did not receive any encouragement or trust from my leader, what am I going to do here in the first place?'*
	P9	*'Without a good dialogue and communication between me and my leader, it means that there is a problem'.*
	P17	*'If my leader treats me in a regular manner, does not encourage or appreciate me, then I feel like I do not want to work or even come to the travel agent'.*

(Source; The researcher's own data) – (Note: P. N; Participant Number)

7.2.1.2. Insights To The Relationship Between IM and EIB

The quantitative results, unexpectedly, show that the relationship between IM and EIB is non-significant, which contradicts with the hypothesised relationship in the conceptual framework (see chapter four). The qualitative results provide possible reasons for this non-significant relationship, but they also provide evidence supporting the relationship between IM and EIB.

Specifically, only three participants (P11, P15, P18) declare that their leaders do not inspirationally motivate them which negatively impact their IBs. They highlight that their leaders engage with them in a routine or fixed manner, do not motivate them during their work, and keep them in their positions without providing any opportunity for promotions. This will significantly make them less motivated to conduct any IBs or provide new ideas. The quotations justifying the non-significant finding are clarified Table 7.3.

Table 7.3. Quotations Supporting The Non–Significant Relationship Between IM and EIB

Possible Reasons	P. N	Quotation
Leaders follow a fixed routine, do not motivate their employees, and do not provide promotion opportunities to them.	**P11**	*'I work with a leader who wants to follow a fixed routine, does not want me to speak…, he does not want to hear me while talking because he knows that I am more experienced than him.*
	P15	*'Sadly, he mostly follows a fixed routine. He does not usually engage or speak with me individually'.*
	P18	*'I am here working for a long time and no matter what I do, I still remain in my position here…. No matter how I try to get new ideas or apply new methods with clients, I will not be promoted to higher positions at work.*

(Source; The researcher's own data) – (Note: P. N; Participant Number)

On the other hand, the remaining participants (22 participants) provide evidence suggesting that there is a significant relationship between IM and EIB. Possible reasons include transformational leaders having periodic meetings with their frontline employees to motivate them, plan with them how to realise new targets, instruct them on how to interact with clients, and foster team spirit and teamwork between them, which accordingly will inspirationally motivate them to work more and perform IBs. According to (Bass and Avolio, 1997, 2000; Avolio and Bass, 2002), all these actions demonstrate characteristics of IM.

Specifically, all participants except participant 20 confirm that their leaders periodically have meetings with them and plan with them how to achieve new targets. Besides, nine participants (P1, P2, P3, P5, P7, P16, P18, P23, P25) show that their leaders motivate them and give them instructions on how to interact with clients during their work. Finally, all participants confirm that their leaders foster team spirit and teamwork between them which is a major characteristic of IM. All these activities stimulate frontline employees to perform IBs in their interactions with clients. Table 7.4 shows the quotations supporting the significant relationship between IM and EIB.

Table 7.4. Quotations Supporting The Significant Relationship Between IM and EIB

Possible Reasons	P. N	Quotation
Leaders' periodic meetings with employees and planning to achieve new targets.	**P3**	*'Every once and awhile during meetings he tells us that we need to achieve a certain target'.*
	P4	*'Yes of course. There are always plans to make. He holds meetings with us every month and sets a target that we all must achieve'.*
	P16	*'He holds meetings with us and sees our proposals..... Regarding the target that we are supposed to achieve, he puts it to us based on scientific evidence with scientific basis..., he is planning in an organised way, not randomly'.*
Leaders provide instructions to their employees on how to interact with clients.	**P1**	*'She gives us instructions like; double your work, do not focus on the street client and focus on dealing with the other travel agents. Also, she asks us about what kind of questions the clients ask or what are their interests...'.*
	P7	*'He used to sit with me and tells me: the client might ask about this and that and you have to answer him in that manner'.*
	P25	*'When engaging with the client, there are certain things that I must do in order to win the client and I have to do it. For instance, I have to speak with him in a certain way, speak with a certain body language, do not wave with my hand...'.*
Leaders foster team spirit and teamwork among employees.	**P4**	*'Yes of course. There are certain tasks that we cannot do on our own. We have to do them as a team, and our leader encourages us to work as a team all the time'.*
	P7	*'Of course, he treats us as a team. He used to say; if you need this point, go to that colleague and he will help you do it, ... In this way, he encourages the team spirit between all of us indirectly.*
	P22	*'He treats us all as a team in everything; we join all of our meetings together; he encourages us to help each other if someone needs any help'.*

(Source; The researcher's own data) – (Note: P. N; Participant Number)

7.2.1.3. Insights To The Relationship Between IS and EIB

The quantitative results prove that the relationship between IS and EIB is significant. Also, the qualitative results confirm and provide possible reasons supporting this relationship. Specifically, all participants except five participants (P2, P4, P8, P12, P19) declare that their leaders intellectually stimulate them to apply new methods and perform challenging tasks by employing various techniques. Additionally, five participants (P1, P16, P17, P22, P23) stress that they must develop and improve themselves, learn new methods, and acquire necessary skills to be able to conduct IBs. Finally, 13 participants (P1, P2, P3, P4, P8, P11, P12, P16, P17, P19, P22, P23, P25) acknowledge that having a lot of experience in doing their work enable them to demonstrate different techniques, apply new methods in dealing with clients, provide novel ideas, and conduct IBs.

All these reasons enable frontline employees to be intellectually stimulated by transformational leaders to conduct IBs. According to Bass and Avolio (1997, 2000) and Avolio and Bass (2002), suggesting new ways to solve problems using different techniques and stimulating employees to look at problems from various angles are characteristics of IS. The quotations supporting this discussion is revealed in Table 7.5.

Table 7.5. Quotations Supporting The Significant Relationship Between IS and EIB

Possible Reasons	P. N	Quotation
Leaders intellectually stimulate employees to apply new methods and perform challenging tasks by employing different techniques.	**P5**	*'He encourages every one of us to be innovative; meaning that he does not only take our ideas; he also searches for new techniques with us'.*
	P10	*'He wants to see how we think about achieving a certain target, how to achieve it by several ways, and see which way will achieve the highest profit possible and apply it'.*
	P25	*'He must see how the new employee will engage…. He asks; if you do not realise the target, is there another alternative that you can do? Through this way, the employee keeps thinking and learning all the time'.*
Necessity for employees to develop and improve themselves, learn new methods, and acquire new skills to conduct IBs.	**P1**	*'We are working on a system that is used by everyone in the republic of Egypt; Someone working from another place like Shbeen Elkoom can take the ticket I am issuing, so accuracy and speed is much needed'.*
	P16	*'Even if the client is annoying, do not understand what I am saying, being hostile to me, I deal with him effectively and efficiently…. I have to help that client because in our line of work, any mistake represents a disaster….'.*
	P23	*'Before I come to work here, I took courses, seminars, and trainings to know the work and learn how it is done and improve myself regularly so that I can be more innovative'.*
Experience of employees enable them to employ various techniques, apply new methods, provide new ideas, and conduct IBs.	**P3**	*'I guess experience is the most important factor, meaning I am one of the youngest employees here and so, I will be able to take advantage from my colleagues' experiences which will enable me to conduct IBs'.*
	P8	*'I have been working here for 15 years. Having a certain experience in doing the job makes the leader trust me and this motivates me to work more….'.*
	P17	*'If I have experience in my work, I will be able to help the client. Even if I do not know how to help him, I will know from where I will get the information to help him and provide it to him'.*

(Source; The researcher's own data) – (Note: P. N; Participant Number)

7.2.1.4. Insights To The Relationship Between IC and EIB

The quantitative results show that the relationship between IC and EIB is significant, which is also confirmed by the qualitative results. Several reasons advocate this association. Firstly, all participants state that their leaders encourage openness through discussing suggestions and provide autonomy to them. Secondly, all participants except five participants (P7, P11, P15, P16, P24) announce that their leaders provide personal training to them and if they cannot provide it personally, they make sure to provide training courses to their employees and assure them regularly. Thirdly, all participants except seven participants (P2, P4, P6, P14, P15, P16, P19) show that their leaders highlight their employees' strengths and weaknesses, mistakes, or challenges so that the leaders can help their frontline employees to enhance their strengths, overcome their weaknesses, reduce their mistakes, and face their challenges at work.

Finally, 11 participants (P1, P5, P7, P9, P10, P11, P12, P13, P16, P22, P25) confirm that their leaders are considerate of their frontline employees' various needs and abilities, and so, leaders engage with each employee based on his/her needs, capabilities, and abilities. All these reasons represent major characteristics of IC provided by transformational leaders to frontline employees (Bass and Avolio, 1997, 2000; Avolio and Bass, 2002). Table 7.6 demonstrates the quotations supporting this discussion.

Table 7.6. Quotations Supporting The Significant Relationship Between IC and EIB

Possible Reasons	P. N	Quotation
Leaders encourage openness through discussing suggestions and providing autonomy to employees.	**P1**	*'She made me choose whether to take a shift from 9AM till 3PM or 1PM till 9PM. So, I am the one choosing. I am not being forced to a certain option'. 'Do I need a fixed payment or a commissioned payment?'.*
	P4	*'Yes. He is open to any new ideas. He lets us examine the new ideas and what is available in the market, and what can be applied, and how can we attract more clients, and accepts new ideas from us'.*
	P25	*'He discusses my idea with me. My leader loves new ideas and he always wants us to speak and share our ideas. If we have any ideas, he discusses them with us openly …. So, he accepts new ideas greatly'.*
Leaders provide personal training and training courses to employees and assure them regularly.	**P1**	*'She helped me do it on the phone and she was with me step by step till I issued the ticket'.*
	P10	*'If I needed something at all, he always helps me and guides me personally. Despite being busy, he always finds time to direct me. ….. Even when he sits with me individually …., he motivates me and helps me greatly …'.*
	P19	*'The travel agent here provides courses for us to improve our skills. After we finish the courses, we take certificates of completing them. So, the training and direction are available, but not personally'.*
Leaders highlight employees' strengths and weaknesses, mistakes, or challenges to improve their strengths and overcome their weaknesses at work.	**P1**	*'Yes. She sees everyone's mistakes. For example, one is not smiling while dealing with the clients, one is too loose with the clients …. So, she examines each one's weaknesses and tries to improve it'.*
	P11	*'Yes. This happens every month when he checks my KPI's. He usually tells me; I gave you small points here …… So, he points me to my strengths that he needs me to increase and to my weaknesses that he needs me to overcome'.*
	P25	*'If my leader perceives that I did not do something properly this month, he tells me; your performance this month has dropped a little... So, he manages our strengths and weaknesses and tries to overcome our weaknesses'.*
Leaders consider employees' various needs and abilities and engage with them based on these needs and abilities.	**P1**	*'Sometimes, I stay for 12 hours at work …. She tells me 12 hours is too much…, so she appreciated my personal needs if I had certain circumstances. Also, a friend of mine recently gave birth to a baby. She used to tell her go home ….'*
	P7	*'He tries his best to be close to each employee alone. He speaks to each employee in a different manner …. He deals with each employee based on his mentality…. So, he is close to each employee according to his/her thinking …'.*
	P22	*'My leader knows that everyone has specific needs, desires, and abilities. Everyone has his/her own way of operating …., and so, my leader deals with each employee according to each one's personal capabilities'.*

(Source; The researcher's own data) – (Note: P. N; Participant Number)

7.2.2. Insights To The Relationship Between ISE and EIB

The quantitative results prove that the association between ISE and EIB is significant. This association is also confirmed by the qualitative results. The main reasons supporting this association is that employees acknowledge that they have the confidence in their innovative capability to solve problems, convince others of their ideas, and adopt and implement new methods at work which will increase their IBs. These actions represent major characteristics of ISE according to Tierney and Farmer (2002) and Dörner (2012).

Specifically, all participants confirm that ISE significantly impacts their IBs and emphasise its crucial importance to them when dealing with clients. Also, they acknowledge that having ISE is vital to them and as long as they have ISE, they will be able to do their work properly, engage better with clients, give more to their work, and perform IBs. Further, all participants except three participants (P3, P11, P13) emphasise the risk of not having ISE and its impact on EIB. They confirm that without having ISE, they will not be able to do anything or work properly, and so, ISE is crucial to their work and their IBs. The quotations supporting this association is exhibited in Table 7.7.

Table 7.7. Quotations Supporting The Significant Relationship Between ISE and EIB

Possible Reasons	P. N	Quotation
Significance of ISE in influencing employees' IBs.	**P1**	*'Of course, at first, you feal afraid from dealing with clients. From the second time, you feel more courage; .... ISE enables me to talk with the client .... So, yes. I am confident in myself to apply new things with the clients'.*
	P9	*'Of course, I must have ISE. When I started here, I was worried about how to proceed .... After that, I became more confident in my innovative capability to deal with clients.... It also helps me by not felling worried...'.*
	P12	*'Of course, ISE is greatly needed. Having ISE increases my engagement with clients. If I have confidence in my innovative capability of dealing with clients, I will be able to do it'.*
Risks of not having ISE and its impact on EIB.	**P8**	*'Yes of course. ISE has to influence IB. In any job in any field, a person who do not have confidence in his innovative capability will not be able to do anything. So, ISE is very essential to our work'.*
	P24	*'Of course, ISE is needed. If I do not have the confidence in my innovative capability, I will not be able to do anything. It will also appear on my face when I deal with the client...., he will not trust me and will deal with another employee'.*
	P25	*'Yes. Sure. If I do not have the confidence in my innovative capability to do these things, I will not be able to do anything, and I will look worried and not confident in front of the client who will notice that...., he will not trust me ...'.*

(Source; The researcher's own data) – (Note: P. N; Participant Number)

7.2.3. Insights To The Relationship Between TL and ISE

The quantitative results reveal that the impact of TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) on ISE is significant. Likewise, the qualitative results support this association. All participants confirm the significance of the relationship between TL and ISE and provide similar answers to what has been discussed in section 7.2.1.

Particularly, 19 participants (P2, P4, P7, P8, P9, P10, P11, P12, P13, P14, P15, P16, P17, P20, P21, P22, P23, P24, P25) acknowledge that when their leaders encourage them to do their work, trust them, and show pride in them, their ISE increases greatly. Furthermore, the remaining six participants (P1, P3, P5, P6, P18, P19) highlight the source of their ISE. They acknowledge that the major sources of their ISE come from their leaders' encouragement to them, trusting them, taking pride in them, and being open with them regarding their suggestions and new ideas. Without these sources, they will not have any ISE. Table 7.8 shows the quotations supporting this discussion.

Table 7.8. Quotations Supporting The Significant Relationship Between TL and ISE

Possible Reasons	P. N	Quotation
When leaders encourage, trust, and take pride in their employees, ISE of employees increases.	**P11**	*'Yes, of course he does. When he provides a good working atmosphere and encourages me, I feel secure at work and work freely and this increases my ISE greatly. So, definitely my leader increases my ISE'.*
When leaders encourage, trust, and take pride in their employees, ISE of employees increases.	**P12**	*'Yes, of course. He encourages me and increases my ISE. Especially when he gives me lots of tasks to do. Here, I feel that I am trusted and this increases my ISE more….'.*
When leaders encourage, trust, and take pride in their employees, ISE of employees increases.	**P25**	*'Yes. Greatly. When my leader encourages me, motivates me…. this motivates me more…. and this increases my ISE more and increases my confidence in my innovative capability that I will be able to deal with the client'.*
The sources of employees' ISE come from leaders' encouragement and trust in them, taking pride in them, and being open to them.	**P1**	*'My ISE will come from people trusting me and how much they complement and encourage me. So, yes. I have my leader's support and encouragement, and so, my ISE increases greatly and I feel like I can do anything'.*
The sources of employees' ISE come from leaders' encouragement and trust in them, taking pride in them, and being open to them.	**P3**	*'When my leader says to me that I am good at this and good at that, this will increase my ISE. I will feel like I am a helper …. So, when my leader tells me this, I feel more power and feel like I can do anything'.*
The sources of employees' ISE come from leaders' encouragement and trust in them, taking pride in them, and being open to them.	**P5**	*'Yes of course. When there is a certain task that I want to do, he asks me; will you be able to do it? If I succeeded, he tells me: that is great, I knew that you could do it… and this gives me a huge confidence in my innovative capability'.*

(Source; The researcher's own data) – (Note: P. N; Participant Number)

7.2.4. Insights To The Mediating Role of ISE in The Relationship Between TL and EIB

The quantitative results show that the mediating role of ISE is significant regarding the impact of both II.C and IM on EIB, while it is non-significant concerning the impact of both IS and IC on EIB. The qualitative analysis suggests some reasons for these results including the significance of ISE as a mediator, the risks of not having ISE as a mediator, and various views about how ISE might not work as a mediator.

Specifically, regarding the significant findings, all participants except four participants (P3, P7, P11, P16) explicitly stress that ISE is necessary and must exist alongside leaders' encouragement in order for them to express IBs. They declare that when their leaders encourage and foster them, their ISE increases. Therefore, they feel more power, everything gets easier to them, and they become more motivated to deal better with clients, apply novel ideas, and perform IBs. From another point, 12 participants (P1, P2, P6, P8, P10, P14, P15, P18, P20, P21, P22, P24) highlight the risk of not having ISE as a mediator in the association between TL and EIB. Without having ISE, even if the leaders encourage their employees consistently, the employees will not be able to do anything, will not work properly, will be afraid and anxious of doing anything, their performance will not be stable, and their IB will not be great. Table 7.9 presents the quotations supporting this discussion.

Table 7.9. Quotations Supporting The Significance of ISE as a Mediator Between TL and EIB

Possible Reasons	P. N	Quotation
Significance of ISE as a mediator in the relationship between TL and EIB.	**P1**	*'Of course, it does. I must have ISE. It will help indirectly. It is obvious when my leader encourages me …., I feel more power and feel like I can do anything and this increases my IB ….'.*
	P6	*'Yes, of course ISE must be there. If my leader encourages me, and I have confidence in my innovative capability, everything gets easier and I work more freely and happily which foster me to behave innovatively with clients …'.*
	P22	*'Yes. Of course, ISE will help. Having ISE is the most important thing. So, yes. ISE indirectly impacts alongside my leader's encouragement to me to increase my IB. For me, ISE is essential … because ISE is my core basis or foundation'.*
Risks of not having ISE as a mediator in the relationship between TL and EIB.	**P2**	*'If I am not confident in my ability to behave innovatively, even if my leader encourages me, my IB will not be great and my performance will be unstable'.*
	P14	*'Without confidence in my innovative capability, I will be afraid of doing anything. Yes, sometimes my leader encourages me and gives me tasks to do, and when I try to do them without any ISE, I will not be able to do anything'.*
	P22	*'Without ISE, I will not be able to sell anything…. Even if my leader continues to encourage me, as long as I do not have ISE and I am not confident in my innovative capability to deal with the client, I will not be able to do anything'.*

(Source; The researcher's own data) – (Note: P. N; Participant Number)

On the other hand, concerning the non-significant findings, four participants (P3, P7, P11, P16), in addition to seven participants (P6, P8, P9, P10, P13, P18, P25) who have showed support for the mediating role of ISE, have provided other opinions. Particularly, these 11 participants have expressed various views about the mediating role of ISE which could justify the non-significant findings. These various views are supported with quotations as highlighted in Table 7.10.

Table 7.10. Quotations Supporting The Non–Significance of ISE as Mediator Between TL and EIB

Possible Reasons	P. N	Quotation
Various views about the non-significance of ISE as a mediator in the relationship	**P3**	*'For me, 95% of my work involve dealing with clients… Dealing with clients is very easy for me, so I do not need any encouragement to do so because I am very confident in myself that I will be able to behave innovatively with the client…'.*
	P7	*'Having ISE differs from one employee to another…. One employee can have ISE and another one might be afraid and worry from the trust his/her leader gives to him/her, and so, becomes more nervous and will not perform any IBs'.*

between TL and EIB.	**P8**	*'Some employees get the encouragement from their leader and do the work immediately…, these types of employees focus only on the monthly payment…, and there are employees who have to be confident in their innovative abilities…'.*

(Source; The researcher's own data) – (Note: P. N; Participant Number)

7.2.5. Insights To The Moderating Role of POS in The Relationship Between TL and EIB

The quantitative results reveal that the moderating role of POS is significant concerning the association between II.C and EIB, whereas it is non-significant regarding the impact of IM, IS, and IC on EIB. The qualitative analysis provides possible reasons for these significant and non-significant findings including highlighting the significance of POS as a moderator, examples of organisational support, risks of not providing organisational support, different views about POS, and how COVID-19 influences POS.

