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Testing a Model of Servant Leadership's Influence on Follower Outcomes: Exploring Mediation Effects of Follower Trust and Prosocial Identity

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**TESTING A MODEL OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP'S INFLUENCE ON
FOLLOWER OUTCOMES: EXPLORING MEDIATION EFFECTS OF
FOLLOWER TRUST AND PROSOCIAL IDENTITY**

by

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ABSTRACT

TESTING A MODEL OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP'S INFLUENCE ON FOLLOWER OUTCOMES: EXPLORING MEDIATION EFFECTS OF FOLLOWER TRUST AND PROSOCIAL IDENTITY

Dante P. Myers
Old Dominion University, 2018
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Servant leadership is beginning to emerge as a premier positive leadership approach in the 21st century. However, recent theoretical propositions detailing the process through which servant leadership impacts outcomes has not been tested. Using the JD-R framework, the present study investigates follower prosocial identity and follower trust as key mediators of the relationship between servant leadership and follower job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, community citizenship behaviors, and turnover intentions. Research participants included 578 working adults recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) that responded to three surveys separated by approximately one month each. The hypothesized model was tested using structural equation modeling in Mplus 7.4. Overall, support was found for a majority of the study's hypotheses. As expected, servant leadership had positive relationships with both follower trust and follower prosocial identity. Furthermore, follower trust and follower prosocial identity both mediated the relationships between servant leadership and outcomes. Unexpectedly, the specific indirect effect of servant leadership on community citizenship behaviors through follower trust was negative. Differential relationships between mediators and outcomes were also expected, such that follower trust would be more important for job attitudes, and follower prosocial identity will be more important for citizenship behaviors. The findings demonstrated that follower trust was indeed a stronger mediator than follower prosocial

identity of the relationships between servant leadership and job attitudes. However, follower prosocial identity was not a stronger mediator than follower trust of the relationships between servant leadership and citizenship behaviors. In fact, follower trust was a stronger mediator of the relationship between servant leadership and community citizenship behaviors than follower prosocial identity. Implications of the present study, limitations, and future directions are discussed.

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This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Karina, and my son, Dante “DJ” Jr.

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Wow....here I stand, five years after embarking on such a grueling yet rewarding journey, at the end of my program. Dr. Dante? Dr. Myers? Which sounds better, both? Who knows...that title will probably always feel weird to me. Do not get me wrong, I have put in the work and persisted to earn the recognition. But you see, I never in my wildest dreams thought that I would stand among the illustrious few that have attained the coveted "PhD." Having grown up in a single parent household, not always being sure if we could pay rent for the upcoming month or buy clothing for the beginning of the school year....attending graduate school, much less college, was not even in my thought process.

Through it all, I cannot help but stress that I am truly a product of God's grace. I could not have accomplished anything without Him. He is my Rock, my Comforter, My Redeemer...my Everything. I got to know You in a very special way these past five years, years I would not trade for anything. You are a "way maker and miracle worker." I have never met all of the qualifications, yet here I stand...on the shoulders of the only One that has every infinite resource and by His favor can place the weakest, most insecure, and seemingly inadequate vessels in places and positions where they could never imagine. I love you with all that I am, Lord Jesus.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

“Everybody can be great. Because anybody can serve. You don’t have to have a college degree to serve. You don’t have to make your subject and your verb agree to serve... You don’t have to know the second theory of thermodynamics in physics to serve. You only need a heart full of grace. A soul generated by love.”

– Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr.

Recent public corporate scandals (e.g., Enron, Wells Fargo) involving questionable leadership practices increasingly show that common values espoused by organizations and organizational leadership (such as integrity, care, and commitment) are not aligned with enacted values. Consequently, there have been developing interests in positive leadership with an emphasis on ethical and moral behavior. One positive leadership approach that is garnering attention from practitioners and researchers is servant leadership. While the concept of servant leadership originated many millennia ago, the modern approach to servant leadership was popularized by Robert Greenleaf in the late twentieth century (Greenleaf, 1970). The hallmark of servant leadership (as compared to other leadership styles) is that the leader takes the time to both consider and put the follower first (van Dierendonck, 2011). Whereas in other leadership approaches achieving organizational goals is the primary focus, servant leadership places the needs of the follower first, with the fulfilment of organizational goals being a direct result of followers’ needs being met (Liden, Panaccio, Meuser, Hu, & Wayne, 2014a). Many leadership theories outline the importance of considering subordinates, but servant leadership is the only leadership theory that places this approach as its central concept. This approach to leadership received little attention for the first three decades after

Greenleaf's seminal article; however, since the turn of the new millennium servant leadership has received an increasing amount of acceptance and application. This can be seen in that many large organizations (e.g., TDIndustries, Men's Warehouse, Southwest, Nordstrom, etc.) are implementing its principles and many consulting firms (e.g., Leadership from the Core) are dedicated to developing servant leaders.

Although servant leadership is among the most promising stand-alone positive leadership approaches (Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu, 2018), additional research is needed regarding the relationships between servant leadership and theoretically relevant mediators and outcomes. As servant leadership is generating more and more attention, researchers have begun elaborating and situating the approach in larger conceptual and theoretical models of servant leadership that include antecedents, intermediary variables, outcomes, and boundary conditions (Liden et al., 2014a; van Dierendonck, 2011). Studies have recently been published empirically testing the theoretical propositions regarding the relationships between servant leadership and its antecedents. However, there is a dearth of research that has examined the relationship between servant leadership, intermediary variables, and outcomes, especially outcomes that may be unique to the theory. For example, one of the main components of servant leadership is the effect that this type of leadership would have on the community (van Dierendonck, 2011). Indeed, researchers have made calls for servant leadership "scholars to focus their attention on the individual outcome of community citizenship behavior" (Liden et al., 2014a). To date, this outcome has only been examined in one study (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008). Community citizenship behavior (CCB) is both a theoretically and practically important construct to research considering the growing organizational interest in corporate social responsibility. Additionally, there are outcomes that

conceptually align with servant leadership that have received little to no research attention (e.g., turnover intentions and turnover), and mediators that have been proposed in the literature that need to be tested (e.g., follower prosocial identity, follower trust, etc.; Liden et al., 2014a; van Dierendonck, 2011). In particular, follower prosocial identity is a unique concept that has just recently been applied to the servant leadership context. The current study advances the servant leadership literature by examining novel concepts such as prosocial identity in testing the mechanisms through which servant leadership leads to favorable outcomes (again, some of which have received very little research attention). Figure 1 depicts the proposed model driving the present research. After a review of the servant leadership literature and discussion on how servant leadership is theoretically and empirically distinct from other leadership approaches, the model is discussed and elaborated in subsequent sections.

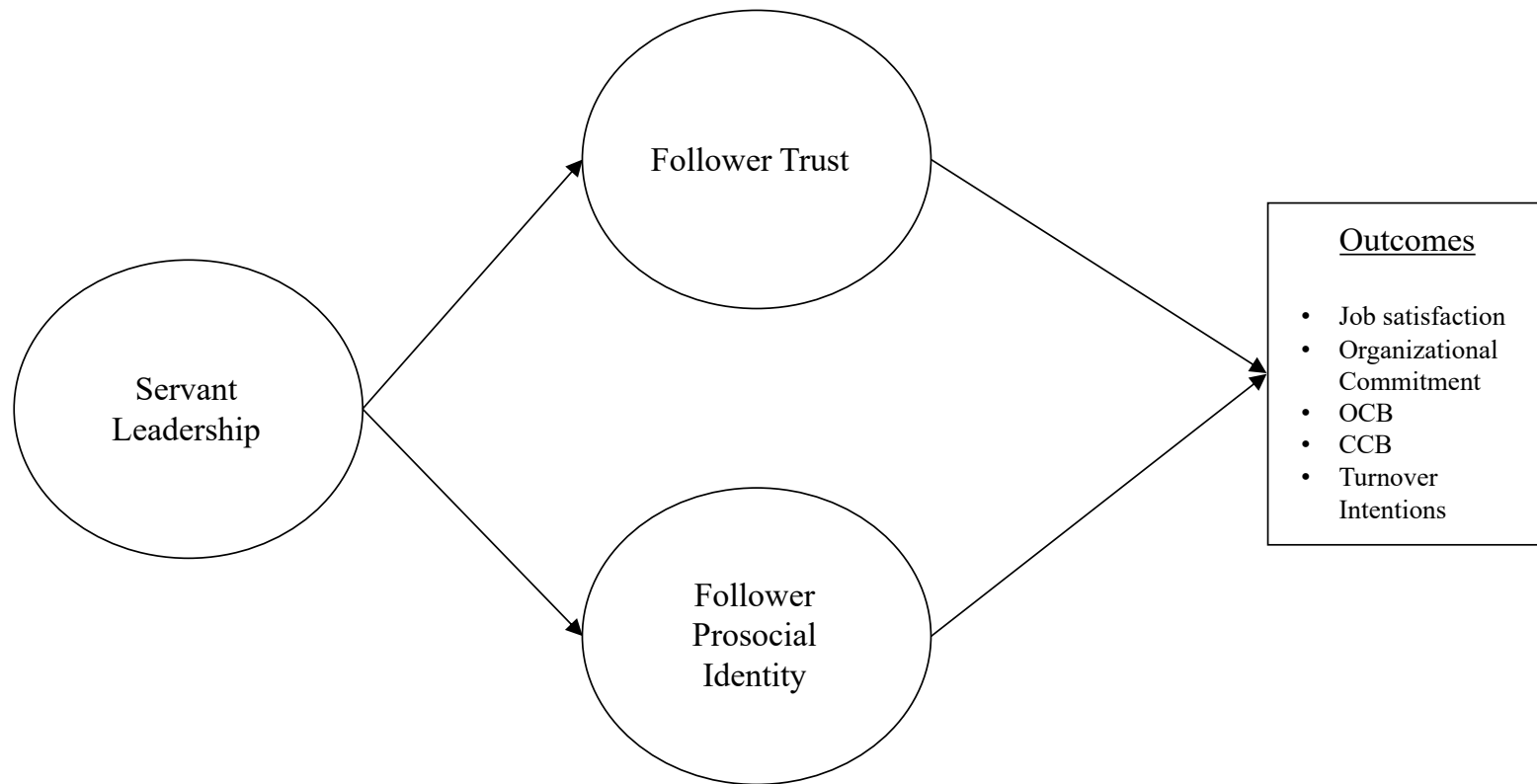


Figure 1. The proposed model depicting the mediation effects of follower trust and prosocial identity on the relationships between servant leadership and outcomes.