Particularly, regarding the significant findings, all participants confirm that POS is significant for fostering EIB and its presence greatly supports the impact of TL on EIB. They argue that organisational support is significant and greatly needed and it will assist besides transformational leaders' behaviours, such as encouraging employees, in impacting EIB. They also state that both leaders' encouragement and organisational support are linked to each other and complement each other. Additionally, 17 participants (P1, P2, P4, P5, P7, P9, P10, P13, P14, P15, P16, P19, P21, P22, P23, P24, P25) provide examples of the organisational support they perceive, matching with the study of (Eisenberger, 1986). Besides, seven participants (P8, P16, P18, P19, P20, P21, P25) warn about the risks of not providing organisational support. Moreover, despite the negative impacts of COVID-19 threatening Egypt, ten participants (P1, P3, P4, P5, P8, P10, P11, P13, P20, P23) show that organisational support is provided before, during, and after COVID-19. Table 7.11 demonstrates the quotations supporting this discussion.

Table 7.11. Quotations Supporting The Significance of POS as Moderator Between TL and EIB

Possible Reasons	P. N	Quotation
Significance of POS as a moderator in the relationship between TL and EIB.	**P3**	*'Yes. Organisational support is greatly needed. Doing mistakes is common in our work and handling these mistakes correctly gives me the incentive to work …. because I know that my travel agent supports me …'.*
	P8	*'Having organisational support is necessary alongside my leader's encouragement and both will foster me more to perform IBs. My leader's encouragement and organisational support both complement each other….'.*
	P25	*'Yes, of course. Organisational support makes a huge difference for me. If I receive organisational support, I will feel comfortable…. So, organisational support helps alongside my leader's encouragement to me to increase my IB …'.*
Examples or forms of	**P1**	*'When there are festivals in the travel agent, my leader takes me with her ….' 'Also, if my level is high and it drops suddenly, my travel agent asks me; …, Do you have any family issues?... This represents a support'.*

organisational support.	**P4**	*'The monetary payment is one form of organisational support, and also there are incentives, and they all support and encourage us to do more. The monetary payment is psychologically appealing …'.*
	P15	*'When I make an honest mistake, the travel agent do not make me pay anything and this shows to me that my travel agent supports me…. This alongside my leader's encouragement to me increases my IBs a lot'.*
Risks of not providing organisational support to frontline employees.	**P8**	*'If there is not any organisational support, I will not be able to do anything, I will feel insecure all the time, and I always will be worried about something wrong that might happen to me'.*
	P18	*'Without organisational support, I will keep making mistakes and will not learn from them and will make more mistakes because I will be anxious that no one is supporting me, and this will make me even more worried and more afraid'.*
	P21	*'If I perceive that my leader will not encourage me and my travel agent will not support me, I will stop in my place, I will not do anything, I will not improve or develop myself, and there will not be any IBs'.*
Providing organisational support before, during, and after COVID.	**P10**	*'Yes. There is no difference between before and after COVID…. In fact, support has increased after COVID. Because we were severely impacted during COVID, we needed huge support and we actually perceived that support after COVID…'.*
	P11	*'There was organisational support during COVID. We worked well during COVID to some point, and organisational support was available to us. But we did not work the whole month…'.*
	P20	*'When everything returned back to normal to some point after COVID, they wanted me back, and this represents a good support from my travel agent'.*

(Source; The researcher's own data) – (Note: P. N; Participant Number)

On the other hand, despite positively supporting the moderating role of POS in the association between TL and EIB by the participants in the previous discussion, only four participants (P11, P16, P17, P25) provide various views about the role of POS which may be used as a justification for the non-significant findings regarding employing POS as a moderator. Moreover, the disastrous occurrence of COVID-19 has negatively influenced the participants' views about perceiving organisational support, which in turn impacted the relationship between TL and EIB. Particularly, ten participants (P1, P2, P5, P6, P15, P16, P19, P20, P21, P25) underline the negative role of COVID-19 and its influence on POS, which in turn impacts frontline EIB. The quotations supporting this discussion are highlighted in Table 7.12.

Table 7.12. Quotations Supporting The Non–Significance of POS as Moderator Between TL and EIB

Possible Reasons	P. N	Quotation
Various views about the non-significance of POS as a moderator in the relationship between TL and EIB.	**P11**	*'Unfortunately, organisational support is not available in our travel agent. Why? Because here we have rules to follow and these rules are formed by our CEOs, and so, they have to be enforced, whether there is support or not…'.*
	P17	*'Providing support to address honest mistakes differs from one leadership to another. One leadership will say; I will not hold you accountable .... Other leadership will say; no, I will deduct the amount of money that you lost …'.*
	P25	*'If I have a problem…, it will show whether my travel agent will support me or not. So, if my travel agent wants to solve the problem, they will help me…. If not, I will be responsible for the whole mistake and pay for it'.*

Negative consequences of COVID and its impact on organisational support.	**P6**	*'Yes, I know that some travel agents closed after COVID and some employees said that there was no organisational support, but this is out of the travel agents' control. These travel agents were forced by the devastating impact of COVID'.*
	P19	*'Of course, COVID impacted my work greatly. There was no more travel. Most countries closed their borders …. This made lots of travel agents lay off their employees who said that there was no support due to COVID…'.*
	P25	*'After COVID, several travel agents abandoned and fired their employees. Yes, there are lots of employees who lost their jobs and said that travel agents did not support them due to COVID. However, it differs from one leader to another…'.*

(Source; The researcher's own data) – (Note: P. N; Participant Number)

7.2.6. Insights To Various Aspects of EIB as An Outcome to TL, ISE, and POS

EIB is represented as an outcome to TL, ISE, and POS. Participants have shown various aspects of their IBs. Particularly, all participants have demonstrated that when they are either encouraged by transformational leaders' behaviours, have ISE, or perceive organisational support, they are motivated and fostered to perform IBs, and the quotations supporting this have been clarified in the previous sections. Also, three participants (P1, P2, P22) clarify what tasks and expectations are required from them that necessitate IBs. Additionally, 11 participants (P1, P4, P7, P8, P9, P14, P16, P17, P18, P19, P21) declare that when they are either encouraged by transformational leaders' behaviours, have ISE, or perceive organisational support from their travel agents, they want to return that favour to their leaders or travel agents in the form of IBs, matching with SET (Blau, 1964). Table 7.13 shows the quotations supporting this discussion.

Table 7.13. Quotations Showing Various Aspects of EIB as An Outcome to TL, ISE, and POS

Possible Reasons	P. N	Quotation
Tasks and expectations required from employees that necessitate IBs.	**P1**	*'In order to issue a ticket, 8 steps are needed. Also, there are steps to insert the passport data including the name, date of birth, and the destination, which require certain skills to perform these tasks innovatively'.*
	P2	*'The travel agents' leaders need us, not the other way around. Our leaders need us so that we can engage with clients, provide new ideas, and perform IBs'.*
	P22	*'I know that the client needs a good price, a good seat place, and a certain discount, and so, I start directing him to the price he needs, and try to provide good services to him on the plane'.*
Returning the favour in the form of IBs as a result to TL, ISE, and POS.	**P1**	*'When my leader gives me trust, I must give it back and show her great work results'. 'If I am confident in myself to apply new things with the clients, it will foster me to work more, …., and I will give them everything I have got'.*
	P9	*'As long as I am supporting the travel agent, the travel agent will also support me…. If I need something, the travel agent will provide it, and also if the travel agent needs something, I will be happy to provide it as well'.*
	P18	*'As long as my leader gives me a certain encouragement and trust, I have to respect that trust and repay it…., I must not let him down and take that responsibility and try dealing with clients innovatively and perform IBs'.*

(Source; The researcher's own data) – (Note: P. N; Participant Number)

7.3. Conclusion

This chapter reports the findings of the qualitative data analysis in this study. Specifically, it begins with introducing the aim of this chapter which is realising the fourth objective; revealing qualitative insights from frontline employees regarding how TL, ISE, and POS impact their IBs. Then, the researcher conducts the thematic analysis using NVivo 9 and reports its results. In particular, the researcher uses the identified themes from the thematic analysis to justify and explain the significant and non-significant results of the quantitative stage regarding the direct relationship between TL and EIB, ISE and EIB, TL and ISE, the mediating role of ISE, and the moderating role of POS. The researcher also identifies themes highlighting the various aspects of EIB as an outcome to TL, ISE, and POS.

Particularly, the direct relationships are significant between II.C and EIB, IS and EIB, IC and EIB, ISE and EIB, II.C and ISE, IM and ISE, IS and ISE, and IC and ISE, and possible reasons are provided to justify the significance of these relationships. On the other hand, the direct relationship between IM and EIB is non-significant. The researcher provides reasons to justify this non-significance, but other evidence is found suggesting that this relationship can also be significant, and possible reasons are provided to explain this significance. Furthermore, regarding the mediating role of ISE, the researcher provides reasons justifying why ISE is significant as a mediator with regard to the impact of II.C and IM on EIB, and why it is non-significant concerning the impact of IS and IC on EIB. Similarly, with regard to the moderating role of POS, possible reasons are presented justifying why POS is significant as a moderator concerning the impact of II.C on EIB, and why it is non-significant regarding the impact of IM, IS, and IC on EIB. Moreover, the researcher uses quotations from NVivo 9 to support the identified themes regarding the study relationships. Afterward, a conclusion is provided. In the next chapter, the researcher discusses the quantitative and qualitative results.

CHAPTER EIGHT – DISCUSSION

8.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses both the quantitative and qualitative results in relation to previous literature sources which are reviewed in chapters two, three, and four. Also, in this chapter, the researcher provides possible justifications for the quantitative and qualitative findings. Accordingly, this chapter is divided into six main sections; the first section discusses the relationship between TL and EIB, the second discusses the association between ISE and EIB, the third discusses the link between TL and ISE, the fourth discusses the mediating role of ISE, and the fifth discusses the moderating role of POS. Finally, the sixth section provides a conclusion to this chapter.

8.2. The Relationship Between TL and EIB

The quantitative results were significant regarding the impact of II.C, IS, and IC on EIB, while were not supported concerning the impact of IM on EIB, and the qualitative results provide justifications for these results which are highlighted relating to previous literature sources in the following sections.

8.2.1. The Relationship Between II.C and EIB

The association between II.C and EIB (H1a) seems to be significant according to the quantitative and qualitative results. This is consistent with Masood and Afsar (2017) who stated that employees are fostered to promote innovation through the individual charisma of leaders. This also matches with Bednall et al. (2018) and Contreras et al. (2020) who declared that II.C highlights the capability of transformational leaders to stimulate innovative work to their followers through their vision and values and acting as role models. Similarly, this is consistent with Korku and Kaya (2022) who emphasised that transformational leaders act as role models and are respected by their employees, and when these leaders encourage innovative ideas, their employees emulate them by expressing IBs.

The qualitative results also have supported that in which all employees emphasise that their leaders trust them, are proud of them when they provide innovative ideas, and encourage them continuously to perform IBs and realise their tasks efficiently, all of which represent aspects of II.C. Also, Egyptian employees highlight that when their leaders trust and encourage them, they want to repay that favour by giving the travel agent everything they have got and conducting IBs. In fact, Ali et al. (2020) emphasised that transformational leaders within the

Egyptian Category A travel agents stimulate their employees by acting as role models and setting high standards to them, which will empower their employees and improve their sense of belonging and their belief in the significance of their actions, stimulating their IBs.

Moreover, Choi et al. (2016) declared that II.C presents transformational leaders as most respectful, admirable, and trustworthy, and stimulate employees' innovative capabilities (Bass et al., 2003), because according to qualitative findings, when leaders respect their employees, give them tasks, and encourage them to do these tasks, the relationship between them becomes better and better, fostering them to perform IBs. Additionally, employees emphasise that without encouragement from their leaders, they will not be motivated to conduct IBs. Accordingly, Khalifa (2019) recommended that leaders in Egypt should act as good role models by adhering to the organisational standards so that Egyptian employees feel a sense of loyalty and achievement to their organisations, which could motivate them to perform IBs.

Furthermore, transformational leaders, through their charisma, strive to make employees transcend their self-interests and work toward meeting organisational goals by improving, pursuing, and maintaining an organisational vision (Afsar and Umrani, 2020b) for the sake of their organisation's survival which is vital for innovation (Choi et al., 2016). Moreover, Messmann et al. (2022) stressed that if transformational leaders foster their followers to strive for achieving challenging goals that reach beyond their self-interests, these followers will show favourable work behaviours, such as IBs. This is also confirmed by the qualitative findings that show that when leaders are charismatic, continuously motivate their employees to do better, make them feel that they belong to the travel agent, these employees will be stimulated to engage innovatively with clients and perform IBs.

Additionally, according to Bak et al. (2022), II.C is a main tool used by transformational leaders for promoting EIB. Particularly, transformational leaders, through their II.C, can provide a vision, a sense of mission, goals, and high expectations which increase the intrinsic motivation of their followers to realise their mission and goals (Jensen and Bro, 2018). Accordingly, II.C leads to IBs because intrinsically motivated followers are expected to find new approaches to problems (Shin and Zhou, 2003; Bak et al., 2022). Likewise, the qualitative results acknowledge that leaders hold periodic meetings with their employees to convey their visions and future goals to them and tell them what needs to be done in the travel agent to gain more competitive advantage, which foster employees to follow these visions and become more innovative in engaging with clients.

Besides, Parker and Wu (2014) proposed that one of the views highlighting the relationship between leadership and EIB is a motivational one. This motivational view specifically applies to charismatic leaders who instil hope and optimism, articulate a visionary mission, show confidence in their followers, set high expectations, and demonstrate confidence that these expectations can be realised (Bass and Avolio, 1995; Shamir and Howell, 1999). In this way, charismatic leaders also challenge their followers to experiment with putting new ideas and processes into practice, meaning that they foster them to perform IBs (Le Blanc et al., 2021). Confirming that, the qualitative results acknowledge that when leaders give challenging tasks to their followers, set high expectations to them, show confidence in them regarding their capability to realise these challenging tasks, these employees become more motivated to provide novel ideas, experiment them, and show IBs.

8.2.2. The Relationship Between IM and EIB

This study's quantitative and qualitative results seem to indicate that the association between IM and EIB (H1b) is not supported, contradicting with several previous studies. For instance, Contreras et al. (2020) declared that the IM of transformational leaders can make their followers more confident in their capabilities, which increases the probability of improving their IBs. Further, as cited in Stanescu et al. (2021) and Bak et al. (2022), transformational leaders, through IM, increase their followers' intrinsic motivation, which is argued to be the inspirational mechanism behind creativity and EIB (Günzel-Jensen et al., 2018). Moreover, Afsar and Umrani (2020b) and Rafique et al. (2022) argued that transformational leaders, through their IM, foster their employees and stimulate them to engage in IBs though developing a strong sense of shared vision and belongingness with their organisations. However, according to the qualitative results, Egyptian employees stress that their leaders engage with them in a routine and fixed manner and do not want to motivate them, which reduce their tendency to express IBs. Additionally, in some cases, leaders do not want to listen to Egyptian employees' opinions and suggestions and just show them what is required from them to achieve the targets and give them orders to achieve these targets, which impact employees' motivation and reduce their likelihood to show IBs to their clients. Also, employees highlight that their leaders are usually busy running their travel agents, and so, they do not have the time or the resources to inspirationally motivate their employees and just give them instructions concerning realising future goals, which decrease employees' motivation to provide new ideas or interact innovatively with clients, reducing their IBs.

Nevertheless, despite this inconsistent result, this does not mean that the association between IM and EIB is not important because the qualitative findings have also shown that this association can be significant. For instance, the qualitative findings have shown that, as previously mentioned in chapter seven, aspects of IM encompass transformational leaders' having periodic meeting with frontline employees for motivating them, planning with them how to realise new targets, instructing them on how to interact with clients, and fostering team spirit and teamwork between them, which consequently will inspirationally motivate them to perform IBs. This is also justified by the quantitative findings. Particularly, in the Egyptian context, Abd El Muksoud et al. (2022) confirmed that Egyptian employees prefer to work with transformational leaders who are willing to inspire, communicate, and lead their employees to greater achievements, have a pure vision, have a commitment to excellence, are loyal to their employees, encourage innovation, and emphasise the value of appreciating and valuing their employees. Besides, Mohamed (2016) indicated that adopting a transformational leadership style in the Egyptian context fosters a climate for innovation and helps in utilising the creative abilities of Egyptian employees to provide innovative solutions to their routine problems.

Accordingly, evidence is provided by the qualitative findings confirming the significance of the relationship between IM and EIB, matching with the hypothesised relationship in the conceptual framework (see chapter four). The inconsistency here does not mean that there is no relationship between IM and EIB. A possible cause for this inconsistency can be related to the sample itself. Due to the devastating impact of COVID-19, the sample gathered (320) is not what the researcher aimed for (500) and so, probably, the number of employees who stated that their leaders did not inspirationally motivate them to conduct IBs is higher than the number of employees who confirmed that their leaders inspirationally motivated them, which may cause the quantitative results to be inconsistent regarding (H1b). However, this does not mean that the relationship between IM and EIB does not exist.

8.2.3. The Relationship Between IS and EIB

The quantitative and qualitative results seem to show that the association between IS and EIB (H1c) is significant matching with Afsar et al. (2014) and Suhana et al. (2019) who confirmed that transformational leaders, through their IS capabilities, can impact employees to conduct IBs. Also, Khan et al. (2020a) highlighted that IS focuses explicitly on employees' creativity and innovativeness. Further, as cited in Baafi et al. (2021) and Stanescu et al. (2021), transformational leaders, through their IS, stimulate followers to be innovative in their work, develop new ideas, redefine problems, and question the status quo (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass and Avolio, 2000). Additionally, Messmann et al. (2022) acknowledged that transformational leaders, through their IS, can foster employees to think out of the box and plan innovation strategies. Moreover, Afsar and Umrani (2020b) stated that when transformational leaders stimulate their followers' intellectual thinking though constantly challenging their assumptions and thinking, this eventually fosters followers to engage in IBs. This has been confirmed by the qualitative results in which they have revealed that leaders intellectually stimulate their followers in several ways including; encouraging employees to be innovative and searching for new techniques with them, fostering employees to engage with clients and putting them under pressure to develop faster, encouraging employees to perceive things differently and think about how to solve problems in many ways, asking for different alternatives to deal with clients if one approach did not work and thinking out of the box, and being more innovative with clients. Confirming that, particularly in the Egyptian travel agents, Ali et al. (2020) recommended that transformational leaders should fully support the creative and intellectual sense of their employees and encourage them to participate and take responsibilities by listening to their opinions, suggestions, and ideas.

Besides, transformational leaders promote intellectual capacities and inspire followers to create opportunities that impact their own roles at the workplace, resulting in higher levels of IBs (Afsar et al., 2014; Grošelj et al., 2020). Further, transformational leaders, through IS, provide a work environment in which innovative thinking is appreciated and employees are free to conduct innovative practices, including IBs (Knezović and Drkić, 2021; Stanescu et al., 2021). Similarly, the qualitative results acknowledged that providing a supportive innovative environment enables employees to create more opportunities for them, provide novel ideas, apply new methods in dealing with clients, demonstrate different techniques, and conduct IBs. This is also confirmed in the Egyptian context in which Metwally et al. (2014) emphasised that transformational leaders provide an environment that helps their employees to become more creative and innovative and provide new ideas, allowing the Egyptian organisations to grow competitively.

Moreover, Bak et al. (2022) stressed that in order to inspire creativity and innovation in followers and foster their IBs, transformational leaders provide IS that enables followers to think critically, change ways of performing at work, and implement novel ideas to solve problems. The qualitative findings also showed that, through IS, employees are motivated to learn new methods, develop and improve themselves, and acquire necessary skills to be capable of conducting IBs such as being accurate and fast in dealing with clients, thinking innovatively, performing challenging tasks, and engaging innovatively with clients. This is also confirmed by Ibrahim et al. (2022) who declared that Egyptian employees are adapted to tackle various problems and challenges, promoting their innovative thinking and skills.

8.2.4. The Relationship Between IC and EIB

The association between IC and EIB (H1d) appears to be significant according to the quantitative and qualitative results. This matches with Afsar and Umrani (2020b) who confirmed that transformational leaders' personalised attention and support to followers' needs can foster them to engage in creative activities. Further, transformational leaders, through their personal consideration, encourage employees to pursue organisational goals of innovation and enhanced performance (Afsar et al., 2019), which can foster employees to express IBs. Also, Ibrahim et al. (2022) recommended that leaders in Egypt should express interest in, communicate with, and support their Egyptian employees to be innovative. Additionally, transformational leaders' IC stimulates employees to reciprocate with greater creativity and innovativeness (Afsar et al., 2014). Similarly, when employees perceive that their leaders care for them and consider their needs, they feel obligated to repay their leaders by exerting more effort and conducting IBs (Lim and Moon, 2022). Moreover, the qualitative findings have acknowledged that transformational leaders demonstrate IC by encouraging openness through discussing suggestions and providing autonomy to their employees, providing personal training and training courses to them, being considerate of their various needs, abilities, and capabilities, and highlighting their strengths and weaknesses, mistakes, or challenges to enhance their strengths, overcome their weaknesses, and reduce their mistakes. All of these IC's aspects stimulate employees' IBs. Particularly, when leaders are open to their employees, provide personal training to them, show them how to improve and develop their skills, emphasise their strengths and weaknesses, observe their mistakes at work and give them advice on how to avoid these mistakes, all of this enable employees to improve their skills, be more motivated to provide novel ideas, deal effectively with clients, and perform IBs.