Servant Leadership Overview

The aim of the present research is to test a model of servant leadership. Before walking through the model, the current section addresses two main questions: 1) What is servant leadership?, and 2) How is it similar and different from other leadership theories? To address the first question, development of the servant leadership literature and servant leadership characteristics and behaviors are discussed. To address the second question, servant leadership is compared to competing leadership approaches, specifically addressing whether servant leadership produces unique outcomes and if it impacts similar outcomes but through unique means.

What is Servant Leadership? While the servant leadership literature has increased substantially since the early 2000s, the contributing research ranges widely in quality and has lacked an organizing framework. Recently, more servant leadership research has been published in top tier journals (e.g., Chen, Zhu, & Zhou, 2015; Hoch et al., 2018; Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014b; Liden et al., 2015; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010) and two organizing reviews (i.e., Liden et al., 2014a; van Dierendonck, 2011) have been published. Providing the first thorough review of the servant research literature, van Dierendonck (2011) addressed six key points that helped define, categorize, organize, and ground servant leadership in a theoretical framework. Other than Greenleaf's early work, this review is one of the most highly cited servant leadership articles. Prior to the publication of this review, there was not much organization and agreement around what constituted servant leadership in the literature (e.g., confusion between behaviors and outcomes), which is mainly attributed to Greenleaf not providing a clear operational definition of servant leadership (van Dierendonck, 2011). Thus, this article provided a notable contribution to the servant

leadership literature in that it distinguished antecedents, mediating variables, behaviors, and outcomes.

Liden et al. (2014a) extended van Dierendonck's review by focusing on servant leadership research published in top tier journals, discussing recent developments in servant leadership, and outlining a similar theoretical framework as van Dierendonck (2011) but adding propositions to guide future research. The authors first described how each refereed article contributed to the servant leadership literature, mostly including measure development and empirical contributions. In terms of recent developments, Liden and colleagues focused on the potential lack of reception of servant leadership and the role conflict servant leaders endure as challenges to this approach. For the next key point, in the context of the proposed theoretical framework, Liden et al. walked through the leader and follower characteristics that are important for servant leadership as well as the intermediate variables and outcomes of servant leadership.

In terms of characteristics and behaviors, many of them have been proposed in the literature to constitute servant leadership. According to van Dierendonck (2011) who reviewed foundational servant leadership (i.e., Laub, 1999; Patterson, 2003; Russell & Stone, 2002; Spears, 1995) and distinguished antecedents, behaviors, mediators, and outcomes, servant leaders “empower and develop people, they show humility, are authentic, accept people for who they are, provide direction, and are stewards who work for the good of the whole” (p. 1232). Similarly, Liden et al. (2014a) explained that servant leadership is represented by seven behaviors “putting subordinates first, helping subordinates grow and succeed, empowering, emotional healing, creating value for the community, behaving ethically, and conceptual skills” (p. 2). Taken together, the common themes across the servant leadership literature are that servant leaders put

subordinates first, develop subordinates, empower subordinates, demonstrate empathy, demonstrate social responsibility, behave ethically, and provide tailored direction (i.e., Liden et al., 2014a; van Dierendonck, 2011).

Servant Leadership Compared to Other Leadership Theories. Important questions to ask when considering servant leadership are: What distinguishes servant leadership from other styles? How is servant leadership related to other leadership styles? It is important to note that the main conceptual distinction between servant leadership and other styles is that the central aim of servant leaders is to put followers needs before their own. Whereas other leadership approaches focus on motivating employees with the primary aim of impacting the organization, the primary aim of servant leaders is the personal and professional development of each subordinate first, with the fulfillment of organizational goals as a likely by-product of employees perceiving genuine concern and care from their leaders. Thus, although some of the behaviors included in servant leadership are also present in other leadership styles (e.g., providing direction/structure, empathy/consideration), the fundamental goal of the leader is different. To further explicate servant leadership, below it is compared to leadership as conceived by several popular leadership theories.

Transformational Leadership. Introduced to the organizational context by Bass (1985), transformational leadership has rapidly become the most studied leadership theory. It occurs when leaders “broaden and elevate the interests of their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group, and when they stir their employees to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group” (Bass, 1985, p. 21). Transformational leadership comprises four behaviors: idealized influence, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and

inspirational motivation. Idealized influence refers to leader behaviors that reflect what is best for the organization and that provide vision. Individualized consideration refers to leader behaviors that reflect a focus on employees' needs for achievement and development. Intellectual stimulation refers to leader behaviors that promote employees to think for themselves, reframe problems, and think in innovative ways. Inspirational motivation refers to leader behaviors that encourage employees to achieve more than they initially imagined by setting high and realistic standards, which fosters resilience and self-efficacy (Barling, 2011).

Although servant leadership and transformational leadership share some conceptual similarity, there are key conceptual and empirical distinctions that separate the two leadership approaches. Conceptually, both servant leadership and transformational leadership are focused on employee development. However, transformational leadership focuses on the development of followers for the primary benefit of the organization (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). In other words, the desire for the organization to perform better is in mind when considering employee development. On the other hand, servant leaders' primary focus is genuine concern for their employees (Stone et al., 2004). Fulfilment of organizational goals is a by-product of enhanced well-being of subordinates, but it is not what motivates servant leaders to focus on employee development (Stone et al., 2004). Furthermore, servant leadership's emphasis on humility, morality, ethics, and empathy also distinguishes it from transformational leadership. Researchers have pointed out that transformational leadership's main deficiency is the exclusion of an explicit moral/ethical dimension (Hoch et al., 2018).

Empirically speaking, research has also demonstrated notable differences between transformational leadership and servant leadership. In a meta-analytic comparison of

positive leadership approaches, servant leadership had the lowest correlation with transformational leadership ($\rho = .52$) and was therefore the only leadership approach to demonstrate support for construct nonredundancy (Hoch et al., 2018). Servant leadership also had higher average correlations and relative weights with outcomes (e.g., OCB, engagement, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust in supervisor) than transformational leadership, and it explained an average of an additional 12% of the variance in outcomes beyond transformational leadership, which was markedly higher than the other leadership approaches studied (Hoch et al., 2018). In one of the first empirical comparisons between servant leadership and transformational leadership, Parolini, Patterson, and Winston (2009) demonstrated that servant leaders are perceived as having a primary allegiance to the needs of the individual above the goals of the organization, and transformational leaders are perceived as having a primary allegiance to the goals of the organization above the needs of the individual.

Leader Member Exchange. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Liden & Maslyn, 1998) is a relational leadership theory rooted in role theory and social exchange theory. LMX focuses on the distinct, dyadic relationships between leaders and followers. In other words, there is a bi-directional influence from leaders to followers and differential relationships between different leader and follower dyads. High LMX relationships engender feelings of mutual obligation and reciprocity and low LMX relationships include formally agreed on economic exchanges (e.g., pay for performance). Social rather than economic exchange relationships foster loyalty, commitment, support, and trust (Barling, 2011).

In terms of differences from servant leadership, research has demonstrated that LMX is empirically distinct from servant leadership using confirmatory factor analysis

(e.g., Ehrhart, 2004) and examining relationships with servant leadership and outcomes after controlling for LMX (e.g., Liden et al., 2008). Moreover, high-quality leader-follower relationships have been conceptualized as resulting from effective servant leadership behavior and as a key linking variable to outcomes (Liden et al., 2008; van Dierendonck, 2011). Similar to transformational leadership, LMX is also distinct from servant leadership in that LMX theory does not include an explicit ethical or moral dimension.

Authentic and Ethical Leadership. The two leadership styles that share the most conceptual similarity with servant leadership, largely because of the inclusion of a clear ethical or moral emphasis, are authentic and ethical leadership. Authentic leadership is defined as “actions that are guided by the leaders’ true self as reflected by core values, beliefs, thoughts and feelings, as opposed to environmental contingencies or pressures from others” (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005, p. 347). Authentic leadership includes the following dimensions: positive moral perspective, self-awareness, balanced processing, relational transparency, positive psychological capital, and authentic behavior. Ethical leadership is defined as “the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making” (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005, p. 120). Ethical leaders exhibit behaviors that encourage ethicality in the workplace – modeling ethical behaviors and rewarding/punishing followers regarding ethics (Brown & Treviño, 2006).

While presented as unique leadership approaches, authentic and ethical leadership are narrower in focus and overlap with components of servant leadership (e.g., authenticity, humility, caring for others, developing others, providing tailored direction,

etc.). Thus, following the suggestions of other recent leadership scholars (e.g., Liden et al., 2014a; van Dierendonck, 2011), authentic and ethical leadership should be considered as subsumed by servant leadership. While a strong argument can be made that these two approaches conceptually align as facets of servant leadership, this assertion needs to be subject to empirical scrutiny. However, testing the relationships between these leadership approaches is beyond the scope of the present study.

Model Discussion

The proposed model in Figure 1 is grounded in the Job Demands-Resources framework (JD-R; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004; Schaufeli & Taris, 2014) and inspired by the theoretical frameworks presented in Liden et al. (2014a) and van Dierendonck (2011). The JD-R model is a leading job stress model that describes how employee well-being is impacted by a balance of resources and demands (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014). The original model was expanded from a focus on burnout as a result of high demands and low resources (health impairment process), to include a motivational process. The underlying theoretical framework for the hypothesized model is drawn from the motivational process of the JD-R model that emphasizes the motivational factors of job resources on outcomes (e.g., well-being, organizational commitment, citizenship behaviors, turnover intentions, etc.). Schaufeli and colleagues identify “leadership” and “trust in management” as key job resources. Since personal resources can be described as an aspect of the self that is related to resiliency and successfully affecting your environment (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014), prosocial identity, as a concept being introduced to the servant leadership and JD-R contexts, is conceptualized as a personal resource under the JD-R framework. In the present study, servant leadership represents a job resource that positively impacts outcomes given its inherent focus on the well-being of subordinates. Foundational to the

model is that job resources can play an intrinsic motivational role by satisfying the basic needs outlined in self-determination theory (i.e., autonomy, relatedness, competence; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2000). By way of servant leadership, follower trust and follower prosocial identity, as resources (job and personal, respectively), are conceptualized as satisfying individuals' needs for relatedness. The JD-R model then describes how this affective-motivational state affects positive outcomes. The outcomes in the current research, job attitudes, citizenship behaviors, and turnover intentions, some of which have little empirical precedents in the servant leadership literature, are all outcomes that are specifically mentioned in the JD-R framework (Schaufeli & Taris, 2014).