Moreover, Mohamad (2012) highlighted that the relationship between leaders and their employees in Egypt are more personal and emotional in which leaders should be more than executives through acting like fathers who care about their family members. Confirming that, Bak et al. (2022) emphasised that transformational leaders, through their IC, act as meaningful advisors or mentors, providing a supportive innovative climate for their employees (Caillier, 2014; Günzel-Jensen et al., 2018), which stimulates them to be more innovative. Similarly, Masood and Afsar (2017) acknowledged that transformational leaders, through their IC, create a supportive environment, and through creating this supportive environment, transformational leaders foster their employees to engage in IBs (Bednall et al., 2018). The qualitative results also highlight that leaders provide a supportive atmosphere of openness to their employees, are open to new ideas, examine and discuss the new ideas openly with their employees, and clarify how to attract new clients using these ideas, which help employees to share their ideas and opinions openly and stimulate them to conduct IBs. Confirming that, Wongtada and Rice (2008) acknowledged that the workplace atmosphere in Egypt impacts employees' creativity which in turn stimulates innovative activities in the workplace.

Furthermore, as cited in Contreras et al. (2020), transformational leaders, through their IC, acknowledge the diversity of their followers' talents, which promotes their IBs (Reuvers et al., 2008). Moreover, Rafique et al. (2022) highlighted that transformational leaders provide personalised attention to their employees and meet their needs, which encourage employees to engage in innovative activities. Particularly, Mohamed (2016) concluded that Egyptian transformational leaders provide useful feedback to their employees, encourage and motivate them to work creatively, consider their personal needs, support them, develop their strengths, coach them to exert additional effort for realising novel ideas, and effectively foster them to engage in creative behaviours within an innovative climate. Similarly, the qualitative findings emphasise that transformational leaders realise the different talents of each employee and engage with each employee in a different way than the other based on each one's thinking, needs, abilities, and talents, and this helps in improving the work and skills of each employee and increasing their motivation to engage innovatively with clients and conduct IBs.

8.3. The Relationship Between ISE and EIB

The quantitative and qualitative results appear to indicate that the association between ISE and EIB (H2) is significant, which is consistent with the studies of (Gu and Peng, 2010; Yang et al., 2011; Dörner, 2012; Li et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2016; Ryan and Deci, 2017; Putri and Etikariena, 2022). For instance, as previously mentioned in chapter four, high ISE can foster employees and give them the confidence to conduct several innovative tasks and handle the challenges they face at their work, and so, they are more likely to perform IBs (Dörner, 2012). Similarly, ISE can lead to EIB in which employees with higher ISE levels will increase their confidence to create innovative ideas and become more innovative in conducting various tasks (Putri and Etikariena, 2022). The qualitative findings also have shown that having ISE is vital to employees and as long as they have ISE, they will be able to do their work properly, engage effectively with clients and persuade them through using their novel suggestions, apply new things, and perform IBs. Particularly, Mohamed (2016) declared that Egyptian employees widely believe in their self-efficacy regarding the knowledge, skills, and abilities required for a specific creative performance within their work. Additionally, Li et al. (2015) acknowledged that if organisations create an innovative climate and establish appropriate regulations stimulating innovation, it can foster employees' ISE, which in turn, may enhance their innovative performance (cited in Ma et al., 2016), including IBs. Moreover, the qualitative findings confirmed that providing an innovative climate increases employees' ISE which helps them to be calm and not worried while dealing with clients, feel confident in their innovative abilities to apply new methods at work, manage several challenges, and act innovatively by performing IBs. Confirming that, Badran and Youssef-Morgan (2015) acknowledged that efficacious Egyptian employees perceive their difficult work situations as challenges to be pursued rather than problems to be avoided, which stimulates them to be innovative in handling these challenges.

Moreover, Gu and Peng (2010), Yang et al. (2011), and Ryan and Deci (2017) emphasised the positive impact of ISE on EIB. Additionally, several studies (Li et al., 2020; Javed et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021a; Mashi et al., 2022; Bagheri et al., 2022) confirmed that CSE has a significant positive impact on EIB, which is used as a basis to support the link between ISE and EIB. For example, employees with high CSE are confident in their abilities to tackle new challenges when creating and promoting novel ideas at work, and so, they become motivated to actively respond to these challenges by conducting IBs (Wang et al., 2021a; Bagheri et al., 2022). This is also confirmed by the qualitative findings in which ISE enables employees to face challenges without fear and adapt quickly to sudden changes in demands from clients because of their confidence in their innovative capabilities to face these challenges.

Further, employees with high CSE believe that they can generate creative results (Ouyang et al., 2021), favour challenging tasks that are creative (Kumar et al., 2022), and can satisfy customers' needs and solve customers' complaints through their IBs (Yang et al., 2022). Similarly, the qualitative findings acknowledged that employees with high ISE are able to complete their tasks easily without any pressure or fear, meet clients' needs and engage innovatively with them, and perform IBs. Also, the qualitative findings emphasised the significance of ISE by warning about the risks of not having ISE. Specifically, Egyptian employees stress that without having ISE, they will not be able to engage innovatively with clients or give them the information they need, and they will feel more worried and anxious about their innovative capabilities to complete their tasks, limiting their IBs. Accordingly, Badran and Youssef-Morgan (2015) recommended that organisations in Egypt should enhance employees' self-efficacy because it can encourage Egyptian employees' participation, facilitate their empowerment and idea sharing, and improve their performance through pursuing more challenging goals.

8.4. The Relationship Between TL and ISE

The associations seem to be significant between II.C and ISE (H3a), IM and ISE (H3b), IS and ISE (H3c), and IC and ISE (H3d) according to the quantitative and qualitative results. This is consistent with previous studies (Dörner, 2012; Mokhber et al., 2016; Afsar and Masood, 2018; Le et al., 2018; Chaubey et al., 2019; Choi, 2019; Djourova et al., 2020; Asada et al., 2021; Jing et al., 2021; Salanova et al., 2022; Tian and Guo, 2022; Maria et al., 2022; Shamshad and Naqi Khan, 2022). Afsar and Masood (2018) and Asada et al. (2021) found a positive relationship between TL and CSE, while Salanova et al. (2022) found that TL is a predictor of individual self-efficacy, in which these studies are used as a basis for supporting the link between TL and ISE. Besides, Mokhber et al. (2016) emphasised that leadership can be directly associated with ISE. Specifically, Dörner (2012) highlighted that transformational leaders give followers positive feedback on innovative acts, which increases their followers' ISE. Further, showing faith in employees' capabilities by transformational leaders helps employees in promoting their ISE beliefs (Dörner, 2012). This is confirmed by the qualitative findings which have emphasised that when leaders show trust in their employees, encourage and support them, respect them, be proud of them, and believe in their capabilities to complete their tasks, employees' ISE increases greatly and they become motivated to exert more efforts to realise their targets and make their leaders proud of them.

More particularly, Regarding II.C, Bayraktar and Jiménez (2020) highlighted that transformational leaders serve as role models for their followers, and people's self-efficacy are promoted through imitating role models (Djourova et al., 2020). Similarly, transformational leaders can enhance their followers' self-efficacy through role modelling appropriate actions because followers are affiliated with their leaders which aids them to promote their self-efficacy (Shamshad and Naqi Khan, 2022), and possibly enhance their ISE as well. Accordingly, observing transformational leaders with positive self-concepts assists employees to strengthen their confidence toward goals (Murphy and Anderson, 2020). Therefore, transformational leaders with positive self-concepts can enable employees to strengthen their ISE toward realising innovative goals. Additionally, since transformational leaders usually have high self-efficacy (Bass, 1990), and by imitating these leaders, followers are able to increase their own self-efficacy (Djourova et al., 2020), suggesting that followers can also increase their ISE by imitating transformational leaders. Likewise, in the Egyptian context, Mohamed (2016) acknowledged that transformational leaders increase their employees' CSE by persuading them that they can be creative, organising effective training initiatives to them, providing the relevant details of the tasks assigned to them, and applying their creativity related skills. Accordingly, transformational leaders can enhance their employees' ISE as well. The qualitative findings have confirmed that when some employees are not able to achieve certain targets or do not know how to engage with clients properly, their leaders come to assist them. The leaders, as role models, help their employees, show them how to realise these targets and engage with clients innovatively, guide and encourage them, give them guidelines to follow, and believe in their abilities to achieve these targets. By doing so, employees imitate the way followed by their leaders in engaging with clients and achieving targets, and when employees succeed in doing that, their ISE increases greatly and they aspire to prove themselves more to their leaders.

Further, concerning IM, as cited in Djourova et al. (2020), when transformational leaders inspirationally motivate their employees, they become more confident in their ability to develop novel ideas (Bass and Avolio, 1990), and possibly innovative ideas as well. Additionally, Gong et al. (2009) declared that IM fosters employees' intrinsic motivation to perform creative tasks and increases their CSE, and potentially increases their ISE as well. Furthermore, Shamshad and Naqi Khan (2022) acknowledged that conveying transformational leaders' visions to their employees inspirationally motivate them to promote their self-efficacy and improve their performance, which also may enhance their ISE. The qualitative findings also have shown that Egyptian employees' ISE emerges because of their leaders' encouragement to them. According to Egyptian employees, when leaders encourage and inspirationally motivate them, they feel better and have more ISE, love their work more and become more attached to their travel agents, and become motivated to give more to their travel agents and make more profits, which increase their ISE even more. Besides, according to Avolio et al. (1999), transformational leaders' IM emphasises a clear communication with followers through explaining their roles to better understand what is required from them, and this contributes to a greater sense of control, which is a key element of self-efficacy (Bandura and Wood, 1989). Similarly, Chen and Bliese (2002) found that the more employees understand their roles, the more efficacious they are, indicating that more understanding of work roles can also increase employees' ISE. Confirming that, the qualitative findings have revealed that when there is a good working atmosphere and a good relationship and a good dialogue or communication between Egyptian leaders and their employees, everything gets easier and better for employees. When leaders show their employees what is required from them during the periodic meetings with them, give them instructions on how to complete tasks in a clear manner, emphasise what is expected from them, listen to their ideas openly, and trust them to realise the required targets, employees become happier and more motivated to work, increasing their ISE. Also, when employees do mistakes at their work, their leaders comfort them and handle their mistakes in a simple manner, which will make employees feel more at ease and work without pressure, increasing their confidence in their innovative abilities to do their tasks even more.

Additionally, with regard to IS, Le et al. (2018) acknowledged that transformational leaders can stimulate independent and creative thinking skills in employees by promoting their CSE (cited in Maria et al., 2022), and probably enhancing their ISE as well. Also, Mittal and Dhar (2015) declared that creativity necessitates individuals to be highly confident while doing creative tasks. Accordingly, when leaders support creative ideas of their employees (Wu and Parker, 2017), this increases employees' self-belief in their creative skills and competencies (Chaubey et al., 2019). Besides, Dvir et al. (2002) confirmed that transformational leaders enhance employees' critical thinking, and so, employees perceive themselves as being able to generate creative outcomes (Choi, 2019), and potentially innovative outcomes as well. Further, Sivanathan et al. (2004) highlighted that transformational leaders foster followers to find better ways of doing things, resulting in higher self-efficacy levels (Salanova et al., 2022), and possibly higher ISE levels as well. The qualitative results have confirmed that when leaders teach their employees new things, develop their skills, improve their creative thinking, encourage them to find new ways of interacting with clients, and listen openly to their innovative ideas and accept them if they are applicable, employees' ISE increases greatly. This is because when employees enhance their skills and improve their creative thinking abilities, they become more confident in their innovative abilities to deal effectively with clients and know exactly what to say to them to satisfy their needs, which will reduce their mistakes at work and motivate them to work more. The qualitative findings also have shown that when leaders push their employees to be better, motivate them to find new solutions to problems, stimulate them to think out of the box, accept their novel ideas, and give them challenging tasks to do, these employees feel like they are trusted and appreciated from their leaders, resulting in increasing their ISE and their motivation to work. That is why Mohamed (2016) conditioned that Egyptian employees may need leaders' IS to promote their CSE because employees need to become more confident in their ability to develop new ideas, and so, leaders should influence their employees by inspiring their goals and providing them with confidence to perform beyond the specified expectations, which potentially may increase their ISE.

Finally, regarding IC, transformational leaders use incentive feedback to send their respect, recognition, and consideration signals to their employees, which may help employees to enhance their ISE when engaging with their leaders (Jing et al., 2021). Also, when transformational leaders provide mentorship to employees, these employees gain successful mastery experiences, resulting in increasing their self-efficacy (Choi, 2019), and potentially increasing their ISE as well. Moreover, transformational leaders consider their followers' capabilities, meet their needs, listen to their concerns, encourage their efforts to perform tasks, and highlight their importance in realising necessary outcomes (Bass and Avolio, 1990). These considerations increase followers' self-efficacy (Djourova et al., 2020), and help in sustaining their CSE (Choi, 2019), and potentially increasing and sustaining their ISE as well. Likewise, the qualitative results have emphasised that Egyptian leaders treat their employees in a respectful manner, give them tasks that match with their skills and abilities, consider and satisfy their personal needs, encourage and support them, listen to their concerns, are proud of them and fair to them, highlight their strengths and weaknesses, and guide them to reduce their mistakes at work. All these considerations from Egyptian leaders give their employees a great confidence in their innovative capabilities and motivate them to work more and interact better with clients, increasing their ISE even more.

8.5. The Mediating Role of ISE in The Relationship Between TL and EIB

The quantitative results seem to show that mediating role of ISE is significant in the relationship between II.C and EIB (H4a) and between IM and EIB (H4b), while is not supported in the association between IS and EIB (H4c) and between IC and EIB (H4d), and the qualitative findings have provided justifications for these results. Firstly, regarding the significant results (H4a and H4b), this is consistent with Afsar and Masood (2018) who proved that CSE mediates the relationship between TL and EIB and declared that TL assists in creating the environment stimulating CSE, which in turn facilitates expressing EIB. This means that employees' ISE may be also fostered by TL, leading to performing IBs because of employees' confidence in their innovative abilities. Also, several previous studies, as mentioned in chapter four, showed that CSE mediates the relationship between TL and various outcomes such as employee creativity (Gong et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2014; Chaubey et al., 2019; Tran et al., 2021; Maria et al., 2022) and innovative activities (Slåtten, 2014). Further, Lei et al. (2020) approved that self-efficacy mediates the association between TL and innovation capabilities. All these previous studies provide a solid basis for supporting the mediating role of ISE in the relationship between TL and EIB. The qualitative findings also have confirmed that ISE is crucial and must exist alongside leader's encouragement to assist employees to express IBs.

Specifically, regarding II.C (H4a), as mentioned in chapter four, Afsar and Masood (2018) emphasised that since transformational leaders perform as creative role models, they can encourage their employees and persuade them that they can conduct creative activities, and so, increasing employees' CSE, and likely their ISE as well, which indirectly may stimulate them to perform IBs. Further, Mohamed (2016) recommended that Egyptian transformational leaders should serve as creative role models and foster novel approaches to increase their employees' CSE, and probably increase their ISE as well, which may help them to generate creative ideas and potentially perform IBs. Confirming that, the qualitative findings have proved that when leaders, as innovative role models, provide a supportive innovative climate to their employees and encourage them to provide new ideas, these employees feel more power and confidence, want to imitate their leaders, sense that everything is easier for them, and work more freely and happily, resulting in increasing their ISE, which in turn, stimulates them to perform IBs. Further, to some employees, having ISE is crucial as it helps them and indirectly influences the impact of their leaders on their IBs. Moreover, other employees emphasise having ISE as the most significant factor for them; even if their leaders encourage them continuously, they must have ISE to be able to do their jobs and exert IBs, highlighting the vital role of ISE as a mediator in the relationship between TL and EIB.

Additionally, concerning IM (H4b), creating a clear and positive communication with employees increases their sense of control (Avolio et al., 1999), which makes them gain more self-efficacy (Chen and Bliese, 2002), and may give them the confidence necessary to perform creative activities. This shows that transformational leaders, through their IM, can stimulate employees' ISE by creating a clear and positive communication with them, which indirectly could foster them to express IBs. Similarly, according to the qualitative findings, when Egyptian leaders communicate effectively and have a good relationship with their employees, inspirationally motivate them to realise their targets, and clearly show them how and why they should complete a certain task, employees' ISE will increase greatly, stimulating them to become innovative in engaging with clients and meet their needs in an innovative way. Also, Egyptian employees declare that when their leaders encourage and motivate them, this shows that their leaders are happy with them, which pushes employees more and increases their ISE, which in turn fosters them to deal better with clients, apply novel ideas, and perform IBs. Further, other employees warn that without having ISE, even if their leaders encourage and inspirationally motivate them constantly, they will not be capable of doing anything, their performance will not be stable, will not have the confidence to sell anything or book tickets to clients, feel worried and anxious from doing anything, which eventually could negatively impact them and reduce their abilities to perform IBs and engage innovatively with clients.

Secondly, the results of H4c and H4d are not supported which are inconsistent with Gong et al. (2009), Mohamed (2016), and Afsar and Masood (2018). Particularly, concerning IS (H4c), transformational leaders utilise their self-regulation feature to promote employees' independent thinking abilities through developing their CSE (Gong et al., 2009; Maria et al., 2022), and persuade them that they can provide creative outcomes. Therefore, through IS, it is also feasible that transformational leaders can stimulate their employees' innovative thinking and persuade them that they can be innovative, which may increase their ISE, leading to performing IBs indirectly. Further, Mohamed (2016) highlighted that when Egyptian transformational leaders stimulate their employees' thinking and increase their experiences from performing various activities, this promotes employees' confidence to realise creative activities and increases their creative skills, stimulating them to provide novel ideas, and more likely exhibit IBs. Nevertheless, according to the qualitative results, some employees show that they already have ISE and are capable of dealing with clients innovatively without any encouragement from their leaders because it is their job and they have to do it whether there is encouragement or not. The qualitative results also have shown that, to some Egyptian employees, ISE comes from the employees themselves. Particularly, some employees have ISE and others do not have ISE whether they are encouraged by their leaders to think innovatively and perform challenging tasks or not. Accordingly, even if Egyptian leaders encourage some employees, stimulate their creative thinking, and foster them to provide novel ideas, these employees will still do not have the confidence in their innovative capabilities which could discourage them from performing IBs.

Moreover, regarding IC (H4d), Afsar and Masood (2018) confirmed that by providing individual encouragement, caring, and support to employees, transformational leaders reduce employees' fear and anxiety resulting from the ambiguity of doing creative activities, increasing employees' CSE, and also resulting in more confidence to perform IBs. This shows that transformational leaders' support and encouragement can probably increase employees' ISE, which in turn may give them the confidence required to perform IBs. More particularly, in Egypt, Mohamed (2016) stressed that transformational leaders should show appreciation, empathy, consideration, and support for their employees' efforts so as to increase their CSE, and potentially increase their ISE as well, allowing them to generate novel ideas and be more innovative. However, based on the qualitative findings, leaders can trust their employees, encourage and motivate them, care for them, and consider their personal needs and abilities, but instead of being motivated and having ISE, employees become nervous and anxious from the good treatment and consideration they receive from their leaders and they do not want to let them down or lose their leaders' big trust in them, and so, their ISE decreases and they provide poor work and their IBs will not be great. Also, some other employees acknowledge that they can engage in their travel agents without having ISE because they are working in a pressured environment and they must complete any task required from them. So, when leaders instruct them to complete a task, they have to do it, whether they have ISE or not, which potentially could limit their abilities to exhibit IBs.