Additional inspiration for the proposed model is drawn from Liden, van Dierendonck, and colleagues. Liden et al. (2014a) proposed a framework that includes antecedents impacting the enactment of servant leader behaviors, which then affect outcomes through a series of intermediary variables. Given the dearth of high-quality empirical research demonstrating the mechanisms through which servant leadership impacts outcomes, two of the intermediary variables (follower trust and prosocial identity) and three outcomes (organizational commitment, OCB, and CCB) from their framework are tested in the present research. The framework that van Dierendonck (2011) proposed also includes antecedents impacting servant leadership which then is related to multiple outcomes through intermediary variables. One of the intermediary variables (trust) and four outcomes (commitment, job satisfaction, OCB, and corporate social responsibility shares substantial conceptual similarity with CCB]) are tested in the current study.

Drawing from the JD-R model and recent servant leadership theoretical developments, it is hypothesized that follower trust and follower prosocial identity will mediate the relationships between servant leadership and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, community citizenship behaviors, with the inclusion of turnover intentions. What is more, it is expected that servant leadership will predict outcomes differently depending on the mediating variable. In other words, the effect of servant leadership on outcomes through follower prosocial identity or follower trust will impact outcomes in different ways. The hypothesized relationships are explained and elaborated in the sections that follow.

Servant Leadership Predicting Proposed Mediators

Follower Trust. Trust has been a central concept in servant leadership from Greenleaf's early writings, even though it is mainly discussed in the context of transformational leadership or LMX. Trust refers to "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another" (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998, p. 395). Components of servant leadership align with predictors of trust that have been outlined in the literature (Liden et al., 2014a). Specifically, Hosmer (1995) and Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) proposed that perceptions of the leader's ability, benevolence, and integrity predict trust. Ability corresponds with servant leaders providing tailored direction with their focus on knowledge and skills to support followers in a given domain (e.g., organizations). Benevolence corresponds with servant leaders helping followers' development, putting them first, and emotional healing, which all demonstrate leader concern for follower welfare. Integrity corresponds to servant leaders' ethical behavior in adherence to normatively appropriate practices (Liden et al., 2014a). Additional

predictors of trust identified in the literature that correspond to servant leadership behaviors are concern for employees and open communication (Krosgaard, Brodt, & Whitener, 2002).

While there is clear conceptual similarity between predictors of trust identified in the literature and servant leadership, research also demonstrates a strong empirical link between servant leadership and trust. In a meta-analytic investigation, Hoch et al. (2018) demonstrated a .71 corrected correlation between servant leadership and trust (based on 7 primary studies and a total sample size of 1,886). Furthermore, contrary to expectations, based on the strong relationship between trust and transformational leadership, servant leadership explained significant incremental variance in trust beyond transformational leadership (Hoch et al., 2018). Given the conceptual and empirical research discussed above, there is strong rationale to expect that servant leadership will predict follower trust; thus, the following hypothesis represents a replication of prior research.

Hypothesis 1: Servant leadership will have a positive relationship with follower trust.

Follower Prosocial Identity. One of the early, foundational concepts of servant leadership is that followers of servant leaders develop and become servant leaders themselves (Greenleaf, 1970). Liden et al. (2014a) postulates that the process by which followers become servant leaders is influenced by the development of follower prosocial identity. The behaviors that servant leaders exhibit and that their followers will exhibit are inherently prosocial. As servant leaders spend concentrated efforts developing followers, followers' prosocial identity grows, which enables them to enact servant leader behaviors as well (Liden et al., 2014a).

Prosocial identity refers to “the dimension of the self-concept focused on helping and benefiting others” (Grant, Molinsky, Margolis, Kamin, & Schiano, 2009, p. 321). Prosocial identity is a relatively new concept discussed in the context of servant leadership. Social identity and social categorization theories can explain how follower prosocial identity development leads to prosocial (servant leader) behaviors (Tajfel, 1972; Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner, 1985; Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). To increase self-esteem and reduce uncertainty, followers aspire to join the in-group led by the servant leader (Liden et al., 2014a). Through self-categorization and depersonalization, followers begin to associate themselves as group members who behave consistently with the social standards of the group. Followers internally determine that the in-group behaviors, as determined by the servant leader, are the appropriate behaviors to exhibit, which leads to accepting and enacting the behaviors themselves (Liden et al., 2014a). There is little by way of empirical research to support the proposed relationship between servant leadership and follower prosocial identity. Thus, the present research represents an initial test of this relationship.

Hypothesis 2: Servant leadership will have a positive relationship with follower prosocial identity.

Follower Trust and Prosocial Identity as Mediators

While the relationships between servant leadership and outcomes continues to develop (e.g., Hoch et al., 2018), the present research proposes that servant leadership is related to outcomes through follower trust and follower prosocial identity rooted in the JD-R model. Additionally, the nature of these relationships is expected to differ depending on the intermediary mechanism and outcome combination. Follower prosocial identity has not been empirically examined in a servant leadership context, which

highlights a contribution to the literature. The outcomes captured in this study include job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment), citizenship behaviors (i.e., organizational citizenship behavior and community citizenship behavior), and turnover intentions, each of which are key outcomes highlighted in the JD-R framework.

Moreover, the outcomes studied in the current research stand out as arguably the most conceptually aligned with servant leadership. Specifically, job attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior have both been theoretically and empirically linked to servant leadership and their inclusion builds on prior research (Hoch et al., 2018). Elucidating how servant leadership may differentially impact these outcomes via follower trust and prosocial identity contributes to the literature.

In addition, the present study contributes by examining understudied outcomes of servant leadership. Although, community citizenship behavior has been theoretically linked to servant leadership, it has only been empirically studied once (Liden et al., 2008). Similarly, only two studies could be located that link servant leadership and turnover intentions (i.e., Babakus, Yavas, & Ashill, 2010; Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko, & Roberts, 2009; Babakus and colleagues' article included a non-US sample), which makes this an additional contribution to the literature.

Follower Trust as a Mediator. Both van Dierendonck (2011) and Liden et al. (2014a) proposed that follower trust is a key linking variable between servant leadership and outcomes. Invoking the JD-R framework, trust (job resource) facilitates the motivational process by satisfying individuals' needs for relatedness, linking servant leadership (job resource) to positive outcomes. This process can also be partially explained using LMX theory. Liden, van Dierendonck, and colleagues mention that servant leaders often form high LMX relationships, which fosters trust and subsequent

favorable outcomes (Liden et al., 2014a; van Dierendonck, 2011). From an LMX perspective, meta-analytic research demonstrated relationships with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, and low turnover intentions (Davis & Rothstein, 2006; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007). From the same social exchange theory basis as LMX, trust has also explicitly been identified as having a key role in the social exchange relationship (Blau, 1964). Specifically, Blau asserted, “The establishment of exchange relations involves making investments that constitute commitment to the other party. Because social exchange requires trusting others to reciprocate, the initial problem is to prove oneself trustworthy” (Blau, 1964, p. 98). As the leader demonstrates commitment by engaging in servant leader behaviors, followers’ trust will continue to grow. To ensure there is a balanced exchange, the follower feels compelled to reciprocate back to their exchange partner. Obligations that are exchanged are seen as symbols of mutual support and loyalty, which have been conceptualized in terms of positive attitudes, contributions, extra-role performance, and behavioral intentions (Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002). Trust in leadership has been empirically linked to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, etc. (Aryee et al., 2002; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Furthermore, meta-analytic research has shown relationships between servant leadership and job performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, and job attitudes (Hoch et al., 2018). Follower trust is proposed to mediate the relationship between servant leadership and outcomes.

Hypothesis 3a: Follower trust will mediate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3b: Follower trust will mediate the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3c: Follower trust will mediate the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 3d: Follower trust will mediate the relationship between servant leadership and community citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 3e: Follower trust will mediate the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intentions.

Furthermore, trust is expected to be a stronger mediator of the relationships between servant leadership and job attitudes than follower prosocial identity will be. Like follower trust in the leader, followers' job attitudes are cognitive and affective in nature. Compared to prosocial identity, follower trust is likely to be more proximally connected to job attitudes. This is highlighted by the empirical research described above that demonstrated a strong link between trust in leadership and job attitudes (Hoch et al., 2018). Moreover, followers who develop a strong sense of trust in the leader as a result of experiencing servant leadership are likely to evaluate their working situation more favorably (via the social exchange process), which may be less likely through prosocial identity development. Prosocial identity development has to do with seeing oneself as more caring and generous, which, according to social categorization and identity theories, is reinforced by *behaviors* that one can enact either inside or outside of the organization. Followers' trust in their leader (e.g., leaving career direction up to their leader, not questioning their motives at work) as a result of servant leadership likely connects them more to their job and organization (given a similar cognitive/affective basis and workplace context) than how they personally identifying themselves as prosocial does.

Thus, follower trust is likely a stronger mechanism than follower prosocial identity in explaining how positive job attitudes are fostered in employees with servant leaders.

Hypothesis 4a: Follower trust will more strongly mediate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction than follower prosocial identity.

Hypothesis 4b: Follower trust will more strongly mediate the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment than follower prosocial identity.

Prosocial Identity as a Mediator. As mentioned above, there is scant research discussing the relationships between servant leadership, follower prosocial identity, and outcomes. From the JD-R framework, prosocial identity (personal resource) facilitates the motivational process by satisfying individuals' needs for relatedness, linking servant leadership (job resource) to positive outcomes. Additionally, Liden et al. (2014a) proposed that servant leadership behaviors impact organizational and community citizenship behaviors through follower prosocial identity. Recall that through self-categorization and depersonalization, followers will see themselves as group members and behave in accordance with standards of the group. Followers determine that the in-group behaviors are appropriate to exhibit and then enact the behaviors themselves. Because organizational citizenship behaviors are prosocial behaviors directed at individuals in an organization and the organization directly, and community citizenship behaviors are prosocial behaviors directed at recipients outside of the organization context, both types of behaviors are likely to be direct results of the prosocial identity development in followers from exposure to servant leader behaviors (Liden et al., 2014a). Social identity theory may also explain how follower prosocial identity acts as a mediator of the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction, organizational

commitment, and turnover intentions. Specifically, the process of an individual becoming increasingly ingrained within an in-group (with prosocial identity development in followers being facilitated by a servant leader) may engender positive attitudes toward the job and decrease intentions on leaving. Followers getting connected to the in-group may see their job as proof of their membership and seek to act on the group's behalf to preserve their group membership. This may include evaluating the job positively and intending to remain in the job. Thus, it is expected that servant leadership will be positively related to outcomes through follower prosocial identity.

Hypothesis 5a: Follower prosocial identity will mediate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5b: Follower prosocial identity will mediate the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 5c: Follower prosocial identity will mediate the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 5d: Follower prosocial identity will mediate the relationship between servant leadership and community citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 5e: Follower prosocial identity will mediate the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intentions.

Beyond follower prosocial identity mediating the relationship between servant leadership and outcomes, it is also expected that prosocial identity will be a stronger mediator of the relationships between servant leadership and citizenship behaviors than follower trust will be. The theoretical propositions above describe the expected unique relationships between servant leadership, prosocial identity, and citizenship behaviors. Specifically, as followers' prosocial identities develop through exposure to servant leader

behaviors, they begin to exhibit similar prosocial *behavior* as well. Identity development is a deep process that involves internalization of values and an individual's self-concept; thus, it is likely to have a stronger impact on enacted behaviors than follower trust does. It is specifically expected that with increased supervisor servant leader behaviors, citizenship behaviors will be increased through enhanced follower prosocial identity, and that this positive relationship will be stronger than the relationship between servant leadership and citizenship behaviors through follower trust. While the deeper, internal prosocial identity development initiated through servant leader behaviors is expected to be stronger than follower trust for citizenship behaviors, prosocial identity is not expected to be a stronger mediator than follower trust for job attitudes and turnover intentions. The underlying theory more strongly supports this process impacting what individuals *do* in a given situation, rather than how they *feel* and *evaluate* the situation. It is expected that the positive cognitive and affective state achieved through follower trust as a result of servant leadership, more strongly impacts individuals' *evaluations* of a given situation.

Hypothesis 6a: Follower prosocial identity will more strongly mediate the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior than follower trust.

Hypothesis 6b: Follower prosocial identity will more strongly mediate the relationship between servant leadership and community citizenship behavior than follower trust.

There is neither firm theoretical nor empirical evidence to hypothesize that follower trust or follower prosocial identity will more strongly mediate the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intentions. Turnover intentions are cognitive in nature and therefore more conceptually similar to job attitudes than citizenship behaviors.

It is possible that given a similar construct basis, the rationale for hypothesizing that follower trust will be a stronger mediator of the relationship between servant leadership and job attitudes could be applied here. However, little theory to support that notion precludes asserting a specific hypothesis. Nevertheless, this remains an important relationship to explore considering the growing servant leadership literature. Thus, the following research question is posed:

Research Question 1: Will follower trust or follower prosocial identity more strongly mediate the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intentions?

Summary

In summary, utilizing the JD-R framework, the contribution the present research makes to the servant leadership literature is twofold: 1) empirically testing recent theoretical propositions around the key intermediary variables (i.e., follower trust and follower prosocial identity), and 2) examining the effect of servant leadership on theoretically and practically relevant outcomes that have received very little research attention.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Participants

The final sample included 578 working adults recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk. Participants had a mean age of 36.55 ($SD = 9.87$) and worked an approximate average of 41 hours per week ($SD = 3.86$). The sample was mainly Caucasian (74.4 percent) and male (56.4 percent). The majority of the sample was married (46.5 percent) and held a Bachelor's degree (55.2 percent). Most participants had an organizational tenure between one and six years (61.6 percent) and reported to their current manager between one and six years (73.8 percent). All study participants were employees that worked within the U.S. One of the advantages of using MTurk is the potential for a diverse sample of participants with a broad range of job positions across numerous industries (Landers & Behrend, 2015; Paolacci & Chandler, 2014). Table 1 demonstrates this by showing the broad range of industries represented by the current sample using Bureau of Labor Statistics industry codes. Complete demographic information is presented in Table 2.

A priori power analyses were conducted in order to identify the appropriate sample size needed to test the hypothesized model. It is often difficult to determine sample sizes needed to test a structural equation model with many researchers relying on the rule-of-thumb of at least a sample of 200 to test the model. However, Kim (2005) provides formulas for calculating 80% power to obtain acceptable fit for multiple fit indices. Based on these formulas, SPSS syntax was used to compute the specific sample size needed to test the proposed model. According to the calculations, sample sizes of 581, 537, 99, and 49 would be needed for CFI, McDonald's MC, Steiger's γ , and RMSEA, respectively. Thus, the aim for the current study was to have a sample size that

corresponded to the upper bound requirement. With a final sample of 578, the upper bound was nearly reached.

Table 1

Frequency Table of Industries

Codes	<i>N</i>	%
Professional and Business Services	174	30.4
Information	107	18.7
Administrative and Support Services	94	16.4
Finance and Insurance	59	10.3
Other Services	46	8.0
Educational Services	38	6.6
Health Care and Social Assistance	22	3.8
Retail Trade	19	3.3
Arts, Entertainment, and Recreation	8	1.4
Real Estate and Rental	5	.9

Note: There was missing data on job titles for six participants.

Table 2

Frequency Table of Demographics

Variable	<i>N</i>	%
Gender		
Male	326	56.4
Female	252	43.6
Race		
Caucasian	430	74.4
African-American	52	9.0
Asian	46	8.0
Hispanic	24	4.2
Native American	9	1.6
Other	9	1.6
Multiple Race	8	1.4
Marital Status		
Single	246	42.6
Married	269	46.5
Living with Partner	57	9.9
Other	6	1.0
Organizational Tenure		
6 to 12 months	30	5.2
1 to 3 years	193	33.4
4 to 6 years	163	28.2
7 to 10 years	101	17.5
11+ years	91	15.7
Tenure with Manager		
6 to 12 months	65	11.2
1 to 3 years	276	47.8
4 to 6 years	150	26.0
7 to 10 years	59	10.2
11+ years	28	4.8
Education		
High School	54	9.3
Associates	84	14.5
Bachelors	319	55.2
Masters	95	16.4
Doctorate	22	3.8
Other	4	0.7

Procedure

The study used a cross-sectional self-report design. Three surveys were distributed, each separated by a one-month period. The Time 1 survey included qualifying questions and then immediately started the full survey for participants that were qualified. Time 2 and 3 surveys included a brief qualification section to determine participants' continued eligibility and then immediately started the full survey for participants that remained eligible. The exogenous predictor variable (i.e., servant leadership) was measured at Time 1 and the endogenous mediator and criterion variables were measured at Time 2 and Time 3, respectively. Given the common method bias concerns of cross-sectional self-report research, temporal separation between predictor and criterion variables is a recommended solution (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) was used to obtain the sample for the present research. Despite concerns regarding MTurk as a credible data source, recent research and discussion on this topic affirm that MTurk is in fact a quality data collection resource and is more representative of the US population than other common convenience sampling methods (Landers & Behrend, 2015; Paolacci & Chandler, 2014; Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010).

The Time 1 survey was posted for MTurk participants to voluntarily complete. Part one of the Time 1 survey included qualifying questions asking if participants work full-time, report to a direct supervisor, have been at their job for at least 6 months with the same supervisor, have a white-collar job (given different nature of work and motivational factors), and work within the US (given impact of cultural differences). Part one of the Time 1 survey was completed by 1,670 participants. Participants that passed

the qualification section moved on to complete part two of the Time 1 survey. Of the 1,670 that completed part one, 917 were eligible and completed part two.

Items to identify careless responding (e.g., “Please select *strongly disagree*”) were embedded in each survey to ensure data quality. For part two of the Time 1 survey, 27 participants were removed for failing quality checks, resulting in useable data from 890 participants (53 percent completion rate). Participants that completed part one of the Time 1 survey but were ineligible to complete part two were compensated \$0.10. Participants that completed both parts of the Time 1 survey were compensated \$0.75.

After one month, email invitations were sent out to the participants who completed the full Time 1 survey. The Time 2 survey included eligibility questions that prohibited anyone who changed managers from completing the Time 2 survey. Of the 890 participants that were sent survey invitations, 570 completed the survey. Nine participants were removed for failing quality check items, resulting in useable data from 561 participants (63 percent completion rate). Participants received \$0.90 for completion of the Time 2 survey.

The Time 3 survey was administered one month after the Time 2 survey concluded. Invitations to participate in the Time 3 survey were sent to all participants who completed the Time 1 survey in order to maximize sample size. Again, eligibility questions were included that prohibited anyone who changed managers from completing the Time 3 survey. This method along with additional sample retention techniques (e.g., daily reminders with countdowns) resulted in 592 Time 3 survey completions. Three participants were removed from further consideration because of failed quality checks, resulting in useable data from 589 participants (66 percent completion rate). Participants received \$1.25 for completing the Time 3 survey.

After administration of all three surveys was completed, the data were merged based on random codes generated by the survey platform to match participant responses across time. Then, data quality was further analyzed. Specifically, demographics were checked to ensure participants qualified for the study (i.e., worked more than 30 hours a week, had a direct supervisor, white collar job, etc.); 28 participants who reported working part-time hours or who did not report to their manager for at least six months were removed from further analyses.

Measures

Servant Leadership. In order to assess servant leadership, the 28-item servant leadership measure developed by Liden et al. (2008) was used. Participant responses were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A sample item of the servant leadership measure is “My manager sacrifices his/her own interests to meet my needs.” Reliability estimates from Liden et al. (2008) range from .76 to .91. The coefficient alpha internal consistency reliability estimate for the measure in the current study was .96. See Appendix A for a full list of items.

Job Satisfaction. The well-established five-item General Job Satisfaction scale from Hackman and Oldham (1975) was used to measure job satisfaction in this study. Participant responses were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A sample item from this scale is “Generally speaking, I am satisfied with this job.” The reliability estimate reported in Hackman and Oldham (1975) for this scale was $\alpha = .75$. The coefficient alpha internal consistency reliability estimate for the measure in the current study was .90. See Appendix B for a full list of items.

Organizational Commitment. In order to assess organizational commitment, the six-item Affective Commitment Scale was used (Allen & Meyer, 1990, 1996; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Walumbwa et al., 2010). Participants responded on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*) as in the original studies. An example item for this scale includes “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.” The reliability estimate for this scale reported in Meyer et al. (1993) was $\alpha = .82$. The coefficient alpha internal consistency reliability estimate for the measure in the current study was .95. See Appendix C for a full list of items.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors. The seven-item subscale assessing organizational citizenship behaviors targeted at individuals (OCB-I) from Williams and Anderson (1991) was used to measure organizational citizenship behaviors. Participants responded to these items on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A sample item from the OCB-I scale is “Goes out of way to help new employees.” The reliability estimate for the OCB-I scale reported in Williams and Anderson (1991) was $\alpha = .88$. The coefficient alpha internal consistency reliability estimate for the measure in the current study was .85. See Appendix D for a full list of items.