Overall, based on the previous discussions regarding H4a, H4b, H4c, and H4d, it is clear that most participants agree that ISE is essential besides transformational leaders' behaviours to foster frontline employees to express IBs. However, some of the participants have shown various opinions suggesting that ISE might not be needed as a mediator or its presence is unnecessary to foster IBs. That is why some of the results concerning the mediating role of ISE seem to be significant (H4a and H4b), while the other results appear to be not supported (H4c and H4d), and this has been clarified from analysing both quantitative and qualitative findings. Still, this does not mean that the mediating role of ISE in the association between TL and EIB is not important. Specifically, the inconsistency in this study can be due to limitations in the sample because of the devastating impact of COVID-19. Particularly, due to COVID-19, there was a rapid tendency toward the increase of the virus in Egypt because there were several confirmed cases and many fatalities (Ibrahim and Sheikhany, 2022). Accordingly, as previously mentioned in chapter one, international travel restrictions limited tourism to Egypt (Breisinger et al., 2020), its airports were closed (Rezk et al., 2020), its travel agencies were severely impacted because of the significant slowdown in transactions (Abay et al., 2020), and its government closed touristic sites and cleared all tourist areas (Abdelsalam and Elbelehy, 2020). Therefore, employees must have been impacted by the negative effects of COVID-19 because the restrictions that have been enforced by national governments to avoid the risk of getting infected with COVID-19 may impact EIB (Kapoor et al., 2021), and employees may feel uncertain due to the changes caused by the pandemic which could hinder their IBs (Montani and Staglianò, 2022). Consequently, due to these sudden changes and uncertainties, employees may feel worried and anxious about the future of their work, which may reduce their confidence in their innovative capabilities, and eventually could limit their IBs. That is probably why the employees who provided negative results concerning the mediating role of ISE may be more than the employees who provided positive results, leading to both significant and non-significant findings. In general, the mediating role of ISE is still vital in the relationship between TL and EIB.

8.6. The Moderating Role of POS in The Relationship Between TL and EIB

The moderating role of POS appears to be only significant in the association between II.C and EIB (H5a), while is not supported regarding the impact of IM, IS, and IC on EIB (H5b, H5c, and H5d, respectively) according to the quantitative results, and the qualitative findings have justified these results. Firstly, the significant finding regarding (H5a) is consistent with Choi et al. (2016), Wang et al. (2021b), and Musenze and Mayende (2022) who emphasised the moderating role of POS in the relationship between leadership and innovation. For instance, Choi et al. (2016) acknowledged that POS strengthens trust between transformational leaders and their employees and ensures that employees are committed to their organisations, and so, to reciprocate this trust, employees become more intrinsically motivated and more innovative in solving existing problems. This is confirmed by the qualitative findings in which Egyptian employees emphasise that POS is significant for stimulating their IBs and its presence greatly supports the impact of TL on EIB. For example, when Egyptian employees perceive that they are supported by their leaders and travel agents, they become motivated to return the favour by doing certain activities such as staying extra hours after finishing their regular hours to finish any incomplete work and perform IBs. Likewise, Egyptian employees stress that it is always better to have organisational support as it will give them more peace and assurance in their work, which will help them besides their leaders' encouragement to them to perform IBs. Confirming that, Abou Shouk et al. (2019) emphasised that POS is one of the main enabling factors of EIB in the Egyptian tourism companies. Also, the qualitative results have highlighted that if employees perceive that they are not appreciated or supported either from their leaders or travel agents, they will not be able to do anything, will not improve themselves, and feel insecure and worried which will make them do mistakes at work, reducing their IBs.

Additionally, Wang et al. (2021b) confirmed that when employees perceive their organisations as being supportive, they are less likely to feel exhausted and depleted of mental energy, motivating them to express green IBs. The qualitative results also have shown that when Egyptian employees perceive organisational support in the form of receiving monetary and emotional support and going for free trips at the expense of their travel agents, this will replenish their energy, reduce their mistakes at work, make them feel more secured, assured, comfortable, and ease at work, and become motivated to apply novel ideas in dealing with clients and conduct IBs. Moreover, according to Musenze and Mayende (2022), a perceived environment of support helps leaders to make employees feel supported and valued through mechanisms such as participative decision-making and shared communication, which can stimulate employees to be innovative (Doğru, 2018). Particularly, in Egypt, Mohamed (2016) declared that leaders build positive perceptions of their Egyptian employees about a supporting climate which will stimulate their creativity. Similarly, when Egyptian employees perceive that the organisational climate of their organisations supports innovation, their IBs increase (Ibrahim et al., 2022). Confirming that, the qualitative findings have revealed that when there is a supporting climate in which a clear and open communication exists between leaders and their employees, leaders are open to and accept their employees' ides, and support and care for them, this will stimulate employees to conduct IBs. Further, according to the qualitative findings, Egyptian employees acknowledge that both leaders' encouragement and organisational support are linked to each other and complement each other, and both will greatly stimulate employees to perform IBs.

More specifically, regarding II.C (H5a), Yoon et al. (2019) and Korku and Kaya (2022) acknowledged that supportive leaders act as good role models and appreciate their members' contributions. Also, supportive organisations foster organisational members to create an environment that increases intrinsic motivation and stimulates followers to be committed to work projects (Kouzes and Posner, 2006), which may encourage expressing their IBs. Additionally, the qualitative findings have indicated that when Egyptian leaders support their employees by acting as role models to them, giving them personal leaves, providing monetary and emotional support to them, resolving their mistakes, paying for their training courses, and providing promotion opportunities to them, employees will feel more relieved, assured, satisfied, committed to their travel agents, and eventually intrinsically motivated to express IBs. Confirming that, Salem et al. (2021) highlighted that when support is provided to Egyptian employees, they become more satisfied at their jobs and more committed to their organisations, which may foster them to conduct IBs.

On the other hand, the results of (H5b, H5c, and H5d) are not supported which are inconsistent with previous studies (Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, 2009; Afsar et al., 2014; Bednall et al., 2018; Afsar et al., 2019; Afsar and Umrani, 2020b; Rafique et al., 2022; Lim and Moon, 2022), suggesting that POS might not reinforce transformational leaders' impact on EIB. Specifically, regarding IM (H5b), when employees perceive support from transformational leaders through their IM, this assists employees to conduct behaviours focused on finding novel ways of doing things (Afsar et al., 2014), and may perform IBs. Additionally, POS encourages transformational leaders to increase their IM among employees and communicate the organisational vision to them (Bednall et al., 2018), fostering employees to conduct IBs through establishing a strong sense of shared vision with the organisation (Afsar and Umrani, 2020b; Rafique et al., 2022). However, based on the qualitative findings, some Egyptian employees state that organisational support is not available in their travel agents, but instead there are rules to follow which are established by leaders, and so, these rules must be followed whether there is organisational support or not. Also, to some employees, their leaders do not create a good relationship with them to build mutual trust and respect between each other, but instead leaders treat them in a formal way and focus on just giving them instructions to realise goals, which reduce employees' stimulation to engage innovatively with clients.

Moreover, concerning IS (H5c), Suhana et al. (2019) highlighted that POS impacts transformational leaders' IS, which encourages employees to demonstrate IBs because Khan et al. (2020a) and Lim and Moon (2022) declared that transformational leaders' IS associates with employees' creativity and innovativeness and helps employees to be creative in handling problems. Moreover, according to Afsar et al. (2019), if employees perceive that their transformational leaders support them and stimulate their intellectual thinking through challenging their thinking constantly, they become motivated to conduct IBs. Nevertheless, the qualitative findings have revealed that, to some employees, Egyptian leaders treat their employees in a fixed routine manner; leaders are just sitting in their offices, give their employees instructions to complete their tasks, do not stimulate their innovative thinking, do not want to listen to their novel ideas, and provide less encouragement and support to them while realising their tasks, hindering employees' motivation to perform IBs.

Further, with regard to IC (H5d), if employees perceive that their transformational leaders support them through their IC, these employees are inspired to repay their leaders' support with greater innovativeness (Afsar et al., 2014; Lim and Moon, 2022), and probably conduct IBs. Similarly, perceiving organisational support through TL's personalised attention and support for employees' needs fosters employees to conduct creative activities (Afsar et al., 2019; Rafique et al., 2022). Moreover, POS impacts transformational leaders' IC through a better understanding of employees' needs and fostering creativity (Gumusluoglu and Ilsev, 2009), which could stimulate employees to demonstrate IBs. However, according to the qualitative findings, some Egyptian employees acknowledge that providing organisational support differs from one travel agent to another. Particularly, some travel agents support their employees when they do mistakes by taking full or partial responsibility for their mistakes, while on the other hand, other travel agents do not support their employees and hold them fully responsible for their mistakes. Further, Egyptian employees address that their leaders treat them in the same manner by not differentiating between them based on their abilities, skills, and personal needs. Instead, leaders do not consider their employees' needs or abilities and give them orders to realise goals that are expected to be completed whether employees are able to realise them or not. This lack of support negatively impacts employees' motivation to provide novel ideas or perform IBs.

Nevertheless, despite the reasons provided regarding the lack of organisational support in the previous discussion, the qualitative findings have acknowledged that most of Egyptian employees agree that the main reason causing them to not perceive organisational support from their travel agents is due to the disastrous impact of COVID-19. Specifically, Egyptian employees highlight that when COVID-19 hit, no flight tickets were bought, travel was restricted, flights were cancelled, borders were closed, and so, no money was coming to travel agents and no monthly payments were paid to employees, and even the leaders were harmed greatly by COVID-19 and were not able to work. Accordingly, this forced lots of travel agents' leaders to lay off their employees, who as a result said that their travel agents do not support them. Further, some Egyptian employees stated that during COVID-19, they had to stay at home without getting paid, and when they got back after COVID-19, they perceived that the support provided by their travel agents is reduced through not holding many meetings and cancelling all monterey incentives so as to adjust to the negative impacts of COVID-19. Accordingly, this reduction of organisational support negatively impacts transformational leaders' ability to motivate their Egyptian employees properly to perform IBs.

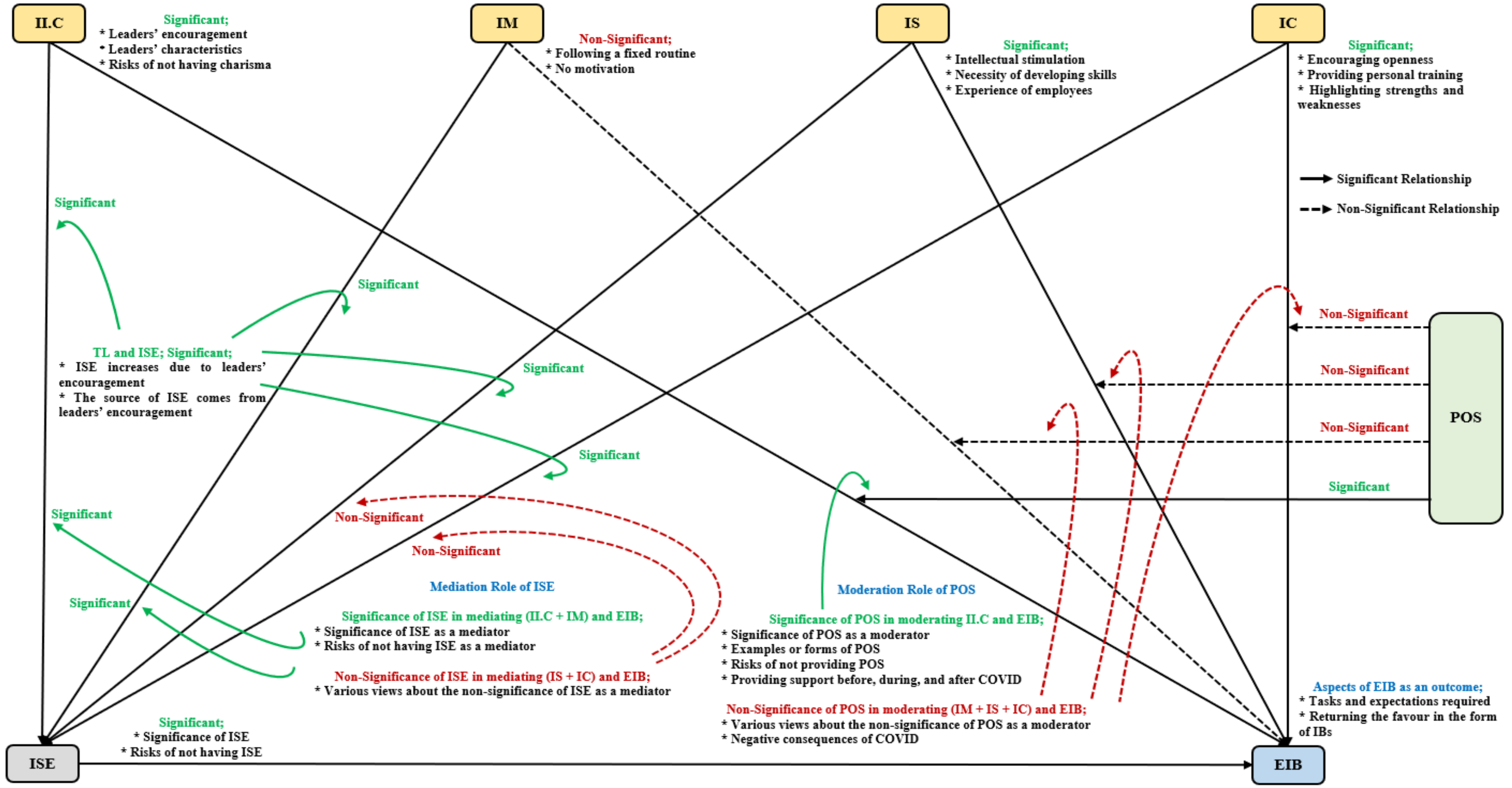
However, despite the negative impacts of COVID-19, according to the qualitative findings, some Egyptian employees acknowledge that organisational support was still provided during and after COVID-19. Specifically, during COVID-19, some employees highlighted that their leaders gave them their monthly salary while staying at home and doing nothing. Accordingly, these employees perceived that they were greatly supported, and so, were fully committed and attached to their leaders and travel agents. Other employees said that their leaders made them work for short periods and compensated them only for these short periods so that leaders can adjust during COVID-19 and at the same time do not lay off their employees which was a major support to them. After COVID-19, some employees confirmed that when COVID-19 hit, they left to work in other places temporarily in order to survive, and when the situation turned better after COVID-19, they came back to their original positions in their travel agents which was regarded as a big support to them. Also, other Egyptian employees emphasised that organisational support was provided at all times and there was no difference between before and after COVID-19. In fact, other employees confirmed that organisational support was increased even more after COVID-19 because employees were significantly impacted by COVID-19, and so, they needed more support which they perceived when they started working again after COVID-19, fostering them to engage innovatively with clients and perform IBs. Validating that, Ashmawy (2022) acknowledged that offering support through providing more information about COVID-19 and the required tasks during that pandemic to Egyptian employees help them to become more innovative and flexible to cope with the new situation and fulfil their objectives. Also, Ali et al. (2020) recommended that transformational leaders should support their employees within the Egyptian travel agencies and foster them to take responsibility for the crises that their travel agencies may face, such as COVID-19, and know how to face these crises, which may motivate them to be more flexible, try novel and various ways of completing tasks, and exhibit IBs.

Overall, based on the previous discussions, it is clear that POS is significant for fostering EIB and it strengthens the impact of transformational leaders, who in turn stimulate frontline employees to express IBs. Also, various views, positive and negative, are provided by Egyptian employees concerning the moderating role of POS in the association between TL and EIB. That is why one of the findings seems to be significant (H5a), while the remaining three findings appear to be not supported (H5b, H5c, H5d). However, the unsupported findings here do not mean that POS is not essential for reinforcing the influence of TL on EIB. Simply, a possible main reason can be attributed to the destructive crisis of COVID-19 which results in changing frontline employees' views about organisational support and it also impacts the sample size of the respondents. Therefore, probably, the employees who have negative views about POS are more than the employees who have positive views, resulting in the unsupported findings. Yet, the previous discussions have confirmed that POS is vital and can reinforce the impact of TL on EIB. Overall, after providing justifications for the significant and non-significant findings regarding the study relationships, the researcher provides a chart highlighting the significant and non-significant hypotheses in addition to the link between the quantitative and qualitative approaches of the study as shown in Figure 8.1.

8.7. Conclusion

This chapter discusses the research's quantitative and qualitative results in relation to previous literature sources so as to examine the extent to which results are consistent and which are not. Based on this discussion, it is clear that some of the study's findings are consistent with previous studies' findings. However, this study also adds major contributions to previous studies. Particularly, it provides a major extension to TL theory and self-efficacy theory and contributes theoretically and practically to the research in leadership, self-efficacy, organisational support, innovative behaviour, and tourism. Accordingly, in the next chapter, the study's conclusion, theoretical and practical implications, limitations, and future research are provided in more details.

Figure 8.1. The Link Between The Quantitative and The Qualitative Approaches of The Study



CHAPTER NINE – CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND FUTURE RESEARCH

9.1 Introduction

This main aim of this thesis is to investigate the impact of TL on EIB through the mediating role of ISE and the moderating role of POS among frontline employees in the Egyptian travel agents. In the previous chapters, the relevant literature sources were critically reviewed, a detailed research design and a justification with support of literature sources were provided, and collected data were thoroughly analysed quantitatively and qualitatively.

This chapter summarises this study's main findings that are associated with its aims and objectives. Also, it presents key implications in relation to theory and practice which will realise the fifth objective of this study; providing recommendations for travel agents' leaders (owners), frontline employees, and travel agents regarding how to stimulate IBs. Finally, this chapter highlights this study's limitations and suggests directions for future research.

9.2. Main Conclusions

This study has four main objectives. The first three objectives highlight the conceptual model consisting of the relationship between TL and EIB, the mediating role of ISE, and the moderating role of POS in the relationship between TL and EIB. The fourth objective reveals qualitative insights from frontline employees regarding how TL, ISE, and POS impact their IBs. This section summarises the key findings in relation to these four objectives accordingly.

9.2.1. Assessing The Direct Relationship Between TL and EIB

The study's first objective is to explore the direct relationship between TL and EIB. To do so, the researcher firstly examined the relationship between TL in general and EIB. Secondly, in more details, the researcher investigated how each dimension of TL (II.C, IM, IS, IC) influences EIB. The quantitative results appear to reveal that transformational leaders' II.C, IS, and IC positively impact EIB. On the other hand, the influence of transformational leaders' IM on EIB is not supported.

The qualitative findings provided further insights to these results. Firstly, the findings showed that transformational leaders' II.C is shaped in their encouragement, support, and taking pride in their Egyptian employees. The findings also highlighted leaders' characteristics and their relationship with their employees and the risks of not having charisma. These reasons provide a good support for the positive association between II.C and EIB. Secondly, the main reason for why IM did not influence EIB is because leaders follow a fixed routine, do not motivate their employees, and do not provide promotion opportunities to them, which make employees less motivated, reducing their IBs. However, the findings also showed evidence that the association between IM and EIB can be significant. Possible reasons include leaders' periodic meeting with their employees, making plans to achieve new targets and providing instructions to their employees on how to engage with clients, and fostering team spirit and teamwork among employees. Thirdly, the qualitative findings showed that IS positively impacts EIB through leaders' intellectually stimulating their employees to apply new methods and perform challenging tasks using different techniques. Further, the findings emphasised the necessity for Egyptian employees to improve themselves and acknowledged that having an experience enables employees to apply novel methods, employ various techniques, and provide new ideas, enabling them to conduct IBs. Finally, the qualitative findings demonstrated that transformational leaders' IC is provided through encouraging openness and providing autonomy to employees, providing personal training and training courses to them, highlighting their strengths and weaknesses, and considering their different needs and abilities and engaging with them based on these needs. These reasons present a good support for the positive relationship between IC and EIB. Therefore, the first objective of this study is realised.

9.2.2. Assessing The Mediating Role of ISE in The Relationship Between TL and EIB

The study's second objective is to investigate the mediating role of ISE in the association between TL and EIB. To do so, the researcher first examined the relationship between ISE and EIB, then the relationship between TL and ISE, and finally the mediating role of ISE. The quantitative findings showed that the relationship between ISE and EIB is significant. Also, the impact of TL through II.C, IM, IS, and IC on ISE is significant. Regarding the mediating role of ISE, the findings showed that ISE is significant as a mediator concerning the impact of II.C and IM on EIB, while is not supported regarding the influence of IS and IC on EIB.

The qualitative findings provided justifications for these results. Firstly, Egyptian employees emphasised the significance of ISE in stimulating their IBs and demonstrated the risks of not having ISE and their influence on EIB, which support the positive relationship between ISE and EIB. Secondly, when Egyptian employees were asked about the influence of TL on ISE, they provided similar answers to what they gave regarding the impact of TL on EIB. Generally, Egyptian employees highlighted that when leaders trust, encourage, and take pride in them, their ISE increases. They also stressed that the source of their ISE comes from their leaders' encouragement and trust in them, being open to them, and being proud of them. Thirdly, some of the employees acknowledged the importance of having ISE as a mediator to indirectly help transformational leaders stimulate their employees' IBs and also emphasised the risks of not having ISE as a mediator and how its presence is necessary besides leaders' encouragement and motivation to their employees to conduct IBs. On the other hand, other employees had various opinions suggesting that ISE might not be ideal as a mediator in the relationship between TL and EIB. For instance, some employees said that they already have ISE and they do not need any encouragement from their leaders to conduct IBs. Other employees stated that having ISE differs from one employee to another; one employee has an ISE because of his/her leader's encouragement to him/her, which stimulates his/her IBs, while another employee after receiving trust and encouragement from his/her leader, he/she becomes afraid and worry from the trust and encouragement the leader gives to him/her, and so, he/she becomes more nervous and worried and do not want to let his/her leader down, reducing his/her ability to perform IBs. These reasons provide a sound justification for why ISE might not function as a mediator in the relationship between TL and EIB. Based on the above information, the study's second objective is met.