Community Citizenship Behaviors. The seven-item measure from Liden et al. (2008) was used to assess community citizenship behaviors. Participant responses were rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). An example item from the community citizenship behavior measure is “I believe that our company has the responsibility to improve the community in which it operates.” The reliability estimate reported from Liden et al. (2008) for this scale is $\alpha = .84$. The alpha reliability estimate for the current study was .88. See Appendix E for a full list of items.

Turnover Intentions. Following Odle-Dusseau, Hammer, Crain, and Bodner (2016), the turnover intentions variable was measured using three items from Chatman (1991) and one additional item to capture job search intentions. Adaptations were made to the three Chatman (1991) items to align each of them on the same response scale. Participants responded using a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). An example item adapted from Chatman (1991) is “I have thought seriously about changing organizations since beginning to work here.” The one additional item added to assess job search intentions is “Within this year I intend to search for an alternative role to my present job.” The reliability estimate reported in Odle-Dusseau et al. (2016) was $\alpha = .84$. The coefficient alpha internal consistency reliability estimate for the measure in the current study was .92. See Appendix F for all items.

Follower Trust. To measure follower trust the five-item trust measure from Mayer and Gavin (2005) was used. Participants responded on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). An example item from the trust measure is “I would be willing to let my direct supervisor have complete control over my future in this company.” Two reliability estimates were reported in Mayer and Gavin (2005) for this scale, which were $\alpha = .81$ and $\alpha = .72$. The coefficient alpha internal consistency reliability estimate for the measure in the current study was .79. See Appendix G for a full list of items.

Follower Prosocial Identity. To assess follower prosocial identity, the three-item personal prosocial identity measure from Grant, Dutton, and Rosso (2008) was used (See Appendix H). Participants responded on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Items for this scale include: “I see myself as caring,” “I see myself as generous,” and “I regularly go out of my way to help others.” The

reliability estimate for this scale reported in Grant et al. (2008) was $\alpha = .84$. The coefficient alpha internal consistency reliability estimate for the measure in the current study was .85.

Demographics. A series of demographic variables, such as gender, age, race/ethnicity, marital status, education, average weekly hours, tenure, and supervisory relationship tenure, were included in data collection. These variables were included to describe the sample and to be considered as potential controls (see Appendix I).

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Data Analytic Strategy

The first step prior to running analyses included cleaning the data and checking for outliers. Using boxplots, five cases were identified as extreme univariate outliers and removed from further analyses. Mahalanobis Distance was used to detect multivariate outliers but no cases were identified as problematic. Next, regression assumptions were tested and any issues were addressed. Univariate normality was assessed using histograms and skewness and kurtosis statistics with no problematic study variables detected. Multivariate normality and homoscedasticity were assessed with residual plots with no violations demonstrated for each assumption. Finally, descriptive statistics, reliability estimates, and intercorrelations were calculated for all variables using IBM SPSS Statistics Version 24 (see Table 3).

Initial support for Hypotheses 1 and 2 was provided by the intercorrelations among study variables. Specifically, Hypothesis 1 stated that servant leadership would have a positive relationship with follower trust, which was demonstrated by a significant positive correlation ($r = .670, p < .001$). Similarly, Hypothesis 2 stated that servant leadership would have a positive relationship with follower prosocial identity, which was also demonstrated by a significant positive correlation ($r = .281, p < .001$). It should also be noted that the zero-order correlations between follower trust and job attitudes and follower prosocial identity and citizenship behaviors were in the expected direction and magnitude. Specifically, the zero-order correlations between follower trust and job attitudes were stronger than the zero-order correlations between prosocial identity and job attitudes. Additionally, the zero-order correlations between follower prosocial identity

and citizenship behaviors were stronger than the zero-order correlations between follower trust and citizenship behaviors (see Table 3).

Missing data were addressed by first conducting Little's (1988) missing completely at random (MCAR) test to determine whether there was sufficient justification for then utilizing expectation maximization (EM) imputation. All study focal variables were entered into SPSS Version 24 to conduct the analysis. Little's MCAR test was nonsignificant $\chi^2(156) = 163.85, p = .317$, indicating that no identifiable patterns were detected in the missing data. This warranted the use of EM imputation, which was completed in Mplus Version 7.4 (R. J. Little & Rubin, 2002).

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of Variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. WrkHours	41.29	3.86	-									
2. Age	36.55	9.89	.15**	-								
3. SL ^a	3.51	.74	.00	-.09*	(.96)							
4. ProID ^b	4.00	.71	.07	.08	.28**	(.85)						
5. Trust ^b	3.42	.81	.04	-.06	.67**	.26**	(.79)					
6. JobSat ^c	3.61	.94	.00	.07	.59**	.27**	.56**	(.90)				
7. OrgCom ^c	4.56	1.66	.03	.03	.62**	.35**	.56**	.80**	(.95)			
8. OCB ^c	3.95	.62	.09*	.09	.41**	.54**	.42**	.40**	.44**	(.85)		
9. CCB ^c	3.41	.82	.11*	-.02	.40**	.51**	.21**	.32**	.39**	.46**	(.88)	
10. TOInt ^c	2.85	1.20	.00	-.11*	-.49**	-.21**	-.53**	-.80**	-.75**	-.28**	-.20**	(.92)

Note: N = 578. ^aResponses collected in Survey 1; ^bResponses collected in Survey 2; ^cResponses collected in Survey 3; Values in parentheses represent coefficient alphas. WrkHours = Average hours worked per week; SL = Servant Leadership; ProID = Follower Prosocial Identity; Trust = Follower Trust; JobSat = Job Satisfaction; OrgCom = Organizational Commitment; OCB = Organizational Citizenship Behavior; CCB = Community Citizenship Behavior; TOInt = Turnover Intentions. All scales were rated on a five-point scale except Organizational Commitment which was rated on a seven-point scale.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

The proposed model was tested using structural equation modeling (SEM) with maximum likelihood estimation and bootstrapping at 5,000 iterations in Mplus-7.4. SEM is a family of data analytic techniques that extends the general linear model. SEM determines if hypothesized models represent collected data well (evaluated by model fit). SEM first evaluates a measurement model (using confirmatory factor analysis) that tests the relationships between latent variables and their indicators, then evaluates a structural model that tests hypothesized relationships between the specified latent variables (Kline, 2011). Model fit was assessed for both the measurement model and structural model using model fit statistics. The first model test statistic that was used is the model chi-square. However, since the model chi-square is sensitive to large sample sizes, additional fit statistics were used according to the acceptable standards in the field. The fit statistics that were used include: the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; Steiger, 1990), the Bentler Comparative Fit Index (CFI; Bentler, 1990), and the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR). The thresholds for concluding acceptable fit for RMSEA, CFI, and SRMR are less than or equal to .08, greater than or equal to .90, and less than or equal to .08, respectively. The thresholds for good fit for RMSEA, CFI, and SRMR are less than or equal to .05, greater than or equal to .95, and less than or equal to .05, respectively (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Measurement Model

For the current study, the expected measurement model assessed included eight latent variables: servant leadership, follower prosocial identity, follower trust, follower job satisfaction, follower organizational commitment, follower OCB, follower CCB, and follower turnover intentions. Servant leadership consisted of seven dimensions. In order to reduce model complexity, servant leadership (Factor 1) was represented by parcels of

each dimension. Parceling is a justified strategy for reducing model complexity when the focus of a research study is on the relationship between latent variables (T. D. Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002). The five items representing follower trust were specified to load on to Factor 2, the three items representing follower prosocial identity were specified to load on to Factor 3, the seven items representing community citizenship behaviors were specified to load on to Factor 4, the seven items representing organizational citizenship behaviors were specified to load on to Factor 5, the five items representing job satisfaction were specified to load on to Factor 6, the six items representing organizational commitment were specified to load on to Factor 7, and lastly, the four items representing turnover intentions were specified to load on to Factor 8 (see Figure 2).

The expected model was tested against a series of models. First, a one factor model where all items loaded on to one latent factor to see if any of the constructs could be distinguished; second, a three factor model where outcomes and mediators loaded on to separate factors from the predictor to see if these three types of constructs could be distinguished; and third, a five factor model where servant leadership and follower trust loaded on to the first factor, organizational commitment and job satisfaction loaded onto a job attitudes factor, community citizenship behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors loaded onto a citizenship behaviors factor, and prosocial identity and turnover intention loaded onto separate factors to see if conceptually similar constructs could be distinguished. Table 4 shows the model fit statistics and chi-square difference tests comparing each model. The expected eight factor model fit the data better than each of the other models. While the eight-factor model indeed fit the data better than the other models, CFI was still lower than acceptable standards. An examination of the

modification indices revealed that the model misfit was mostly caused by large within-scale covariation between item residuals. Upon reviewing the extensive list of model modification suggestions, item residuals for items with similar content within the same scales were specified to covary. Specifically, seven correlations between item residuals were added to the model. An example of an instance where item residual covariation was allowed is between the following two items: 1) “I believe that our company has the responsibility to improve the community in which it operates,” and 2) “I believe that an organization is obligated to serve the community in which it operates.” Item residuals were not permitted to covary between scales. The modifications resulted in acceptable model fit for the expected eight factor model, $\chi^2(867) = 2579.997, p < .001, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .058$ (90% CI [.056, .061]), SRMR = .058. See Table 5 and Table 6 for the standardized factor loadings for the final measurement model.

Table 4

Comparison of Model Fit for Hypothesized Model

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
Expected 8-Factor Model	3102.17	874	.87	.07	.06		
1-Factor Model	8499.19	902	.56	.12	.12	5397.02*	28
3-Factor Model	7016.98	899	.64	.11	.12	3914.81*	25
5-Factor Model	4497.07	892	.79	.08	.08	1394.90*	18
Final 8-Factor Model	2580.00	867	.90	.06	.06	522.17*	7

Note. The goodness-of-fit for the expected 8-factor model was compared to each alternative model. * $p < .001$.

Table 5

Factor Loadings for Final Measurement Model (Predictor and Mediators)

Factor	λ
Servant Leadership	
SL_1	0.84
SL_2	0.69
SL_3	0.81
SL_4	0.63
SL_5	0.87
SL_6	0.79
SL_7	0.81
Follower Trust	
FT_1	0.72
FT_2	0.56
FT_3	0.54
FT_4	0.75
FT_5	0.74
Follower Prosocial Identity	
PI_1	0.82
PI_2	0.79
PI_3	0.82

Note. All factor loadings are significant at $p < .001$.