9.2.3. Assessing The Moderating Role of POS in The Relationship Between TL and EIB

The study's third objective is to assess the moderating role of POS in the relationship between TL and EIB. To do so, firstly, the researcher emphasised the relationship between POS and EIB. Secondly, the researcher highlighted how POS could strengthen the impact of transformational leaders' dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) on their employees' IBs. The quantitative findings showed that POS is significant as a moderator only regarding the impact of II.C on EIB, while is not supported concerning the impact of IM, IS, and IC on EIB.

The qualitative findings provided justifications for these results. From one point, Egyptian employees emphasised the vital role of POS in strengthening the impact of TL on EIB. Employees also showed examples or forms of organisational support provided either by their leaders or travel agents. Additionally, Egyptian employees showed evidence that organisational support was provided to them before, during, and after COVID-19. Further, employees warned about the risks of not providing organisational support to them. These reasons support the positive impact of POS as moderator in the relationship between II.C and EIB. On the other hand, other employees revealed that POS may not work as a moderator. For instance, most of the employees believed that COVID-19 is the main reason that prevented them from getting any organisational support. Leaders or travel agents did not support their employees not because they wanted to, but because the hard conditions of COVID-19 have forced them to, as they had to lay off employees just to keep their travel agents running.

Therefore, Egyptian employees emphasised the negative consequences of COVID-19 and its impact on EIB. Other employees had various views about why POS might not work as a moderator. For example, some employees said that organisational support is not available in their travel agents and they merely have rules to follow whether there is support or not. Other employees demonstrated that providing organisational support through addressing honest mistakes differs from one travel agent to another; one might support the employee fully, another might support the employee partially, and another might not support the employee at all and holds him/her fully accountable for the mistake made. These reasons provide sensible justifications regarding why POS might not function properly as a moderator in the association between TL and EIB. Drawing on the above information, the study's third objective is achieved.

Accordingly, the first three objectives of this study are highlighted in the previous sections. On the other hand, the study's fourth objective is to reveal qualitative insights from frontline employees regarding how TL, ISE, and POS impact their IBs. This objective is achieved through the qualitative analysis that provided insights about Egyptian frontline employees' responses concerning the study's relationships which are highlighted in the qualitative findings in sections 9.2.1, 9.2.2, and 9.2.3.

9.3. Theoretical Implications

The contribution to this study is twofold, relating to both theory and practice. This study explores the impact of TL on EIB through the mediating role of ISE and the moderating role of POS. The results are significant and contribute to theory on this subject. Particularly, this study strives to contribute mainly to the body of knowledge on TL, ISE, POS, and EIB by integrating five developed streams of research that have been overlooked previously. Also, this study seeks to fill some of the research gaps by providing empirical, theoretical, and methodological insights from an academic perspective in the Egyptian tourism industry. Accordingly, theoretical and practical implications are provided in the following sections, starting with theoretical implications in this section.

Specifically, this study contributes by being the first to develop and test a model including TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC), ISE, POS, and EIB in one model, providing major contributions to leadership, self-efficacy, organisational support, innovation, and tourism research. Each relationship among the study's constructs provides theoretical and methodological contributions as demonstrated in the following sub-sections.

9.3.1. The Relationship between TL and EIB

Several studies acknowledged that TL has a significant positive impact on EIB (Choi et al., 2016; Bednall et al., 2018; Tayal et al., 2018; Afsar and Masood, 2018; Li et al., 2019; Afsar et al., 2019; Afsar and Umrani, 2020a, 2020b; Su et al., 2020; Grošelj et al., 2021; Chung and Li, 2021; Bak et al., 2022; Lim and Moon, 2022; Rafique et al., 2022). However, these previous studies have examined the general role of TL as a second order construct without particularly determining the impact of its four dimensions on EIB. Therefore, this study provides a major contribution to the relationship between TL and EIB and strengthens TL theory by specifically determining the impact of II.C, IM, IS, and IC on EIB, adding a contribution to leadership and innovation research, and an extension to TL theory. Particularly, this study provides an extension to TL theory by highlighting how transformational leaders foster their frontline employees through utilising their idealised influence (charisma), inspirationally motivating them, intellectually stimulating their critical thinking abilities, and considering their personal needs and well-being, which encourage frontline employees to reciprocate their leaders' behaviours by conducting IBs, contributing to leadership and innovation research. Furthermore, this study showed that only IM did not influence EIB which could provide a contribution to the previous studies that showed that TL did not influence EIB (Kahai et al., 2003; Krause, 2004; Moss and Ritossa, 2007; Sudibjo and Prameswari, 2021) by highlighting that the non-significance between TL and EIB might not be caused by the whole concept of TL, but only because one of its dimensions which is IM in this study.

Additionally, this study provides information about the relationship between TL and EIB through applying it to a new setting which is the Egyptian tourism industry in which this study's findings revealed that TL exists in the Egyptian travel agents and it impacts frontline EIB, contributing to leadership, innovation, and tourism literature. Particularly, as previously mentioned in chapter one, Ribeiro et al. (2020a) considered travel agents as the pillar of all the dynamics of the tourism industry. Likewise, Goeldner and Ritchie (2009) emphasised travel agents as an important sector of the tourism industry. Also, Elbaz and Haddoud (2017) confirmed that travel agents are crucial to the development and success of the Egyptian tourism industry as it is highlighted as a vital stakeholder in this sector. Moreover, in the Egyptian tourism industry, there were vital investments in innovation to attract tourists and make sure that they feel perfectly during their stay (Albu, 2015). Accordingly, exploring the association between TL and EIB adds a contribution to the Egyptian tourism industry through highlighting how TL can stimulate frontline employees' IBs which will help them to attract more tourists, satisfy their needs, and make their stay more enjoyable.

Moreover, methodologically, most previous research investigated the association between TL and EIB only quantitatively (Bak et al., 2022; Lim and Moon, 2022; Rafique et al., 2022), while this study examined this relationship both quantitatively and qualitatively in which further qualitative insights were provided from Egyptian frontline employees about how their leaders engage with them in their travel agents and how they stimulate them to conduct IBs through II.C, IM, IS, and IC. This provides a methodological contribution and an expansion to previous research that examined this relationship only quantitatively (Bak et al., 2022; Lim and Moon, 2022; Rafique et al., 2022).

9.3.2. The Relationship between ISE and EIB

Several previous studies have confirmed that CSE positively impacts EIB (Newman et al., 2018a; Afsar and Masood, 2018; Chang, 2018; Santoso et al., 2019; Abdullah et al., 2019; Teng et al., 2020; Akbari et al., 2021; Javed et al., 2021; Chen et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2022). However, few studies examined the association between ISE and EIB (Dörner, 2012; Li et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2016; Ryan and Deci, 2017; Putri and Etikariena, 2022) giving that it is still relatively a new concept. Therefore, based on the researcher's knowledge, this is the first study to explore the impact of ISE on EIB among frontline employees in the Egyptian travel agents, adding a contribution to self-efficacy, innovation, and tourism research, and extends previous research that investigated ISE (Dörner, 2012; Putri and Etikariena, 2022). Particularly, this study shows how ISE of Egyptian frontline employees stimulates them to engage innovatively with clients and conduct IBs in their travel agents. Further, this study contributes to self-efficacy theory in which employees who have high confidence in their innovative abilities to create and realise ideas are more inclined to exhibit IBs in their travel agents. Exploring ISE provides a contribution to self-efficacy research because CSE focuses on the creative side which precedes innovation, while ISE highlights the innovative side which is crucial to creating, promoting, and realising innovative ideas, providing a major impact on EIB (Dörner, 2012).

Additionally, methodologically, Dörner (2012), Ma et al. (2016), and Putri and Etikariena (2022) examined the impact of ISE on EIB only quantitatively, while this study contributes by being the first to investigate this relationship both quantitatively and qualitatively, adding another methodological contribution to self-efficacy and innovation research and providing an extension to self-efficacy theory. Specifically, the qualitative findings acknowledged that Egyptian frontline employees who believe in their innovative capabilities are more inspired to meet new challenges and tasks regularly, find novel ways to complete their tasks, and consider their challenges as opportunities to improve, stimulating them to conduct IBs.

9.3.3. The Relationship between TL and ISE

Previous empirical studies showed that TL has a positive impact on employees' CSE (Gong et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2014; Slåtten, 2014; Afsar and Masood, 2018; Azim et al., 2019; Chaubey et al., 2019; Tran et al., 2021; Maria et al., 2022). However, based on the researcher's knowledge, only two studies investigated the relationship between TL and ISE (Dörner, 2012; Jing et al., 2021). Specifically, Dörner (2012) found that TL negatively impacts ISE, contradicting with the findings in this study that show that TL positively impacts ISE. On the other hand, according to Jing et al. (2021), transformational leaders use incentive feedback to convey their respect and recognition signals to their employees, which may foster them to increase their ISE. However, Jing et al. (2021) did not test the direct impact of TL on ISE but explored the mediating role of ISE in the relationship between TL and nursing informatics competency, and so, the result of the direct association between TL and ISE is not clear in the study of Jing et al. (2021). Consequently, based on the researcher's knowledge, this study contributes by being the first to prove that TL positively impacts frontline employees' ISE in the Egyptian travel agents, adding a major contribution to leadership, self-efficacy, and tourism research. Furthermore, Dörner (2012) and Jing et al. (2021) examined the impact of TL in general as a second order construct without considering the impact of its dimensions on ISE. On the other hand, this study examined in detail how II.C, IM, IS, and IC positively influence ISE, adding another contribution to leadership and self-efficacy research and providing an extension to self-efficacy theory in which when transformational leaders foster their employees through II.C, IM, IS, and IC, employees' confidence in their innovative abilities to provide innovative ideas increases, thereby stimulating their ISE.

Moreover, methodologically, Dörner (2012) and Jing et al. (2021) examined the relationship between TL and ISE only quantitatively, while this study contributes methodologically by being the first to explore this relationship both quantitatively and qualitatively. Particularly, the qualitative findings provided further insights and showed that transformational leaders' II.C, IM, IS, and IC play a major role in developing their Egyptian employees, and increasing their ISE is a major element of that development. Also, transformational leaders encourage their Egyptian employees and give them positive feedback on their innovative acts, which assist in increasing their ISE. Therefore, this study contributes to leadership and self-efficacy research and extends self-efficacy theory by giving a clear view about the impact of TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) on Egyptian frontline employees' ISE.

9.3.4. The Mediating Role of ISE in The Relationship between TL and EIB

Ma et al. (2016) investigated the role of ISE as a mediator in the association between person-organisation fit and EIB. Also, Jing et al. (2021) examined the mediating role of ISE in the relationship between TL and nursing informatics competency, in which TL was tested as a second order construct without highlighting its dimensions. However, this study employs ISE as a mediator in the relationship between TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) and EIB. Furthermore, Dörner (2012) examined the three concepts of TL, ISE, and EIB. However, Dörner (2012) explored the relationship between ISE and EIB in one model, while TL was highlighted as an antecedent of ISE in another model. Accordingly, this study contributes by including TL, ISE, and EIB in one model, making it the first study to investigate the mediating role of ISE in the relationship between TL and EIB in the Egyptian travel agents, adding a vital contribution to leadership, self-efficacy, innovation, and tourism research.

Additionally, Ma et al. (2016) and Jing et al. (2021) investigated the mediating role of ISE only quantitatively, while this study analysed ISE as a mediator regarding the impact of TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) on EIB both quantitatively and qualitatively, adding another methodological contribution to this study. Particularly, MacKinnon (2012) and MacKinnon and Pirlott (2015) highlighted that using statistical mediation methods provides vital information about mediating processes and offers an optimal way for analysing mechanisms based on theory, which could provide further insights concerning TL and its impact on EIB through utilising ISE as a mediator. Confirming that, the qualitative findings contributes by acknowledging that ISE is crucial as a mediator because when transformational leaders encourage and foster their employees who believe in their innovative abilities to provide innovative outcomes, these employees are indirectly stimulated to conduct IBs, benefiting their travel agents and the Egyptian tourism industry. Besides, this study showed that ISE is significant as a mediator regarding the impact of II.C and IM on EIB, while is not supported regarding the influence of IS and IC on EIB. This indicates that not all dimensions of TL indirectly affect EIB when ISE is used as a mediator, providing another contribution to this study. Overall, based on the researcher's knowledge, this study is the first to explore the direct and indirect impact of TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) on EIB in one model, providing a significant contribution through highlighting the influence of using TL as a first order construct and emphasising the role of its dimensions instead of using it as a second order construct, providing further insights and more contributions to leadership research.

9.3.5. The Moderating Role of POS in The Relationship between TL and EIB

Choi et al. (2016) found that POS positively moderates the relationship between TL and EIB. However, Choi et al. (2016) emphasised TL as a second order construct without investigating the influence of its dimensions. On the other hand, based on the researcher's knowledge, this study contributes by being the first to examine in detail the moderating role of POS in the relationship between TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) and EIB, providing a key contribution to leadership, organisational support, and innovation research. Furthermore, Choi et al. (2016) examined the moderating role of POS among employees working in Korean manufacturing firms, while this study contributes by investigating the moderating role of POS among frontline employees working in the Egyptian travel agents, providing a main contribution to tourism research by investigating POS in that sector.

Moreover, exploring the moderating role of POS in this study adds an extension to TL theory. Specifically, Choi et al. (2016) acknowledged that POS increases trust between transformational leaders and their employees, and so, when employees trust their leaders, they reciprocate by responding through action (Whitener, 2001), leading them to be more innovative in solving existing problems and conduct IBs (Choi et al., 2016). Confirming that, this study expands TL theory by determining whether POS, in more details, would strengthen the impact of TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) on frontline employees' IBs in the Egyptian travel agents or not. However, this study's findings have shown that POS is only significant as a moderator regarding the influence of II.C on EIB, while is not supported concerning the impact of IM, IS, and IC on EIB. This shows that POS could strengthen the impact of some of TL's dimensions on EIB, but not all of them, providing a main contribution to leadership, organisational support, and innovation research and offering an extension to TL theory regarding the association between TL and POS and their impact on EIB. From another point, Choi et al. (2016) investigated the moderating role of POS only quantitatively, while this study contributes methodologically by examining the moderating role of POS in the relationship between TL and EIB both quantitatively and qualitatively, providing further qualitative insights (see chapter seven).

Overall, methodologically, this study achieves and supports validity and reliability for the constructs that measure TL, ISE, POS, and EIB in a new geographical area (the Egyptian travel agents). This provides a greater accuracy to the results in the Egyptian travel agents and gives a valuable example of a methodology that academics and researchers might use to examine the extent of TL, ISE, and POS and their impacts on EIB in other similar research. Particularly, through using a mixed methods approach, this study reveals that analysing qualitative data concerning the relationships between the study's constructs is useful for understanding quantitative results and it is an effective way to realise the study's objectives.

9.4. Practical Implications

This study provides significant practical implications that add value to future leadership, self-efficacy, organisational support, innovation, and tourism research. According to the study's aims, objectives, and review of the results, its practical contributions are relevant to transformational leaders and frontline employees working in the Egyptian travel agents. Thus, this study can provide valuable insights from different angles for leaders and practitioners, employees, and travel agents on how to effectively stimulate EIB. The main practical implications for leaders and practitioners, employees, and travel agents are individually listed in the following sections.

9.4.1. Practical Implications For Leaders and Practitioners

This study's findings show that TL positively impacts EIB. Travel agents' leaders in Egypt need to be aware of and recognise the significance of EIB and put more effort into establishing effective mechanisms to promote employees to provide innovative ideas and realise goals innovatively. Also, it is extremely important for tourism practitioners to take into consideration the theoretical and practical relationship that exists between TL and EIB (Al-Husseini, 2014; Rafique et al., 2022). Through adopting a transformational way of leading, practitioners can exploit the innovative abilities of their employees to realise innovative solutions for their problems and achieve required targets.

Therefore, leaders should improve their TL's behaviours in dealing with their employees (Mohamed, 2016). In doing so, leaders should set the right tone for EIB through their idealised influence or charismatic behaviours by acting as innovative role models to their employees, listening to their thoughts without prejudice, fostering them to express their opinions and novel ideas, treating them with respect, providing encouragement and support to them, trusting them, taking pride in their actions, and stimulating them to be more innovative (Al-Husseini, 2014). Additionally, leaders should use their IM to inspire their employees to provide novel ideas, try different approaches at work, solve problems in different ways, and build team spirit among them through fostering collaboration between them (Rafique et al., 2022). Moreover, through

IS, leaders in travel agents should create opportunities that encourage having discussions and sharing information among employees through seeking new approaches regarding providing new ideas and how to achieve targets, and improving their employees' skills through conducting brainstorming and holding regular meetings with them so that they understand the importance of their participation and the significance of their IBs to achieve travel agents' targets (Al-Husseini, 2014). Further, through IC, leaders should make themselves available to support their employees, provide more encouragement, consideration, and coaching to them, help them to develop their strengths and overcome their weaknesses, and stimulate them to work differently to discharge routine tasks and provide novel ways to achieve targets (Al-Husseini, 2014).

Accordingly, leaders should strive to promote their employees' IBs. To do so, leaders could provide a detailed feedback to their employees who are successful in undertaking innovative actions in their interactions with clients, signalling to these employees and other employees in the organisation in general, such as travel agents, that innovation in the workplace is considerably appreciated (Slåtten and Mehmetoglu, 2015). Furthermore, leaders could obtain feedback from their employees about how they perceive their transformational leaders' behaviours, which could be gathered through using surveys that ask employees to evaluate their transformational leaders' behaviours (II.C, IM, IS, IC) (Slåtten and Mehmetoglu, 2015). Based on the gathered information from the surveys, travel agents' leaders could get further insights regarding how employees perceive their TL's behaviours, and accordingly, leaders could design appropriate strategies to implement their various TL's behaviours such as taking pride and having faith in their employees, inspirationally motivating them, stimulating their innovative thinking abilities, supporting them and considering their needs, which could inspire them to conduct IBs (Al-Husseini, 2014; Slåtten and Mehmetoglu, 2015).

However, this study's findings showed that IM is not positively related to EIB. Nevertheless, the qualitative findings revealed that this relationship could be significant. Thus, it is extremely significant for leaders to have a sound understanding about employing a suitable strategy to use their IM for enhancing EIB. In doing so, some practical implications for leaders and practitioners are suggested as follows; encouraging employees to provide novel approaches, broadly engaging with them during meetings, openly listening to their suggestions and discussions, fostering team spirit and teamwork among them, instructing them on how to achieve targets and engage with clients, and providing them with the confidence necessary to perform beyond the required expectations, which eventually could foster them to provide new ideas and perform IBs (Al-Husseini, 2014). Furthermore, Chen et al. (2012) declared that TL can be promoted by focusing on training programmes. Therefore, training courses about TL should be provided to leaders so that they can learn how to effectively employ their TL's behaviours, particularly IM, to encourage their frontline employees to conduct IBs.

From another point, this study found that TL positively impacts employees' ISE. Particularly, transformational leaders have the ability to create a culture of trust which is necessary for employees to believe in themselves and in their innovative abilities to conduct IBs (Dörner, 2012; Al-Husseini, 2014). Additionally, leaders who build positive relationships with their employees are able to increase their employees' confidence in their innovative capabilities, stimulating them to provide new ideas and behave innovatively (Dörner, 2012). Therefore, leaders need to understand that their transformational way of leading has significant implications in determining their employees' ISE. Moreover, leaders should be more devoted to an individualised approach for each employee and should consider their employees' needs and enable them through II.C, IM, IS, and IC so that employees can gain confidence in their innovative capabilities, which could inspire them to conduct IBs. Specifically, leaders are likely to encourage favourable conditions for ISE such as verbally persuading employees that they can be innovative and personally fostering them to learn innovation-relevant skills (Dörner, 2012), which could be realised by providing opportunities to apply these skills. Accordingly, travel agents' leaders and practitioners should organise effective training programs to develop their employees' ISE and provide them with the relevant details of the tasks assigned to them in order to gain more confidence in themselves to innovatively achieve their tasks (Dörner, 2012).