Table 6

Factor Loadings for Final Measurement Model (Outcomes)

Factor	λ
Community Citizenship Behaviors	
CCB_1	0.73
CCB_2	0.71
CCB_3	0.70
CCB_4	0.66
CCB_5	0.76
CCB_6	0.72
CCB_7	0.68
Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	
OCB_1	0.65
OCB_2	0.71
OCB_3	0.65
OCB_4	0.62
OCB_5	0.74
OCB_6	0.70
OCB_7	0.58
Job Satisfaction	
JS_1	0.84
JS_2	0.70
JS_3	0.87
JS_4	0.77
JS_5	0.76
Organizational Commitment	
OC_1	0.83
OC_2	0.82
OC_3	0.90
OC_4	0.90
OC_5	0.92
OC_6	0.86
Turnover Intentions	
TOInt_1	0.86
TOInt_2	0.87
TOInt_3	0.86
TOInt_4	0.85

Note. All factor loadings are significant at $p < .001$.

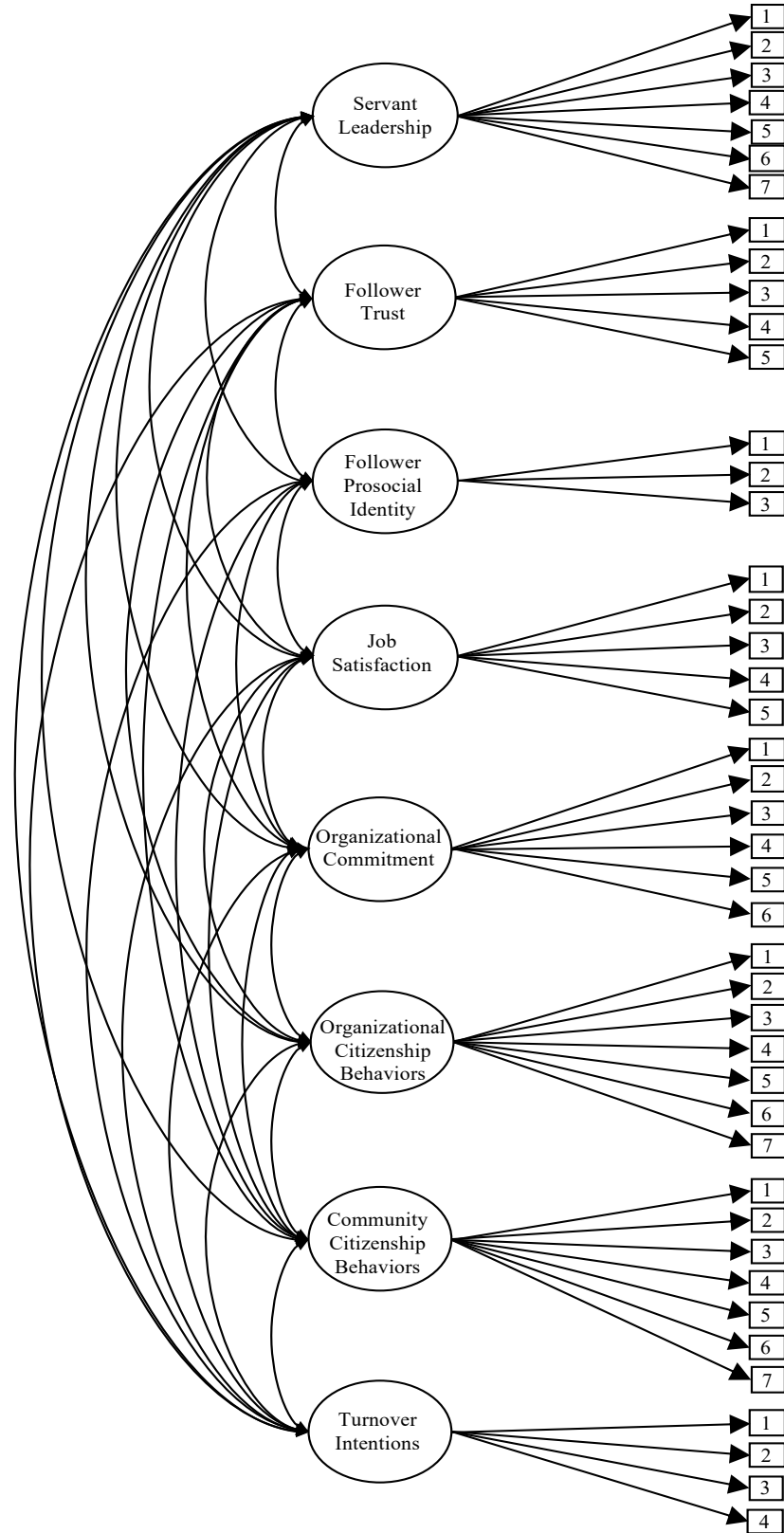


Figure 2. Measurement model depicting item specification.

Hypothesis Testing

Having assessed the measurement model, the next step was to test the structural model (see Figure 3; see Appendix J for model with indicators depicted). The hypothesized structural model resulted in the following fit statistics: $\chi^2(868) = 2584.395$, $p < .001$, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .058 (90% CI [.056, .061]), SRMR = .059. Similar to the measurement model, the structural model had acceptable model fit. Each R^2 values for the structural model was statistically significant and are as follows: follower trust = .62, prosocial identity = .10, job satisfaction = .49, organizational commitment = .50, community citizenship behaviors = .45, organizational citizenship behaviors = .53, and turnover intentions = .38.

Subsequent analyses were conducted after model fit was determined for the measurement and the structural models. First, to determine support for hypotheses, each path in the proposed model was evaluated for statistical significance at the $p < .05$ level and path strength and direction were also evaluated (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Consistent with the hypothesized relationships, statistically significant positive path coefficients were found between servant leadership and follower trust ($\beta = .790$, $p < .001$; H₁) and prosocial identity ($\beta = .317$, $p < .001$; H₂).

Next, to determine if follower prosocial identity and follower trust act as mediators of the relationship between servant leadership and outcomes (H_{3 and 5}), indirect effects (total and specific) were examined. Mediation models are established depending on the presence of significant indirect effects. If the direct effect of servant leadership on outcomes remains significant in the presence of statistically significant indirect effects, this provides support for partial mediation. Support for full mediation is established if

there are significant indirect effects and the direct effect of servant leadership on outcomes becomes non-significant.

Hypotheses 3a and 5a stated that follower trust and follower prosocial identity, respectively, will mediate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. The model total indirect effect provided support for these hypotheses as the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction through both follower trust and follower prosocial identity was significant and positive, $\beta = .344, p < .001$. However, the specific indirect effect of the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction through follower prosocial identity (conditional on the presence of follower trust) was non-significant, $\beta = .024, p = .165$, whereas the specific indirect effect of the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction through follower trust (conditional on the presence of follower prosocial identity) was significant, $\beta = .320, p < .001$. This finding indicates that follower prosocial identity does not contribute to the indirect effect above and beyond follower trust. The direct effect between servant leadership and job satisfaction was positive and significant, $\beta = .306, p < .01$. Thus, there was evidence of partial mediation for the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction through follower trust supporting Hypothesis 3a. Hypothesis 5a was not fully supported given the non-significant specific indirect effect.

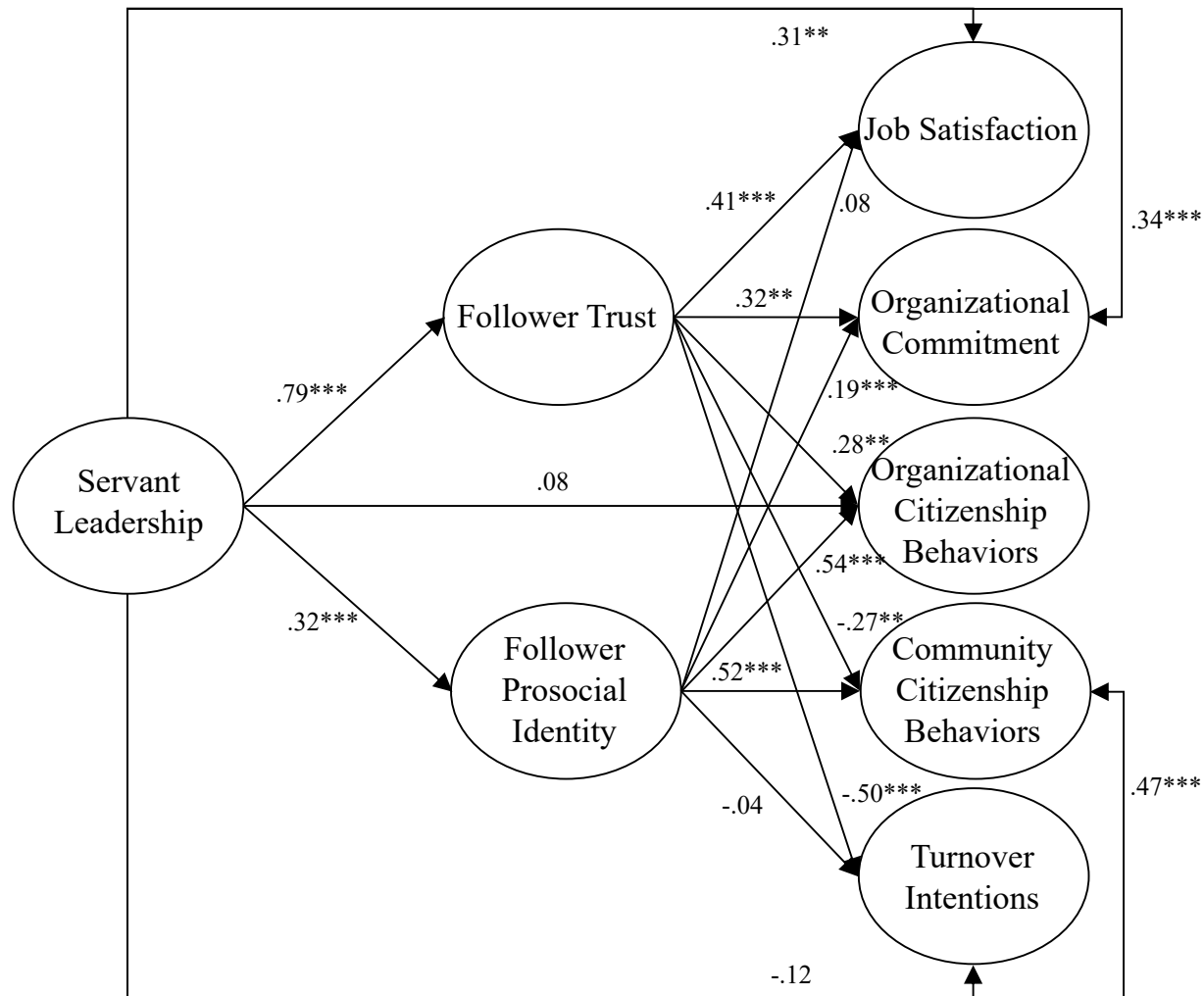


Figure 3. The hypothesized structural model with standardized path estimates. Please note that construct indicators, residuals, and covariances are not depicted for ease of interpretation. $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$, $***p < .001$.