Furthermore, the important role of ISE as a mediator variable in the TL – EIB relationship indicates that leaders in the Egyptian travel agents need to exert more effort on promoting their employees' ISE. The results of this study showed that IB necessitates frontline employees to have confidence in their innovative abilities to conduct IBs. Therefore, leaders should design strategies that aim for encouraging their employees to enhance their ISE through attending regular meetings with their leaders, participating in discussions, engaging with several clients to gain more experience, and applying new and different methods in meeting clients' needs, which could increase employees' confidence in their innovative capabilities, leading them to behave more innovatively (Dörner, 2012; Ma et al., 2016). Further, when employees have many different experiences and capabilities, they are likely to have greater levels of ISE, resulting in conducting IBs (Dörner, 2012). Consequently, this study provides essential perceptions into how to make an impact that can lead to higher levels of EIB (Al-Husseini, 2014). Specifically, leaders should develop their TL's behaviours and when these behaviours are combined with employees' ISE, embracing TL's behaviours results in essential positive impacts on EIB in the Egyptian travel agents. Accordingly, TL should be prioritised with the help of ISE to increase the ability of leaders to stimulate their employees to express their ideas and exhibit their IBs. Furthermore, since this study revealed that ISE is significant as a mediator only regarding the impact of II.C and IM on EIB, leaders should focus their efforts and improve their II.C and IM so as to stimulate their employees' ISE even more, leading to exhibiting IBs. Additionally, training courses should be provided to leaders and practitioners on how to carefully use their IS and IC better in order to foster their employees' ISE and encourage them to show IBs (Dörner, 2012).

Finally, to gain the full benefits of leadership, leaders must be aware of their organisational environments as these environments are likely to influence their ability to motivate their employees (Johns, 2006). Specifically, it is essential for leaders to understand the structural characteristics of their organisations and how these characteristics may impact their efforts to stimulate their employees and motivate them to conduct IBs (Al-Husseini, 2014). Accordingly, leaders and practitioners should realise how to utilise and shape their travel agents into nurturing and supportive environments for their employees. Additionally, leaders should find new approaches and apply new techniques in travel agents so as to provide organisational support to their employees. When employees perceive the organisational support provided by leaders in their travel agents, this would increase and strengthen the impact of transformational leaders on their employees, fostering them to show higher levels of IBs (Choi et al., 2016).

9.4.2. Practical Implications For Frontline Employees

This study highlights TL, ISE, and POS as the driving forces of EIB (Dörner, 2012; Nazir et al., 2019). Therefore, in order for travel agents' frontline employees to engage in IBs, they need to perceive the transformational behaviours of their leaders and the organisational support provided by their travel agents, which would assist them in gaining confidence in their innovative abilities to complete their tasks, resulting in more IBs (Dörner, 2012). Additionally, employees need to be coached and trained by their leaders to master their roles, to be respected, their personal needs and well-being must be considered, and their strengths should be developed and their weaknesses should be limited so that they can be more confident in their innovative capabilities, allowing them to complete their responsibilities efficiently and behave more innovatively with clients (Dörner, 2012; Al-Husseini, 2014). Particularly, employees need to gain more confidence, have high ISE, have the courage required to take risks, and openly demonstrate and discuss their novel ideas and suggestions with their leaders in order to improve and enhance their performance and exhibit IBs (Ma et al., 2016). Moreover, in today's rapidly changing environment, competitive pressure forces organisations to put more burdens on their employees (Kwon and Kim, 2020). Specifically, organisations encourage employees to go the extra mile voluntarily and to exhibit proactive behaviours (Detert and Burris, 2007), such as IBs. Also, the shifting nature of the workplace necessitates employees to manage new expectations and keep innovating (Kwon and Kim, 2020). Further, organisations need employees' opinions, views, and suggestions for handling and solving critical problems and issues at work (Detert and Burris, 2007; Morrison and Milliken, 2000).

Accordingly, it is significant to comprehend the conditions that facilitate frontline employees to engage in IBs. To do so, training programs should be provided to Egyptian frontline employees to teach them the necessary skills to be innovative and conduct IBs. For instance, frontline employees should be trained to have critical thinking skills which will improve how they think and improve their engagement with clients' various needs (Dörner, 2012; Al-Husseini, 2014). Also, frontline employees should be trained to engage in innovative problem solving methods so as to brainstorm and find creative and unique solutions that others may not consider (Al-Husseini, 2014). Moreover, frontline employees should learn how to develop new ideas and approach existing challenges from different perspectives and think out of the box (Dörner, 2012). Particularly, some of the ideas that frontline employees can come up with could include finding new ways to update current processes, structures, and techniques within their travel agents to complete their tasks more efficiently and consistently (Indeed, 2023a); suggesting creating a new digital platform that could streamline their travel agents' online functions such as booking tickets, managing flights, and conducting financial transactions (Indeed, 2023a); providing new ways to enhance their travel agents' database system which will assist them in meeting their client's changing needs more efficiently and quickly (Forbes, 2018); and suggesting utilising artificial intelligence techniques that can analyse clients' reviews and make changes that match with their preferences, and examine numerous data to provide personalised recommendations about the best destinations that might be visited and experienced by clients (Forbes, 2018; Indeed, 2023a). Additionally, training programs should recommend frontline employees to update their innovative knowledge by emphasising information technology through using news platforms and social media to update their knowledge concerning the latest advances in the tourism and hospitality industry because remaining up to date with current events and issues will help them to think more innovatively about new innovations, processes, and techniques (Indeed, 2023b).

Furthermore, training programs should instil the characterises of innovative people into Egyptian frontline employees. Specifically, frontline employees should have innovative characteristics including thinking openly and having an open and positive mindset as it will help them to think of ideas beyond what is expected from their leaders and approach these ideas with confidence and certainty, increasing their ISE (Dobetter, 2019; Indeed, 2023a); willing to take risks and embracing challenges and ambiguous situations at work rather than feeling intimidated by the possibility of failure which will motivate them to find new ways to succeed (Dobetter, 2019; Indeed, 2023a); showing curiosity to find out what would happen if travel agents' existing processes get challenged or improved, in which curiosity is a primary source of motivation for innovative people (Indeed, 2023a); learning about the habits and routines needed to become successful innovate frontline employees through searching for and learning from experienced frontline employees in their travel agents (Dobetter, 2019); engaging with several various clients as it will expose them to different cultures, perspectives, and experiences that can inspire new ideas and solutions, stimulating their IBs (LinkedIn, 2023); continuously reflecting and questioning their ideas to find new pieces of information and seeing opportunities in various situations, promoting their IBs (Dobetter, 2019); having a mental resilience as employees who adapt positively to adversity and are not intimidated by challenges are more prone to IBs, in which mental resilience helps innovative employees to accept negative feedback in a constructive way and remain operative (Dobetter, 2019); collaborating with others through enabling employees to network with other employees, learn from best practices, and share knowledge and feedback, which will stimulate employees' IBs (Dobetter, 2019; Indeed, 2023a); and learning from constructive feedback in which innovate employees recognise its value as they will be able to apply that feedback to future situations to improve their ideas and processes, enabling them to continue learning and advancing in their careers (Dobetter, 2019).

Consequently, if these training programs are implemented efficiently and effectively, Egyptian frontline employees would have greater ISE, would feel more assured and less stressed, would feel that they are respected and supported by their leaders (Dörner, 2012), and would perceive that their travel agents are providing a supportive environment for them to work freely and safely, which eventually would stimulate them to engage innovatively with clients and perform IBs (Nazir et al., 2019). Finally, Egyptian frontline employees could provide feedback to their leaders concerning their transformational way of leading and whether their travel agents support them or not. This feedback could help leaders to manage their transformational behaviours when engaging with their employees and would foster travel agents to update their approaches and techniques to provide a supportive and nurturing environment to their employees, which would increase employees' ISE and inspire them to engage innovatively with clients (Dörner, 2012; Al-Husseini, 2014; Nazir et al., 2019).

9.4.3. Practical Implications For Travel Agents

This study's findings highlight the significance of TL in the Egyptian travel agents for fostering EIB. Therefore, travel agents should invest more in training programs that are directed toward leaders and provide training opportunities for them to stimulate their TL's behaviours and reduce the emergence of counterproductive leadership behaviours (Al-Husseini, 2014). Further, travel agents should encourage the presence of transformational leaders as a way to focus their efforts on developing their frontline employees. This focus could provide a clear direction and purpose to employees which would create a supportive environment of mutual trust and respect, encouraging employees to adopt novel techniques in engaging with clients and conduct IBs (Choi et al., 2016). Moreover, travel agents that seek to cultivate a supportive environment that is characterised by open discussion should carefully select and train their leaders to be responsive and open to employees' constructive criticisms, new ideas, different approaches, and challenge-oriented suggestions (Carnevale et al., 2017). Therefore, travel agents' organisational support must be considered when promoting EIB. This study has shown that organisational support is critical to EIB. Accordingly, travel agents should provide constant support to their employees through providing continuous training to them, offering flexible working hours to them, giving them suitable incentives for their efforts, granting them more holiday leaves, considering their personal needs, and balancing between their work and family requirements. Particularly, when employees perceive the support provided to them by their travel agents, they become inspired to return the favour by performing IBs (Choi et al., 2016; Nazir et al., 2019).

However, this study revealed that travel agents' organisational support that is perceived by frontline employees is significant as a moderator regarding the impact of II.C on EIB, while it is not supported concerning the influence of IM, IS, and IC on EIB. Consequently, travel agents should carefully assess their approaches and techniques, manage their level of support, and enhance their supportive culture so as to assist leaders employ their II.C to stimulate their employees' IB (Al-Husseini, 2014; Mohamed, 2016). Furthermore, travel agents need to critically assess how their level of support might help leaders to provide better levels of IM, IS, and IC in order to encourage their employees to behave innovatively (Mohamed, 2016). Also, travel agents should provide training opportunities to leaders and practitioners to understand how to provide a better organisational support to their employees and how to create a supportive culture that appreciates innovation (Bos-nehles and Veenendaal, 2019). Specifically, when travel agents create a supportive innovative culture and provide an effective organisational support to their employees, this could strengthen the impact of transformational leaders' behaviours (II.C, IM, IS, IC) on their employees and inspire them to be innovative in their interactions with clients (Choi et al., 2016).

Besides, travel agents should adopt practices that develop employees' abilities and skills which could assist them to use their unique talents to perform innovatively with clients (Bos-Nehles et al., 2017). Particularly, travel agents should set up strategies to increase employees' ISE such as encouraging them to actively communicate with their leaders and exchange their skills, expertise, knowledge, and experience during periodic meetings with their leaders (Dörner, 2012). Also, travel agents should establish training programs that encourage mutual engagement between leaders and employees to build a good and open relationship between them (Dörner, 2012). This relationship could help employees to express their opinions, novel ideas, and suggestions freely to their leaders, share their knowledge, enhance their interactions with their leaders and build strong social ties with them, increasing their ISE, which would foster them to conduct IBs (Dörner, 2012). Accordingly, since innovation is an essential element for organisations to maintain a competitive advantage (Deng et al., 2022), it is vital for travel agents to provide training opportunities for leaders and practitioners and encourage them to improve their mutual relationships with their employees, fostering their IBs. Additionally, by training leaders to utilise transformational leadership, the tourism industry, including travel agents, could assist employees to gain the innovative skills needed through increasing their experiences of engaging in innovative activities (Dörner, 2012). Further, organisations striving to enhance their employees' innovative efforts can begin by promoting leaders' interpersonal skills and abilities in order to respond effectively to their employees' suggestions, innovative ideas, and novel approaches (Carnevale et al., 2017). Moreover, providing training courses in communication skills should be taken into consideration as they can help employees to exchange and share their information more effectively. Therefore, Egyptian travel agents should foster continuous learning activities, organise sessions, conferences, and workshops so that employees can acquire multiple skills and knowledge, increasing their ISE and inspiring them to perform IBs.

Finally, although it is important for leaders to nurture existing employees' innovativeness, it is also essential to attract new employees who are capable and innovative. One way for travel agents to attract such innovative people is through having an organisational vision that emphasises innovation as a desirable characteristic among employees (Slåtten and Mehmetoglu, 2015). Therefore, based on this organisational vision, travel agents that decide to hire new employees should make it explicit in job advertisements that innovation is a necessary characteristic for job applicants (Slåtten and Mehmetoglu, 2015). Moreover, innovation should not be limited to a few gifted employees, but it should be regarded as a culture of an organisation (Kwon and Kim, 2020). Particularly, Tarique et al. (2016) highlighted that a culture starts to emerge when more and more people have mutual assumptions and behaviors, and an organisation's culture becomes innovative when more employees try novel things, engage in learning, and share their experiences (Dobni, 2008). Accordingly, travel agents should exert efforts to mobilise IBs not only through targeting innovative employees, but also through nurturing and cultivating an innovative organisational culture (Kwon and Kim, 2020). In this way, when an innovative culture is created, this will generate more innovations and will encourage employees to utilise their unique talents to function more innovatively and creatively (Kim et al., 2013), leading to more innovations. Importantly, even if employees generate novel ideas, innovation will not occur unless organisations are prepared to cultivate innovative ideas with careful nurturing (Tierney and Farmer, 2002). Consequently, travel agents should cultivate and nurture a supportive environment that encourages innovation to their employees, allowing them to express their novel ideas openly, suggest new ways of engaging with clients, and perform IBs (Kwon and Kim, 2020).

9.5. Study Limitations and Suggestions For Future Research

Despite this study's findings and its significant contributions to the body of knowledge, several limitations exist that require addressing in the future. The limitations in this study are related to the study's context, constructs, and methodology. However, the limitations related to the study's methodology have already been mentioned in chapter five. Accordingly, only limitations relating to the study's context and constructs are provided in the next subsections.

9.5.1. Limitations Concerning The Context and Suggestions For Future Research

Regarding the study's context, this study has focused only on Category A travel agents in Greater Cairo and did not emphasise Categories B and C. Accordingly, future research should collect data from the other two categories (B and C) and compare between the three categories to address generalisation issues and gain further insights regarding which category requires IBs the most, which could help travel agents to stay alive in the global travel market. Furthermore, regarding the geographical area, the context explored was developing countries, specifically Egypt. Therefore, the results may not generalise to other countries as cultural differences may lead to various impacts (Hofstede et al., 2010). For further future validity, the study's model could be compared between two developing countries. This could contribute to the knowledge and provide further insights about the impact of TL on EIB through the mediating role of ISE and the moderating role of POS and any other factors that might impact these relationships in developing countries. Additionally, future research should apply on developed countries or compare between developed and developing countries for providing more thorough insights about the relationship between TL and EIB in various contexts.

9.5.2. Limitations Concerning The Constructs and Suggestions For Future Research

Regarding the study's constructs, this study has focused only on TL style, while according to Bass (1985), this style is usually combined with transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. Accordingly, future research could investigate the impacts of all three-leadership styles and try to detect which leadership style has the most influential impact on ISE and IBs among frontline employees in the Egyptian travel agents.

Another limitation is that this study highlighted only the impact of leaders on frontline employees' ISE and their IBs and overlooked the influence of customers. Since this study's sampling unit is frontline employees, they make several interactions personally with various customers (clients) in order to serve them (Yao et al., 2022). These frontline employees interact directly with their clients and deliver new ideas and solutions to them so as to meet their requirements and needs (Ramdas et al., 2012). Accordingly, customers also alongside leaders could have a vital impact on frontline employees' ISE and IBs and on how they should perform in various situations facing them. Based on that, future studies should investigate the impact of customers on frontline employees' ISE and IBs and assess how this impact could foster and enable employees to increase their ISE and engage in IBs with their clients.

Furthermore, this study used EIB only as a one-dimensional construct instead of a multi-dimensional construct composing idea generation, promotion, and realisation (Scott and Bruce, 1994) because the model would have been very large and lots of relationships would have been investigated. Therefore, future research is advised to explore the impact of TL's dimensions (II.C, IM, IS, IC) on EIB's dimensions (Idea generation, promotion, realisation) to gain further insights concerning how each dimension of TL might influence EIB's dimensions differently and which dimension of TL would have the most influential impact on EIB's dimensions.

Moreover, this study used ISE as a mediator and POS as a moderator in the relationship between TL and EIB. Future research may try to explore other mediators and moderators to provide more understanding about how TL indirectly influences EIB. Particularly, employing statistical mediation methods could provide further insights concerning TL and its indirect impact on EIB. Additionally, utilising moderators by future research could shed some light on the factors that might either strengthen or weaken the impact of TL on EIB.

Finally, regardless of the study's contributions, the relationship between IM and EIB, the mediating role of ISE regarding the impact of IS and IC on EIB, and the moderating role of POS concerning the influence of IM, IS, and IC on EIB were not confirmed according to the quantitative and qualitative findings. Consequently, it remains necessary for future research to further assess how TL might influence EIB through the mediating role of ISE and the moderating role of POS in other geographical contexts using various samples to gain more thorough insights regarding these relationships and how they might influence each other, which could help in generalising the study's results even more. The researcher hopes that the mentioned limitations would provide substantial insights to other researchers for future studies.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 2.1. The Sample Size of 212 Employee Innovative Behaviour Papers

Research Methods	Sampling category	Sample size									Total
		1-100	101-200	201-300	301-400	401-500	501-600	601-1000	>1000	Non-applicable	
Quantitative Methods	Hospitality industry	1	3	7	4	4	6	2	2		29
	Tourism industry		2	2			1				5
	Manufacturing industry		2	4	2	1		3			12
	Health sector		4	1	2	1	3		1		12
	Knowledge sector				2	1	1	1			5
	Technological sector (High-tech)	3	6	10	6	3			1		29
	Educational sector	2		1	2	2		2	1		10
	Mix	2	9	17	13	7	2	8	7		65
	Other	1	12	6	5	2	2	4			32
Qualitative Methods	Knowledge sector	2									2
	Manufacturing sector	1									1
	Non-Applicable									8	8
Mixed Methods	Hospitality industry						1				1
	Tourism industry							1			1
Total		12	38	48	36	21	16	21	12	8	212

Non-Applicable: Information in relation to sample size was not available in eight qualitative papers.
Mix: Combination of SMEs, Manufacturing companies, Health sector, Technological sector, Service sector, Hospitality and Tourism sectors.
Other: Textile industry, Industrial companies, Clothing industry, Banks, Public sector, Retail industry, Engineering company, Beauty salons, Automobile sector, Construction organisations, Fashion houses, Chemicals sector, and Food sector.

Appendix 3.1. The Sample Size of 204 Tourism and Hospitality Leadership Papers

Research approach	Sampling category	Sample size									Total
		1-100	101-200	201-300	301-400	401-500	501-600	601-1000	>1000	Non-applicable	
Quantitative methods	Tourism industry	7	8	7	4	2	3	6	3		40
	Hospitality industry	12	10	13	15	6	1	8	4		69
	Tourism and Hospitality industry	1			1	1		2	1		6
Qualitative methods	Tourism industry	25	1								26
	Hospitality industry	7							1		8
	Tourism and Hospitality industry	3	1	1							5
	Non-Applicable									35	35
Mixed methods	Tourism industry	7			2			1			10
	Hospitality industry	3						1			4
	Non-Applicable									1	1
Total		65	20	21	22	9	4	18	9	36	204

Non-Applicable: Information regarding sample size is not available in 35 qualitative papers and one mixed methods paper.

Appendix 5.1. The Measurement Items of The Study Variables

Transformational Leadership (TL) (21 Items)		
Dimension	**Items**	**Reference(s)**
Idealised Influence (Charisma) (II.C)	1) My leader acts in ways that build others' respect for me.	Bass and Avolio (1997, 2000) and Avolio and Bass (2002)
	2) My leader instils pride in me when associated with others.	
	3) My leader talks about my most important values and beliefs.	
	4) My leader convinces me to go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	
	5) My leader considers moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	
	6) My leader emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	
	7) My leader displays a sense of power and confidence.	
Inspirational Motivation (IM)	8) My leader talks optimistically about the future.	
	9) My leader talks enthusiastically about what needs to be established.	
	10) My leader articulates a compelling vision of the future.	
	11) My leader expresses confidence through his/her behaviours that goals will be achieved.	
	12) My leader develops a team attitude and spirit among members of the staff.	
Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	13) My leader re-examines the critical assumptions and questions whether they are appropriate.	
	14) My leader gets others to look at problems from many different angles.	
	15) My leader suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	
	16) My leader seeks different perspectives when solving problems.	
	17) My leader encourages me to rethink ideas that have never been questioned before.	
Individualised Consideration (IC)	18) My leader spends time coaching, teaching, and mentoring his/her followers.	
	19) My leader treats others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group.	
	20) My leader considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.	
	21) My leader helps others to develop their strengths.	