Hypotheses 3b and 5b stated that follower trust and follower prosocial identity, respectively, would mediate the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment. The model total indirect effect provided support for these hypotheses as the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment through both follower trust and follower prosocial identity was significant and positive, $\beta = .310, p < .001$. The specific indirect effect of the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment follower prosocial identity (conditional on the presence of follower trust) was positive and significant, $\beta = .059, p < .01$, as was the specific indirect effect of the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction through follower trust (conditional on the presence of follower prosocial identity), $\beta = .250, p < .01$. The direct effect between servant leadership and organizational commitment was positive and significant, $\beta = .343, p < .001$. Thus, there was evidence of partial mediation for the relationships between servant leadership and organizational commitment through both follower trust and follower prosocial identity supporting Hypothesis 3b and Hypothesis 5b.

Hypotheses 3c and 5c stated that follower trust and follower prosocial identity, respectively, would mediate the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior. The model total indirect effect provided support for these hypotheses as the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior through both follower trust and follower prosocial identity was significant and positive, $\beta = .394, p < .001$. The specific indirect effect of the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior through follower prosocial identity (conditional on the presence of follower trust) was significant and positive, $\beta = .171, p < .001$, as was the specific indirect effect of the relationship between

servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior through follower trust (conditional on the presence of follower prosocial identity), $\beta = .223, p < .05$. The direct effect between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior was non-significant, $\beta = .079, p = .490$. Thus, there was evidence of full mediation for the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors through both follower trust and follower prosocial identity supporting Hypothesis 3c and Hypothesis 5c.

Hypotheses 3d and 5d stated that follower trust and follower prosocial identity, respectively, would mediate the relationship between servant leadership and community citizenship behavior. The model total indirect effect appears not to provide support for these hypotheses as the relationship between servant leadership and community citizenship behavior through both follower trust and follower prosocial identity was non-significant, $\beta = -.044, p = .624$. The specific indirect effect of the relationship between servant leadership and community citizenship behavior through follower prosocial identity (conditional on the presence of follower trust) was significant and positive, $\beta = .166, p < .001$. Unexpectedly, however, the specific indirect effect of the relationship between servant leadership and community citizenship behavior through follower trust (conditional on the presence of follower prosocial identity) was significant and negative, $\beta = -.210, p < .01$. The direct effect between servant leadership and community citizenship behavior was positive and significant, $\beta = .465, p < .001$, indicating partial mediation. While these results are difficult to interpret it may be the case that follower trust weakens the positive relationship between servant leadership and community citizenship behaviors when prosocial identity is considered. Indeed, community citizenship behavior is the only behavior in the present study with an “outside of the

organization” focus; perhaps the increased leader focus through enhanced follower trust reduces followers’ community focus. It is worth noting that a significant total indirect effect does not need to be present in order to explore specific indirect effects. Significant specific indirect effects can be demonstrated even with non-significant total indirect effects (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). In fact, the present case here is called “inconsistent mediation” (MacKinnon, Fairchild, & Fritz, 2007) where the direct effect is opposite to the indirect effect. Since the two specific indirect effects are also opposite, they cancel each other out, which as a result renders the total indirect effect non-significant. Thus, the findings (the specific indirect effects in particular) actually provide support for Hypotheses 3d and 5d.

Hypotheses 3e and 5e stated that follower trust and follower prosocial identity, respectively, would mediate the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intentions. The model total indirect effect provided support for these hypotheses as the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intentions through both follower trust and follower prosocial identity was significant and negative, $\beta = -.407, p < .001$. The specific indirect effect of the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intentions through follower prosocial identity (conditional on the presence of follower trust) was non-significant, $\beta = -.013, p = .464$, however, the specific indirect effect of the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intentions through follower trust (conditional on the presence of follower prosocial identity) was significant and negative, $\beta = -.394, p < .001$. This finding suggests that follower prosocial identity does not contribute to the indirect effect above and beyond follower trust. The direct effect between servant leadership and turnover intentions was non-significant, $\beta = -.124, p = .208$. Thus, there was evidence of full mediation for the relationship between servant

leadership and turnover intentions through follower trust supporting Hypothesis 3e.

Hypothesis 5e was not fully supported given the non-significant specific indirect effect.

To test the relative strength of follower trust (H₄) and follower prosocial identity (H₆) as mediators of the relationship between servant leadership and outcomes, pairwise contrasts were used. Specifically, pairwise contrasts determine if the separate indirect effects of servant leadership on outcomes through follower trust and follower prosocial identity are significantly different for each outcome. Confidence intervals were created for each contrast to distinguish indirect effects in terms of magnitude (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). It was expected that the indirect effect of servant leadership on job attitudes through follower trust would be significantly stronger than the indirect effect of servant leadership on job attitudes through prosocial identity. Furthermore, it was expected that the indirect effect of servant leadership on citizenship behaviors through follower prosocial identity would be significantly stronger than the indirect effect of servant leadership on citizenship behaviors through follower trust. Which mediator would more strongly mediate the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intentions was explored as a research question.

Hypothesis 4a stated that follower trust would more strongly mediate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction than follower prosocial identity. The bootstrapped bias-corrected confidence intervals for the pairwise contrast between both specific indirect effects indicated that the specific indirect effect through follower trust was significantly larger than the specific indirect effect through follower prosocial identity, 95% CI [.203, .528], providing support for Hypothesis 4a. Hypothesis 4b stated the follower trust would more strongly mediate the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment than follower prosocial identity. The

bootstrapped bias-corrected confidence intervals for the pairwise contrast between both specific indirect effects indicated that the specific indirect effect through follower trust was significantly larger than the specific indirect effect through follower prosocial identity, 95% CI [.117, .674], providing support for Hypothesis 4b.

Hypothesis 6a stated that follower prosocial identity would more strongly mediate the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior than follower trust. The bootstrapped bias-corrected confidence intervals for the pairwise contrast between both specific indirect effects indicated that the specific indirect effects through follower trust and follower prosocial identity could not be distinguished in terms of magnitude, 95% CI [-.068, .135], providing no support for Hypothesis 6a. Hypothesis 6b stated the follower prosocial identity would more strongly mediate the relationship between servant leadership and community citizenship behavior than follower trust. The bootstrapped bias-corrected confidence intervals for the pairwise contrast between both specific indirect effects indicated that the specific indirect effect through follower trust was significantly larger than the specific indirect effect through follower prosocial identity, 95% CI [-.669, -.307], which was contrary to expectations and rendered Hypothesis 6b not supported.

Lastly, Research Question 1 sought to explore whether follower trust or follower prosocial identity would more strongly mediate the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intentions. The bootstrapped bias-corrected confidence intervals for the pairwise contrast between both specific indirect effects indicated that the specific indirect effect through follower trust was significantly larger than the specific indirect effect through follower prosocial identity, 95% CI [-.820, -.364].

Additional Analyses

Additional analyses were conducted to provide further support for the reported results. Confirmatory factor analyses comparing models for servant leadership and follower trust were run to address recent concerns in the literature regarding servant leadership as a distinct construct (Banks, Gooty, Ross, Williams, & Harrington, 2018). Indeed, similar to findings in the extant literature (e.g., Hoch et al., 2018), servant leadership and follower trust demonstrated a high zero-order correlation ($r = .670, p < .001$) and model path estimate ($\beta = .790, p < .001$) in the current study. Thus, two models were compared: 1) a one-factor model with servant leadership items and follower trust items loading on to one factor, and 2) a two-factor model where servant leadership items and follower trust items loaded onto two separate factors. The model fit for the one-factor model was, $\chi^2(54) = 477.751, p < .001, CFI = .89, RMSEA = .117$ (90% CI [.107, .126]), SRMR = .064. The model fit for the expected two-factor model was, $\chi^2(53) = 314.129, p < .001, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .092$ (90% CI [.083, .102]), SRMR = .049. The expected two-factor model fit the data significantly better than the one factor model as the chi-square difference between models $\Delta\chi^2(1) = 163.62$, exceeded the critical value for 1 degree of freedom, $\chi^2_{crit}(1) = 3.84$. This finding provides support for the empirical distinctiveness between servant leadership and follower trust.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

This study builds on the developing servant leadership research by testing recent propositions grounded in the JD-R framework. Specifically, the relationships between servant leadership, follower trust, follower prosocial identity, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, community citizenship behaviors, and turnover intentions were examined. This study is the first to empirically examine prosocial identity within a servant leadership context. Moreover, it adds to the limited servant leadership literature that has explored the relationships between servant leadership, community citizenship behaviors, and turnover intentions. The hypothesized relationships were mostly supported as the results demonstrated that both follower trust and follower prosocial identity were positively related to servant leadership, that follower trust and follower prosocial identity mediated the relationships between servant leadership and outcomes, and that the strength of the mediating relationships were significantly different for follower trust and follower prosocial identity. An unexpected finding was that the specific indirect effect of servant leadership on community citizenship behavior through follower trust was negative and significant. In the sections to follow, study findings, limitations, theoretical and practical implications, and future research directions are discussed.

Hypothesized Model Interpretations

Hypothesis 1 proposed that servant leadership would be related to increased follower trust. The results supported this hypothesis. Zero-order correlations and the model test demonstrated significant relationships between servant leadership and follower trust. Hypothesis 2 posited that servant leadership would be related to increased

prosocial identity. The results supported this hypothesis as well. Zero-order correlations and the model test revealed significant relationships between servant leadership follower prosocial identity. These findings suggest that employees who perceive their managers are exhibiting more servant leadership behaviors develop an increased sense of trust in their leader and build a stronger personal identification with being prosocial. These findings are important because they build on the servant leadership and follower trust relationship demonstrated in the literature but also begin to empirically establish prosocial identity as a key variable in the context of servant leadership.