Employee Innovative Behaviour (EIB) (6 Items)	
Items	**Reference(s)**
1) I find out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product ideas.	Scott and Bruce (1994)
2) I generate creative ideas.	
3) I promote and champion ideas to others.	
4) I investigate and secure funds needed to implement new ideas.	
5) I develop adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas.	
6) I am innovative.	
Innovative Self-Efficacy (ISE) (10 Items)	
1) I feel that I am good at generating novel ideas.	Tierney and Farmer (2002) and Dörner (2012)
2) I have confidence in my ability to solve problems creatively.	
3) I have a gift for further developing the ideas of others.	
4) I have a gift for making others enthusiastic for new ideas.	
5) I have confidence in my ability to convince others of the benefit of new ideas.	
6) I have the social contacts needed to find supporters for realising new ideas.	
7) I have confidence in my ability to implement new methods at work.	
8) I have confidence in my ability to implement new products at work.	
9) I feel that I am good at adopting new methods at work.	
10) I feel that I am good at adopting new products at work.	
Perceived Organisational Support (POS) (8 Items)	
1) My travel agent cares about my opinions.	
2) My travel agent cares about my well-being.	

3) My travel agent considers my goals and values.	Eisenberger et al. (1986, 1990, 1997)
4) Help is available from my travel agent when I have a problem.	
5) My travel agent will forgive an honest mistake on my part.	
6) If given the opportunity, my travel agent will not take advantage of me.	
7) My travel agent shows concern for me.	
8) My travel agent is willing to help me if I need a special favour.	

Appendix 5.2. Explanation and Justification For Choosing The Variables' Measures

Variable and Its Measure	Explanation and Justification
TL: A 21 items scale developed from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ – Form 5X) (Bass and Avolio, 1997, 2000; Avolio and Bass, 2002).	* The MLQ has been utilised extensively in prior studies and it represents a well-validated measure of TL (Avolio and Bass, 2002; Diaz-Saenz, 2011; Belias et al., 2022; Idris et al., 2022; Yilmaz and Konaklioglu, 2022). Confirming that, based on a confirmatory factor analysis, Avolio et al. (1988) found that the MLQ scale demonstrates a high internal consistency, and Antonakis et al. (2003) found a strong validity and reliability for the MLQ scale. * The 21 items scale measures TL's four dimensions; II.C (7 items), IM (5 items), IS (5 items), and IC (4 items). In details, respondents are asked to rate aspects of their transformational leaders' behaviours concerning; • **II.C:** through which leaders encourage their employees to have pride, faith, and respect in themselves and their colleagues. • **IM:** through which leaders aim to stimulate their employees by fostering them to get involved in a shared vision for the travel agents and using emotional appeals to focus their efforts on gaining more than they will if they operate according to their own self-interest. • **IS:** through which leaders improve learning and creativity among employees. • **IC:** through which leaders provide satisfaction to their employees through advising, supporting, coaching, and listening to their individual needs. * Essentially, Tojari et al. (2011) found the internal consistency coefficient (Cronbach's alpha, α) to be (0.92) for the four dimensions of TL. Similarly, the reliability for overall TL style is particularly high with α = (0.92) (Belias et al., 2022), (0.784) (Idris et al., 2022), and (0.960) (Yilmaz and Konaklioglu, 2022). Specifically, Judeh (2010) realised that α = (0.631) for II.C, (0.834) for IM, (0.650) for IS, and (0.612) for IC. * Despite the extensive use of the MLQ, it has several criticisms. For instance, Batista et al. (2021) noted the following flaws within the MLQ; it lacks connection with theory, its multidimensional structure is questionable, and the way in which various sub-dimensions of the MLQ combine together to form a unitary model is doubtful. Furthermore, Judge and Piccolo (2004) stressed that the MLQ has a vague multidimensional structure. Moreover, it was argued that the MLQ overlooks significant transformational behaviours displayed by leaders such as empowering, inspiring, and developing behaviours (Yukl, 1999). * Nevertheless, despite these criticisms, several previous studies have used The MLQ (Al-Husseini, 2014; Afsar et al., 2014; Slåtten and Mehmetoglu, 2015; Jaiswal and Dhar, 2015; Choi et al., 2016; Masood and Afsar, 2017; Afsar and Masood, 2018; Bednall et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2019; Amankwaa et al., 2019; Bin Saeed et al., 2019; Pradhan and Jena, 2019; Umrani and Afsar, 2019; Afsar and Umrani, 2020; Grošelj et al., 2021; Belias et al., 2022; Idris et al., 2022). However, these previous studies did not explicitly determine how the MLQ items were extracted. Specifically, in this thesis, all TL items were developed and adapted from (Al-Husseini, 2014) which depended on the studies of (Bass and Avolio, 1997, 2000; Avolio and Bass, 2002).
EIB: A 6 items scale developed by (Scott and Bruce, 1994).	* The 6 items scale developed by (Scott and Bruce, 1994) for measuring EIB has been widely used in several studies (Newman et al., 2018a; Liu et al., 2019; Pradhan and Jena, 2019; Elsetouhi et al., 2022; Hoang et al., 2022). * The items assess frontline employees' ability to generate novel ideas, champion and implement these ideas, and express IBs. * Additionally, the reliability for EIB is high with α = (0.86) (Liu et al., 2019; Elsetouhi et al., 2022), and (0.91) (Hoang et al., 2022). * In this thesis, all EIB items were extracted from (Scott and Bruce, 1994).

ISE: A 10 items scale adapted from (Dörner, 2012).	* The 10 items scale developed by Dörner (2012) for measuring ISE reflect frontline employees' confidence in their innovative abilities to create, promote, and realise novel ideas in their work. * Since ISE is related to innovation which includes creation, promotion, and realisation of ideas, the first three items are related to CSE measure developed by Tierney and Farmer (2002) as it is related to idea creation only, while the remaining seven items are developed for evaluating efficacy beliefs relating to idea promotion and realisation, and so, capturing all efficacy beliefs relating to generating innovative outcomes (Dörner, 2012). * Mainly, Dörner (2012) provided evidence for the validity of ISE as a distinct construct. Particularly, for developing the seven additional items relating to idea promotion and realisation, the literature concerning self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) and innovation (Janssen, 2000; De Jong and den Hartog, 2010; Yuan and Woodman, 2010) was investigated, and so, a set of items reflecting employees' beliefs in their abilities to be innovative at work was produced. * Further, a focus group including 11 employees working in the organisation under investigation discussed the items and the discussion resulted in rephrasing some of the items to ensure a better understanding of them (Dörner, 2012). * Moreover, the AVE value of ISE was higher than the squared correlation among ISE and the other constructs, highlighting an acceptable convergent validity, and the value of Cronbach's alpha (α) was 0.85, signifying a high internal consistency (Dörner, 2012). * In this thesis, all ISE items were extracted from (Dörner, 2012).
POS: An 8 items scale developed from the survey of POS (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990, 1997).	* The 8 items scale developed by (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990, 1997) for measuring POS reflects the aspects of organisational support provided by travel agents to frontline employees through caring for their opinions and well-being, considering their goals and values, and supporting them if they encounter a problem. * Essentially, the survey of POS includes 36 items, but only 8 items are selected in this study as they have been found to load highly on the main factor which seem applicable to many organisations (Eisenberger et al., 1997). * Additionally, this short scale has a higher internal consistency (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Rhoades et al., 2001), and has been used by several studies (Xerri, 2013; Nazir et al., 2018, 2019; Muñoz et al., 2022; Park and Kim, 2022). * In this thesis, all POS items were extracted from (Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1997).

Appendix 5.3. Changes Made After Pilot Testing Resulting In The Final Form of The Questionnaire

Pilot testing statements that needed changing	Final changes made to these statements
3) My leader considers my most important values and beliefs.	3) My leader talks about my most important values and beliefs.
10) My leader expresses a compelling vision of the future.	10) My leader articulates a compelling vision of the future.
15) My leader implies new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	15) My leader suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.
22) I look for new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product ideas.	22) I find out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product ideas.
25) I look for and secure funds needed to implement new ideas.	25) I investigate and secure funds needed to implement new ideas.
29) I am confident in my capability of solving problems creatively.	29) I have confidence in my ability to solve problems creatively.
32) I am confident in my ability to persuade others of the benefit of new ideas.	32) I have confidence in my ability to convince others of the benefit of new ideas.
36) I know that I am good at embracing new methods at work.	36) I feel that I am good at adopting new methods at work.
40) My travel agent cares for my goals and values.	40) My travel agent considers my goals and values.
44) My travel agent cares for me.	44) My travel agent shows concern for me.

Appendix 5.4. English Questionnaire Form

UNIVERSITY OF PLYMOUTH

Plymouth University
Cookworthy Building,
Drake Circus,
Plymouth,
Devon,
PL4 8AA
UK

Transformational Leadership and Employee Innovative Behaviour in The Egyptian Travel Agents: A Mediation – Moderation Model

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am an assistant Lecturer at Faculty of Commerce, Mansoura University – Egypt, and also, I am a PhD candidate at Plymouth Business School – University of Plymouth, United Kingdom. I am conducting a research to explore the impact of transformational leadership on employee innovative behaviour through the mediating role of innovative self-efficacy and the moderating role of perceived organisational support in travel agents in Egypt. Thank you for participation. I understand that your time is valuable, but I would appreciate it if you would spend some minutes to complete this questionnaire and hope for you to be accurate and objective when answering every question. I believe that your effort and contribution in completing the questionnaire is valuable and important for the success of my research project.

Let me emphasise that your participation in this study is voluntary and please be assured that all information you provide will be kept strictly confidential, will not be exposed to anyone, and will be used only for scientific research purposes. Also, you have the right to withdraw at any time and the data will be destroyed. However, after two weeks from completing the questionnaire, it will not be possible to withdraw. So, please, if you wish to withdraw, tell me within two weeks of completing the questionnaire. If you have questions or you are interested in the research findings, please do not hesitate to contact me on the information below, and I will be happy to reply you. Thank you again very much for your time and cooperation, with my deepest appreciation for your participation.

AHMED ADEL EZZELDEIN HAMMAD
University of Plymouth
Plymouth Business School
E-mail: ahmed.hammad@plymouth.ac.uk

*** Please read well the following statements in the table below from 1 to 45 and then put the sign (√) for the choice that reflects your opinion.**

* **<u>Note:</u> Use the following scale in giving your answers.**

Strongly Disagree (SD) = 1, Disagree (D) = 2, Neutral (N) = 3, Agree (A) = 4, Strongly Agree (SA) = 5

Statement	**Scale**				
	SD (1)	**D (2)**	**N (3)**	**A (4)**	**SA (5)**
Section one: Transformational Leadership Items					
1) My leader acts in ways that build others' respect for me.					
2) My leader instils pride in me when associated with others.					
3) My leader talks about my most important values and beliefs.					
4) My leader convinces me to go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.					
5) My leader considers moral and ethical consequences of decisions.					
6) My leader emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission.					
7) My leader displays a sense of power and confidence.					
8) My leader talks optimistically about the future.					
9) My leader talks enthusiastically about what needs to be established.					
10) My leader articulates a compelling vision of the future.					
11) My leader expresses confidence through his/her behaviours that goals will be achieved.					
12) My leader develops a team attitude and spirit among members of the staff.					
13) My leader re-examines the critical assumptions and questions whether they are appropriate.					
14) My leader gets others to look at problems from many different angles.					
15) My leader suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.					
16) My leader seeks different perspectives when solving problems.					
17) My leader encourages me to rethink ideas that have never been questioned before.					
18) My leader spends time coaching, teaching, and mentoring his/her followers.					
19) My leader treats others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group.					
20) My leader considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.					
21) My leader helps others to develop their strengths.					
Section Two: Employee Innovative Behaviour Items					
22) I find out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product ideas.					
23) I generate creative ideas.					

24) I promote and champion ideas to others.					
25) I investigate and secure funds needed to implement new ideas.					
26) I develop adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas.					
27) I am innovative.					
Section Three: Innovative Self-Efficacy Items					
28) I feel that I am good at generating novel ideas.					
29) I have confidence in my ability to solve problems creatively.					
30) I have a gift for further developing the ideas of others.					
31) I have a gift for making others enthusiastic for new ideas.					
32) I have confidence in my ability to convince others of the benefit of new ideas.					
33) I have the social contacts needed to find supporters for realising new ideas.					
34) I have confidence in my ability to implement new methods at work.					
35) I have confidence in my ability to implement new products at work.					
36) I feel that I am good at adopting new methods at work.					
37) I feel that I am good at adopting new products at work.					
Section Four: Perceived Organisational Support Items					
38) My travel agent cares about my opinions.					
39) My travel agent cares about my well-being.					
40) My travel agent considers my goals and values.					
41) Help is available from my travel agent when I have a problem.					
42) My travel agent will forgive an honest mistake on my part.					
43) If given the opportunity, my travel agent will not take advantage of me.					
44) My travel agent shows concern for me.					
45) My travel agent is willing to help me if I need a special favour.					

Section Five: Personal Information

Please, answer the following statements from 46 to 51 and put the sign (√) for the choice that identifies you.

46) Gender			
A) Male	☐	B) Female	☐
47) Age			
A) 18 – 29 years	☐	B) 30 – 39 years	☐
C) 40 – 49 years	☐	D) 50 years and More	☐
48) Educational Level			
A) High school and Below	☐	B) Bachelor's Degree	☐
C) Master's Degree and Above	☐		
49) Organisational Tenure or Job Experience			
A) Less than 5 years	☐	B) 5 – 9 years	☐
C) 10 – 14 years	☐	D) 15 years and More	☐
50) Firm Size (Number of Employees)			
A) 1 – 10	☐	B) 11 – 20	☐
C) 21 – 30	☐	D) 31 – 40	☐
D) 41 – 50	☐	E) 51 and More	☐
51) Marital Status			
A) Single	☐	B) Married	☐
C) Divorced	☐	D) Widowed	☐

In the future, if you would like to participate in making an interview with me to ask you further questions, please put your email here so that I send you the consent form for the interview and schedule a meeting with you.

E-mail: ……………………………………………………………................……………..

Thank you greatly for you cooperation, and completing this form

Appendix 5.5. Arabic Questionnaire Form

UNIVERSITY OF PLYMOUTH

Plymouth University
Cookworthy Building,
Drake Circus,
Plymouth,
Devon,
PL4 8AA
United Kingdom

القيادة التحويلية والسلوك الإبتكاري للموظف في شركات السياحة المصرية – نموذج يشمل وسيط ومعدل

سيدي العزيز/ سيدتي العزيزة،

أعمل مدرساً مساعداً في كلية التجارة، جامعة المنصورة – مصر، وأيضاً مرشح لدرجة الدكتوراة في كلية بليموث للأعمال – جامعة بليموث، بالمملكة المتحدة. أقوم بإجراء بحث لإستكشاف تأثير القيادة التحويلية على السلوك الإبتكاري للموظف من خلال الدور الوسيط للكفاءة الذاتية الإبتكارية والدور المعدل للدعم التنظيمي المدرك في شركات السياحة في مصر. شكراً لكم على المشاركة. أدرك أن وقتكم ثمين، لكنني سأكون ممتناً لو إستغرقتم بعض الدقائق لإكمال هذا الإستبيان وآمل منكم تحري الدقة والموضوعية عند الإجابة على كل سؤال. حيث أعتقد أن جهودكم ومساهمتكم في إستكمال الإستبيان ذات قيمة ومهمة لنجاح مشروعي البحثي.

إسمحوا لي أن أؤكد أن مشاركتكم في هذه الدراسة طوعية، ومن فضلكم تأكدوا أن جميع المعلومات التي تقدمونها ستبقى سرية تماماً، ولن يتم عرضها لأي شخص، ولن يتم إستخدامها إلا لأغراض البحث العلمي فقط. أيضًا، لديكم الحق في الإنسحاب في أي فترة وسيتم إتلاف البيانات. ولكن، بعد أسبوعين من إستكمال الإستبيان، لن يكون من الممكن الإنسحاب. لذا، من فضلكم، إذا رغبتم في الإنسحاب، أخبروني في غضون أسبوعين من إستكمال الإستبيان. إذا كانت لديكم أسئلة أو كنتم مهتمين بنتائج البحث، رجاءاً لاتترددوا في الإتصال بي بإستخدام المعلومات الواردة أدناه، وسيسعدني الرد عليكم. شكراً جزيلاً لكم مرة أخرى على وقتكم وتعاونكم، مع أعمق تقديري لمشاركتكم.

أحمد عادل عز الدين حماد
جامعة بليموث
كلية بليموث للأعمال – المملكة المتحدة – إنجلترا
البريد الإلكتروني: ahmed.hammad@plymouth.ac.uk

* يرجى قراءة العبارات التالية جيداً في الجدول من ١ إلي ٤٥ ثم وضع علامة (√) للإختيار الذي يعبر عن رأيك.

* ملاحظة: إستخدم المقياس التالي في تقديم إجاباتك.

غير موافق بشدة = (١)، غير موافق = (٢)، محايد = (٣)، موافق = (٤)، موافق بشدة = (٥)

العبارة	المقياس				
	غير موافق بشدة (١)	غير موافق (٢)	محايد (٣)	موافق (٤)	موافق بشدة (٥)
القسم الأول: عبارات القيادة التحويلية					
١) يتعامل مدير الشركة بأسلوب يجعل الآخرين يحترمونني.					
٢) يعبر مدير الشركة عن مدي فخره بي عندما يتحدث مع الآخرين.					
٣) يتحدث مدير الشركة عن أهم مبادئي وقيمي للآخرين.					
٤) يقنعني مديري بأن أهتم بمصلحة الشركة كما أهتم بمصلحتي الشخصية.					
٥) يأخذ مدير الشركة في إعتباره الأبعاد الأخلاقية والمعنوية عند إتخاذ القرارات.					
٦) يؤكد مدير الشركة على أهمية وجود فهم شامل من قبل الموظفين برسالة الشركة.					
٧) يظهر مدير الشركة إحساساً بالقوة والثقة عند تعامله مع الموظفين.					
٨) يتحدث مدير الشركة بتفاؤل عن المستقبل.					
٩) يتحدث مدير الشركة بحماس حول ما يجب تنفيذه.					
١٠) يعبّر مدير الشركة عن رؤية واضحة للتعامل مع الأحداث في المستقبل.					
١١) تظهر سلوكيات مدير الشركة عن مدي ثقته بأن أهداف الشركة سوف تتحقق.					
١٢) يشجع مدير الشركة علي نشر روح الفريق بين موظفي الشركة.					
١٣) يراجع مدير الشركة الأفكار الهامة للنظر في مدي ملائمتها للظروف الحالية.					
١٤) يشجع مدير الشركة الموظفين لتحليل المشاكل من وجهات نظر مختلفة.					
١٥) يقترح مدير الشركة أساليباً جديدة لكيفية إنجاز المهام.					
١٦) يبحث مدير الشركة عن وجهات نظر مختلفة لحل المشاكل.					
١٧) يشجعني مدير الشركة على إعادة التفكير في دراسة الأفكار التي لم ترفض من قبل.					
١٨) يقضي مدير الشركة بعض الوقت في تدريب، تعليم، وتوجيه موظفيه.					
١٩) يعامل مدير الشركة موظفيه كل علي حده حسب رغبات كل فرد.					
٢٠) يؤمن مدير الشركة بأن كل موظف لديه إحتياجات، قدرات، وتطلعات مختلفة عن الآخرين.					
٢١) يساعد مدير الشركة موظفيه على تطوير نقاط قوتهم.					
القسم الثاني: عبارات السلوك الإبتكاري للموظف					
٢٢) أسعي للبحث عن تقنيات، أساليب، أو أفكار لمنتجات جديدة.					
٢٣) أسعي لتوليد أفكار إبداعية.					
٢٤) أقوم بترويج ودعم أفكاري للآخرين.					
٢٥) أقوم بتوفير الأموال اللازمة لتنفيذ الأفكار الجديدة.					
٢٦) أقوم بتطوير الخطط والجداول الزمنية المناسبة لتنفيذ الأفكار الجديدة.					
٢٧) تتسم أفكاري بالإبتكارية.					
القسم الثالث: عبارات الكفاءة الذاتية الإبتكارية					
٢٨) أشعر بأنني لدي القدرة والمهارات علي توليد أفكار جديدة.					
٢٩) لدي ثقة في قدراتي لحل المشكلات بشكل إبداعي.					
٣٠) لدي المهارات اللازمة لتطوير أفكار الآخرين.					
٣١) لدي القدرات اللازمة لتشجيع زملائي علي توليد أفكار جديدة.					
٣٢) لدي ثقة في قدراتي على إقناع الآخرين بمزايا الأفكار الجديدة.					

٣٣) لدي القدرة علي الإتصال ببعض الهيئات التي تدعم تنفيذ الأفكار الجديدة.					
٣٤) لدي ثقة في قدراتي على تطبيق أساليب جديدة في العمل.					
٣٥) لدي ثقة في قدراتي على تقديم خدمات جديدة للشركة.					
٣٦) أشعر بأنني لدي القدرة الكافية لتبني طرق جديدة في العمل.					
٣٧) أشعر بأنني لدي القدرة الكافية لتبني خدمات جديدة في الشركة.					
القسم الرابع: عبارات الدعم التنظيمي المدرك					
٣٨) يهتم مديرالشركة بآرائي.					
٣٩) تهتم الشركة بوسائل راحتي وسعادتي.					
٤٠) تراعي الشركة أهدافي ومبادئي عند إتخاذ القرار.					
٤١) تقدم الشركة المساعدة والدعم اللازم لي عندما أواجه أي مشكلة.					
٤٢) تتجاوز الشركة عن إرتكابي لخطأ غير مقصود من جانبي.					
٤٣) عند إرتكابي لخطأ غير مقصود، فإن الشركة لن تستغله ضدي.					
٤٤) تظهر الشركة إهتمامها وتقديرها لي دائماً.					
٤٥) تكون الشركة علي أتم إستعداد لمساعدتي عندما أحتاج إلي طلب معين.					

القسم الخامس: معلومات شخصية

من فضلك، أجب عن العبارات الأتية من ٤٦ إلي ٥١ وضع علامة (√) للاختيار الذي يحدد هويتك.

٤٦) الجنس			
أ) ذكر	☐	ب) أنثي	☐
٤٧) العمر			
أ) ١٨ – ٢٩ سنة	☐	ب) ٣٠ – ٣٩ سنة	☐
ج) ٤٠ – ٤٩ سنة	☐	د) ٥٠ سنة فأكثر	☐
٤٨) المستوي التعليمي (المؤهل)			
أ) مؤهل متوسط	☐	ب) مؤهل جامعي	☐
ج) دراسات عليا	☐		
٤٩) مدة العمل التنظيمية أو الخبرة الوظيفية			
أ) أقل من ٥ سنوات	☐	ب) ٥ – ٩ سنوات	☐
ج) ١٠ – ١٤ سنة	☐	د) ١٥ سنة فأكثر	☐
٥٠) حجم الشركة (عدد الموظفين)			
أ) ١ – ١٠	☐	ب) ١١ – ٢٠	☐
ج) ٢١ – ٣٠	☐	د) ٣١ – ٤٠	☐
هـ) ٤١ – ٥٠	☐	ي) ٥١ فأكثر	☐
٥١) الحالة الإجتماعية			
أ) أعزب	☐	ب) متزوج	☐
ج) مطلق	☐	د) أرمل	☐

في المستقبل، إذا كنت ترغب في المشاركة في إجراء مقابلة معي لطرح المزيد من الأسئلة عليك، فيرجى وضع بريدك الإلكتروني هنا حتى أرسل لك نموذج الموافقة على المقابلة وتحديد موعد لقاء معك.

البريد الإلكتروني: ....

شكرا جزيلا لتعاونك وإستكمال هذا الإستبيان

Appendix 5.6. Pilot Test's Cronbach's Alpha and Corrected Item-Total Correlations

TL's Dimension of Idealised Influence (Charisma) (II.C)	**α = 0.884**		
	Measurement items	**Corrected item – total correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted**
	II.C.1	**0.794**	**0.852**
	II.C.2	**0.570**	**0.879**
	II.C.3	**0.698**	**0.864**
	II.C.4	**0.560**	**0.883**
	II.C.5	**0.684**	**0.866**
	II.C.6	**0.809**	**0.850**
	II.C.7	**0.623**	**0.873**
TL's Dimension of Inspirational Motivation (IM)	**α = 0.805**		
	Measurement items	**Corrected item – total correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted**
	IM.1	**0.529**	**0.788**
	IM.2	**0.756**	**0.724**
	IM.3	**0.626**	**0.758**
	IM.4	**0.638**	**0.755**
	IM.5	**0.472**	**0.815**
TL's Dimension of Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	**α = 0.770**		
	Measurement items	**Corrected item – total correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted**
	IS.1	**0.408**	**0.768**
	IS.2	**0.646**	**0.689**
	IS.3	**0.687**	**0.679**
	IS.4	**0.650**	**0.694**
	IS.5	**0.375**	**0.796**
TL's Dimension of Individualised Consideration (IC)	**α = 0.580**		
	Measurement items	**Corrected item – total correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted**
	IC.1	**0.268**	**0.586**
	IC.2	**0.335**	**0.531**
	IC.3	**0.469**	**0.421**
	IC.4	**0.393**	**0.489**
EIB	**α = 0.802**		
	Measurement items	**Corrected item – total correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted**
	EIB.1	**0.670**	**0.749**
	EIB.2	**0.575**	**0.770**
	EIB.3	**0.582**	**0.766**
	EIB.4	**0.498**	**0.800**
	EIB.5	**0.689**	**0.738**
	EIB.6	**0.415**	**0.800**
ISE	**α = 0.860**		
	Measurement items	**Corrected item – total correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted**
	ISE.1	**0.527**	**0.851**
	ISE.2	**0.575**	**0.848**
	ISE.3	**0.581**	**0.846**
	ISE.4	**0.615**	**0.843**
	ISE.5	**0.637**	**0.841**
	ISE.6	**0.408**	**0.871**
	ISE.7	**0.649**	**0.841**
	ISE.8	**0.658**	**0.841**

	ISE.9	**0.482**	**0.854**
	ISE.10	**0.703**	**0.835**
POS	**α = 0.868**		
	Measurement items	**Corrected item – total correlation**	**Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted**
	POS.1	**0.447**	**0.869**
	POS.2	**0.666**	**0.846**
	POS.3	**0.761**	**0.836**
	POS.4	**0.699**	**0.845**
	POS.5	**0.440**	**0.876**
	POS.6	**0.692**	**0.844**
	POS.7	**0.722**	**0.840**
	POS.8	**0.602**	**0.854**

(Source; The researcher's own data).

Appendix 5.7. English Interview Form

UNIVERSITY OF PLYMOUTH

Transformational Leadership and Employee Innovative Behaviour in The Egyptian Travel Agents: A Mediation – Moderation Model

This interview is conducted with frontline employees in the Egyptian travel agents and aims to clarify the unexpected results from the quantitative stage (Questionnaire). It reflects in-depth insights about how frontline employees perceive their transformational leaders' behaviours and how these leaders through increasing employees' innovative self-efficacy and providing organisational support will stimulate employee innovative behaviour. The researcher would like to confirm that the data collected from the participants will be used for scientific research only and the names of frontline employees or travel agents will not be included in any reports or publications resulting from this study. Furthermore, the participants can request a copy of the study's results if they like by emailing the researcher cited below.

1) How does your leader influence your innovative behaviour in your Travel Agent?

- Do you think your leader trust you? Please, explain how? Or give an example.
- Is your leader proud of you? Can you please explain, or give examples regarding that?
- Do you believe that your leader motivate you to achieve the vision and goals of your Travel Agent? Give examples, please.
- Does your leader make you challenge yourself and encourage yourself to use new ways of working and behaving innovatively? How?
- Does your leader assist you individually? Explain how.
- How does your leader coach and mentor you? Explain how.

2) Does your ISE stimulate your innovative behaviour? Please, explain how?

3) Does your leader foster your ISE? How?

4) Does your ISE influence the relationship between your leader and your innovative behaviour? How please?

5) Does perceiving organisational support from your Travel Agent assist your leader in stimulating your innovative behaviour? Explain how.

Personal Information

Please, answer the following statements from 6 to 11 and put the sign (√) for the choice that identifies you.

6) Gender			
A) Male	☐	B) Female	☐
7) Age			
A) 18 – 29 years	☐	B) 30 – 39 years	☐
C) 40 – 49 years	☐	D) 50 years and More	☐
8) Educational Level			
A) High school and Below	☐	B) Bachelor's Degree	☐
C) Master's Degree and Above	☐		
9) Organisational Tenure or Job Experience			
A) Less than 5 years	☐	B) 5 – 9 years	☐
C) 10 – 14 years	☐	D) 15 years and More	☐
10) Firm Size (Number of Employees)			
A) 1 – 10	☐	B) 11 – 20	☐
C) 21 – 30	☐	D) 31 – 40	☐
D) 41 – 50	☐	E) 51 and More	☐
11) Marital Status			
A) Single	☐	B) Married	☐
C) Divorced	☐	D) Widowed	☐

With many thanks for your time and cooperation

AHMED ADEL EZZELDEIN HAMMAD
University of Plymouth
Plymouth Business School
E-mail: ahmed.hammad@plymouth.ac.uk

Appendix 5.8. Arabic Interview Form

UNIVERSITY OF PLYMOUTH

القيادة التحويلية والسلوك الإبتكاري للموظف في شركات السياحة المصرية – نموذج يشمل وسيط ومعدل

يتم إجراء هذه المقابلة مع موظفي الخطوط الأمامية في شركات السياحة المصرية وتهدف إلى توضيح النتائج غير المتوقعة من المرحلة الكمية (الإستبيان). حيث توضح المقابلة رؤي متعمقة لكيفية إدراك موظفي الخطوط الأمامية لسلوكيات قادتهم التحويليين وكيف أن هؤلاء القادة من خلال زيادة الفعالية الذاتية الإبتكارية للموظفين وتقديم الدعم التنظيمي، يمكنهم تحفيز السلوك الإبتكاري للموظف. كما يود الباحث أن يؤكد أن البيانات التي سيتم جمعها من المشاركين سوف تستخدم للبحث العلمي فقط ولن يتم ذكر أسماء موظفي الخطوط الأمامية أو شركات السياحة في أي تقارير أو منشورات ناتجة عن هذه الدراسة. علاوة على ذلك، يمكن للمشاركين طلب نسخة من نتائج الدراسة إذا رغبوا في ذلك عن طريق إرسال بريد إلكتروني إلى الباحث المذكور أدناه.

<u>أسئلة المقابلة</u>

١) كيف يحفز مديرك سلوكك الإبتكاري في شركتك؟

- **هل تعتقد أن مديرك يثق بك؟ من فضلك وضح كيف أو إعط أمثلة.**
- **هل مديرك فخور بك؟ هل يمكنك التوضيح من فضلك أو إعطاء أمثلة؟**
- **هل تعتقد أن مديرك يحفزك لتحقيق رؤية وأهداف شركتك؟ إعط أمثلة من فضلك**
- **هل يجعلك مديرك تتحدي نفسك ويشجعك علي تطبيق طرق جديدة للعمل والتصرف بشكل مبتكر؟ كيف؟**
- **هل يساعدك مديرك بشكل فردي؟ وضح كيف**
- **هل يدربك ويوجهك مديرك؟ وضح كيف**

٢) هل فعاليتك الذاتية الإبتكارية تحفز سلوكك الإبتكاري؟ من فضلك إشرح كيف

٣) هل يشجع مديرك فعاليتك الذاتية الإبتكارية؟ كيف؟

٤) هل فعاليتك الذاتية الإبتكارية تؤثر علي العلاقة بين مديرك وسلوكك الإبتكاري؟ إشرح كيف

٥) هل إدراكك للدعم التنظيمي من شركتك يساعد مديرك في تحفيز سلوكك الإبتكاري؟ إشرح كيف

معلومات شخصية

من فضلك، أجب عن العبارات الأتية من ٦ إلي ١١ وضع علامة (√) للاختيار الذي يحدد هويتك.

٦) الجنس			
أ) ذكر	☐	ب) أنثي	☐
٧) العمر			
أ) ١٨ – ٢٩ سنة	☐	ب) ٣٠ – ٣٩ سنة	☐
ج) ٤٠ – ٤٩ سنة	☐	د) ٥٠ سنة فأكثر	☐
٨) المستوي التعليمي (المؤهل)			
أ) مؤهل متوسط	☐	ب) مؤهل جامعي	☐
ج) دراسات عليا	☐		
٩) مدة العمل التنظيمية أو الخبرة الوظيفية			
أ) أقل من ٥ سنوات	☐	ب) ٥ – ٩ سنوات	☐
ج) ١٠ – ١٤ سنة	☐	د) ١٥ سنة فأكثر	☐
١٠) حجم الشركة (عدد الموظفين)			
أ) ١ – ١٠	☐	ب) ١١ – ٢٠	☐
ج) ٢١ – ٣٠	☐	د) ٣١ – ٤٠	☐
هـ) ٤١ – ٥٠	☐	ي) ٥١ فأكثر	☐
١١) الحالة الإجتماعية			
أ) أعزب	☐	ب) متزوج	☐
ج) مطلق	☐	د) أرمل	☐

مع جزيل الشكر على وقتك وتعاونك

أحمد عادل عز الدين حماد
جامعة بليموث
كلية بليموث للأعمال
البريد الإلكتروني: ahmed.hammad@plymouth.ac.uk

Appendix 5.9. Themes, Sub-Themes, and Their Codes

Themes	Sub-Themes	Codes
The role of Transformational Leadership (TL)	**Idealised Influence (Charisma) of transformational leaders on frontline employees**	Instilling pride in frontline employees by transformational leaders.
		Trust in frontline employees by transformational leaders.
		Characteristics of transformational leaders and their relationship with frontline employees.
		Risks of not encouraging or not trusting frontline employees by transformational leaders.
		Transformational leaders' encouragement to frontline employees.
	Inspirational Motivation of frontline employees by transformational leaders	Planning to achieve new targets.
		Periodic meetings with frontline employees.
		Instructing frontline employees on how to deal with clients.
		Fostering team spirit and teamwork between frontline employees.
		Consequences of not inspirationally motivating frontline employees by transformational leaders.
	Intellectual Stimulation of frontline employees by transformational leaders	Necessary skills required by frontline employees to do their tasks.
		Experience of senior frontline employees.
		Stimulation to apply new methods and perform challenging tasks at work using various techniques.
	Individualised Consideration of frontline employees by transformational leaders	Recognising frontline employees' various needs and abilities.
		Encouraging openness through discussing suggestions and providing autonomy to frontline employees by transformational leaders.
		Highlighting frontline employees' strengths and weaknesses, mistakes, or challenges.
		Providing personal training and training courses to frontline employees and assuring them by transformational leaders.
The role of Employee Innovative Behaviour (EIB)	------------	Tasks and expectations required from frontline employees.
		Frontline employees' motivation to perform IBs.
		Returning the favour by frontline employees (SET perspective).
The role of Innovative-Self Efficacy (ISE)	------------	Frontline employees' different views regarding ISE.
		Source of ISE.
		Risks of not having ISE.
		Significance of ISE and its impact on frontline employees in their dealing with clients.
The role of Perceived Organisational Support (POS)	------------	Impact of COVID on frontline employees.
		Payment plans as a form of organisational support and their impact on frontline employees.
		Providing organisational support to frontline employees.
		Risks of not providing organisational support to frontline employees.
		Different views about providing organisational support in various travel agents.

(Source; The researcher's own data).

Appendix 5.10. University of Plymouth Research Ethics Application Approval

Plymouth Ethics Online System | Work Area | Contacts | Help | Mr Ahmed Hammad (ahmed.hammad@plymouth.ac.uk)

Project | Create Sub Form | Share | View as PDF

Transformational Leadership and Employee Innovative Behaviour

2454

Project Tree

- Transformational Leadership and Employee Innovative Behaviour
  - University of Plymouth Research Ethics Application

Action Required on Form	Status	Review Reference	Date Modified
No	Approved	2020-2454-1411	24/11/2020 14:34

Navigation | Documents | Signatures | Collaborators | Submissions | Centre | History

Show Inactive Sections

UoP Staff/PGR/PGT Research Ethics Application

Section	Questions
Start Application Here	Application help and support; GDPR
Project Title, Status and Study Type	Project Title, Status and Study Type
Research Study Approval	Research Study Approval; HRA/IRAS Documents; Research & Development (R&D) Site Information
Human Tissue	Human Tissue; Human Derived Samples
External Approval	External Approval
Approval	Approval sought
Project contacts	Principal Investigator; Other investigators; Director of Studies; Supervisor
Project information	Funded Research; Project Duration; Project Abstract; Participant Information, Consent and Debrief; Ethical Aspects of Research; PREVENT; Online Surveys; Researcher Safety and Risk Assessment; Research Data Management Plan
Declarations	Principal Investigator; Other Collaborators

Appendix 5.11. Ethical Principles Followed in This Study

Ethical Principle	Procedures Followed For Realising That Ethical Principle
A) Gaining informed consent for both questionnaires and interviews	1) Concerning the questionnaire, the questionnaire's design encompassed most elements of the informed consent which emphasises that the respondents should undertake the survey voluntarily and the researcher should clearly explain the purpose of the study and what is required from the respondents (Myers, 2019). 2) Specifically, the introduction section of the questionnaire demonstrated the researcher's name and his role in the study, the organisation which the researcher belongs to, the research purpose, the arrangement of the research (questionnaire survey), the respondents in the study, the voluntary nature and the right to withdraw from the survey, and the assurance of anonymity and confidentiality. 3) Regarding interviews, an informed consent was sent to each participant by email before conducting the interview and if the participants agree to participate, they will sign to confirm their willingness to participate.
B) Ensuring and protecting privacy, anonymity, and confidentiality of respondents and participants	1) The informed consent form declared that the respondents were able to withdraw at any time without giving a reason and their names and personal information were not identified in the research. Additionally, if a certain respondent has withdrawn from the survey, the data related to this respondent will be destroyed immediately. 2) During initial contact, the respondents were assured that their participation in this study will remain confidential and their private information such as their name and workplace will not be published without their permission (Bryman, 2016). 3) The participants' names remained separate from the transcripts of each interview. 4) Upon publishing and communicating the research findings, to ensure anonymity, the researcher guaranteed that the participants' identities will not be deciphered in the published findings, while to respect confidentiality, the researcher removed all identifying information about the participants from the research's records and reports. 5) Once the results are published, the researcher will make them available upon request.
C) Guaranteeing security of respondents and participants and protecting them from harm	1) The researcher refrained from applying any sort of pressure on the respondents or the participants to be part of the questionnaire survey or the interview. 2) The researcher ensured that any kind of discomfort, embarrassment or harm that can be caused during data collection or the reporting phase was avoided to give the respondents enough time to finish the questionnaires with a relaxed mood. 3) The pilot testing ensured that the questionnaire did not include embarrassing or sensitive questions to the respondents. 4) During the interviews, the researcher's tone was agreeable and all participants were completely free to decide whether they are willing to answer the questions posed by the researcher. 5) The researcher's contacts were given to the participants in case they had any questions regarding the research process and these questions would have been considered and answered by the researcher.
D) Preventing deception while conducting the research	1) The research purpose stated on the informed consent form was the same as the purpose of the PhD thesis and both questionnaire and interview questions were attached as appendices (see Appendices 5.4, 5.5, 5.7, and 5.8).
	2) The researcher acknowledged this study's limitations and restrictions to enable the readers to know how much credibility this study provided (McNabb, 2013).

(Source; The researcher's own data; McNabb, 2013; Bryman, 2016; Myers, 2019).

Appendix 6.1. Total Variance Explained For Measuring Common Method Bias (CMB)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	12.476	27.724	27.724	12.476	**27.724**	27.724
2	3.928	8.729	36.453			
3	2.603	5.784	42.238			
4	2.030	4.511	46.749			
5	1.836	4.080	50.828			
6	1.635	3.633	54.462			
7	1.493	3.317	57.779			
8	1.267	2.815	60.594			
9	1.180	2.623	63.217			
10	1.068	2.373	65.589			
11	1.020	2.267	67.856			
12	0.950	2.111	69.967			
13	0.874	1.942	71.909			
14	0.816	1.813	73.722			
15	0.787	1.748	75.470			
16	0.726	1.614	77.084			
17	0.700	1.556	78.640			
18	0.686	1.525	80.165			
19	0.613	1.363	81.529			
20	0.571	1.270	82.799			
21	0.540	1.199	83.998			
22	0.493	1.095	85.092			
23	0.489	1.086	86.179			
24	0.467	1.038	87.217			
25	0.448	0.995	88.212			
26	0.422	0.937	89.149			
27	0.396	0.880	90.030			
28	0.379	0.842	90.871			
29	0.359	0.797	91.668			
30	0.345	0.767	92.435			
31	0.318	0.706	93.141			
32	0.298	0.662	93.803			
33	0.289	0.642	94.444			
34	0.277	0.615	95.059			
35	0.266	0.590	95.649			
36	0.246	0.548	96.197			
37	0.236	0.523	96.721			
38	0.225	0.500	97.221			
39	0.221	0.492	97.713			
40	0.208	0.462	98.175			
41	0.191	0.424	98.599			
42	0.171	0.381	98.980			
43	0.166	0.368	99.348			
44	0.163	0.362	99.710			
45	0.130	0.290	100.000			
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						

(Source; The researcher's own data).