Hypotheses 3_{a-e} predicted that follower trust would mediate the relationships between servant leadership and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, community citizenship behavior, and turnover intentions. The results supported this hypothesis. For job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior, the findings suggest that servant leadership leads to increased levels on these outcomes through enhanced follower trust. Employees who perceive their managers are exhibiting more servant leadership behaviors develop an increased sense of trust in their leader, which results in higher satisfaction with the job, stronger commitment to the organization, and increased prosocial behaviors directed towards individuals within the organization. Additionally, the findings suggest that servant leadership leads to reduced intentions to leave the organization through increased follower trust. However, the relationship between servant leadership and community citizenship behavior through follower trust was unexpectedly in the opposite direction. Specifically, the findings showed that the relationship between servant leadership and community citizenship behavior is actually reduced through increased follower trust. There are a couple possible explanations for this finding. The first

potential explanation has to do with a possible multicollinearity issue. Multicollinearity is an expectation for mediational analyses. When the exogenous variable predicts a large portion of variance in a mediator it affects the precision of the path between the mediator and outcome. Since servant leadership predicted a large portion of variance in follower trust, as compared to follower prosocial identity, that could be impacting the relationship between these variables and community citizenship behavior. The next explanation has to do with the nature of the community citizenship behavior variable. Each of the other outcomes studied in the present research are focused on the inside of the organization. Community citizenship behavior, on the other hand, has an “outside of the organization” focus. It may be the case that an increased leader focus through enhanced follower trust (within the organization focus) reduces followers’ community focus (outside the organization focus). This relationship has important theoretical implications as it is central to servant leadership theory that these leaders produce followers that also becomes servant leaders, with one aspect being a community focus. Future research is encouraged to replicate this specific finding to further explore this relationship.

Hypothesis 5_{a-e} predicted that follower prosocial identity would mediate the relationships between servant leadership and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, community citizenship behavior, and turnover intentions. The results mostly supported this hypothesis. Either as a set of mediators including both follower trust and follower prosocial identity (total indirect effect) or through specific indirect effects follower prosocial identity mediated the relationship between servant leadership and outcomes. However, when comparing both the total and specific indirect effects for the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction and turnover intentions through follower prosocial identity, it can be

interpreted that follower prosocial identity did not contribute to the indirect effects beyond follower trust. Thus, I conclude that Hypothesis 5 was mostly supported instead of fully supported. At least for organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors, and community citizenship behaviors, the results suggest that servant leadership leads to increased levels of these outcomes through enhanced follower prosocial identity. As followers perceive their leaders exhibit servant leader behaviors, they internalize prosocial values and see being prosocial as part of their identity, which in turn improves their sense of commitment to the organization and increases the prosocial behaviors they exhibit inside and outside of the organization.

Hypothesis 4_{a and b} predicted that follower trust would more strongly mediate the relationships between servant leadership and job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) than follower prosocial identity. The results supported this hypothesis. Pairwise contrasts demonstrated that when comparing follower trust and prosocial identity as mediators of the relationships between servant leadership and job attitudes, follower trust has a significantly stronger magnitude as an explanatory variable. This suggests that follower trust is the primary cause through which servant leadership leads to enhanced job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Follower trust was also a stronger mediator of the relationship between servant leadership and turnover intentions than follower prosocial identity (Research Question 1). It is important to note that the direct effects for the relationships between servant leadership and job attitudes were significant, indicating that follower trust partially mediated the relationships. However, the direct effect of servant leadership on turnover intentions was not significant, which indicates that follower trust fully mediated this relationship.

Hypothesis 6_{a and b} predicted that follower prosocial identity would more strongly mediate the relationships between servant leadership and citizenship behaviors (i.e., organizational citizenship behaviors and community citizenship behaviors) than follower trust. The results failed to support this hypothesis. Pairwise contrasts demonstrated that when comparing follower trust and prosocial identity as mediators of the relationships between servant leadership and citizenship behaviors, prosocial identity was not a significantly stronger mediator in either case. This suggests that while follower prosocial identity is an important mediator of the relationships between servant leadership and citizenship behaviors, it is not the predominate factor through which servant leadership impacts prosocial behaviors that followers exhibit.

Taken together, the mediation analyses and comparisons revealed that follower trust and follower prosocial identity are indeed both important factors through which servant leadership relates to outcomes. However, the present study affirms that follower trust is the more influential explanatory variable of the relationship between servant leadership and outcomes. When enhancing followers' evaluations of the job or intentions to stay is the focus, efforts to enhance followers' trust in their leader should be targeted. Even though the magnitude of the mediation effect of follower trust and follower prosocial identity on organizational citizenship behaviors did not differ and follower trust was actually a stronger mediator of the relationship with community citizenship behavior, it is still recommended to target follower prosocial identity when the aim is to enhance follower prosocial behavior. Recall that follower trust actually attenuates the relationship between servant leadership and community citizenship behaviors. It is more contextually consistent to target prosocial identity given the theoretical, conceptual, and now empirical

connections between servant leadership, prosocial identity, and citizenship (prosocial) behaviors.

Limitations

As is true of all research, this study includes potential limitations. First, statistical power may have been a slight concern. Although most of the study's hypotheses were supported and significant effects were detected, there were some instances where estimates approached significance or were not significant. In addition, even though efforts were made to reduce model complexity (e.g., parceling), the number of variables analyzed still resulted in a complex model test. Though the final sample size nearly met all recommended sample sizes from the power analyses, perhaps with a larger sample parceling would not have been necessary. Greater power may have also helped in detecting smaller effects. For example, it is plausible that the comparison between the specific indirect effects of servant leadership on organizational citizenship behaviors through follower trust and follower prosocial identity could have been distinguished in the hypothesized direction with greater power.

Second, as previously mentioned, multicollinearity may have been an issue. While the hypothesized model technically included only one predictor (i.e., exogenous variable), the underlying regression analyses consider predictors and mediators as the same related to the outcome. Thus, multicollinearity is expected to be something to consider in all mediation analyses. This becomes an issue when the predictor explains a substantial amount of variance in the mediator, which was the case in the present study. The strong relationship between servant leadership and follower trust, for instance, could have potentially affected other parts of the model. One example is the relationship between servant leadership and community citizenship behaviors through follower trust.

This relationship was unexpectedly negative and could be the result of the potential multicollinearity between servant leadership and follower trust.

Third, measurement error is worth mentioning as a potential limitation. Given the unexpected relationship between servant leadership and community citizenship behaviors via follower trust and the associated multicollinearity potential, it should be pointed out that follower trust had lowest reliability estimate of all study variables (i.e., .79). While this reliability exceeded acceptable limits, it still suggests that over 20% of the construct's measurement could be attributed to measurement error. Despite that concern, one of the advantages of using structural equation modeling with latent variables is that it accounts for measurement error.

Fourth, measurement in general may have been an issue. The measurement model had less than ideal initial model fit and required modifications. A review of the standardized factor loadings reveals that while all items significantly loaded onto their respective factors, all factor loadings were not above .70, which is an ideal estimate for ensuring that indicators represent the underlying latent constructs. A stable measurement model is a requirement for testing structural models which tests hypothesized relationships between the specified latent variables.

Fifth, using MTurk as a data source is worth discussing. Though there are demonstrated benefits of using MTurk such as diverse samples (Landers & Behrend, 2015), recent research has also introduced a concern that may have been present in the current research. The potential concern has to do with "character misrepresentation," which refers to MTurk participants making false representations in order to qualify for paid studies (Wessling, Huber, & Netzer, 2017). While procedures were put in place to ensure data quality (e.g., quality checks, eligibility questions), cross-checking

demographics showed that some participants did not provide consistent responses that would indicate true study eligibility. For example, answering “yes” to an eligibility question asking about full-time employment, but reporting hours worked a week lower than 30 hours in the demographics section. Whenever discrepancies between qualifying questions and demographics were present, participants were removed from further analyses; however, there is no way to determine if participants could have been consistent in their misrepresentation which would mean they were actually ineligible for the study. Future research is encouraged to utilize more strategic methods for ensuring data quality such as only accepting participants with a demonstrated track record or limit motives to deceive such as payment in an initial screen and only inviting participants who pass the screen (Wessling et al., 2017).

Finally, when conducting cross-sectional, self-report research common method bias is a concern. Although constructs such as leadership and follower attitudes were studied, all variables were collected across the same source using the same method. The study would have been strengthened by using objective measures (e.g., adding actual reported turnover) or including managers as another source. Gathering managers’ perspectives of their servant leadership as well as followers’ may be a viable approach to assessing servant leadership considering the precedent in LMX research. To mitigate some concerns regarding common method bias, temporal separation of all study variables was employed (Podsakoff et al., 2003) and a varied sample in terms of industries was achieved, which are noteworthy strengths of this study.

Theoretical and Research Implications

In terms of theoretical and research implications, this study’s contributions are highlighted in the demonstrated distinctiveness of servant leadership, the application of

JD-R model to context of servant leadership, and the importance of follower trust and follower prosocial identity as differential mediators of the relationship between servant leadership and outcomes. First, with numerous leadership theories in the literature (e.g., transformational, LMX, ethical leadership, authentic leadership, etc.) efforts to distinguish similar concepts from each other are of high importance. Although comparing servant leadership to other leadership approaches was beyond the scope of the present study, efforts were taken to demonstrate discriminant validity between servant leadership and follower trust. These analyses were conducted because of the very strong relationships demonstrated in the literature between servant leadership and follower trust and recently published research with conflicting results regarding the distinctiveness of positive leadership approaches (see Banks et al., 2018; Hoch et al., 2018). The results demonstrated that both servant leadership and follower trust were empirically distinct further providing support for the viability of servant leadership as leadership approach.

Next, the research findings were largely consistent with expected relationships outlined in the motivational process of the JD-R framework. Servant leadership serves as the initial job resource that initiates the motivational process. Follower trust and follower prosocial identity (also as resources) in turn fulfill individuals' need for relatedness. This affective-motivational state then has a positive effect on outcomes, in this case job attitudes, citizenship behaviors, and turnover intentions.

Lastly, this research empirically established follower trust and follower prosocial identity as mediators of the relationship between servant leadership and outcomes. Prior high-quality research only theorized these relationships, but this study marks initial tests in this area, specifically for follower prosocial identity. Prosocial identity with its rooting in social categorization and social identity theories was integrated into a model of servant

leadership. Additionally, while follower trust and prosocial identity (and others) are presented in the literature as being comprised in servant leadership's overall nomological network, the present study used theory testing practice by assessing these mediators simultaneously to unravel the strength of the mediating effects. While this research does not suggest considering one mediator at the exclusion of the other, it does provide initial evidence that follower trust may be the more important mediator across all outcomes. Nevertheless, the results show that the both mediators together contribute to the prediction of substantial variance in the outcomes studied (R^2 for outcomes ranging from .38 to .52).

Practical Implications

The findings from the current study exhibited important relationships that organizations and organizational leadership may find interesting. With servant leadership demonstrated as a key contributor of organizational meaningful outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intentions through follower trust, efforts should be made to enhance servant leadership in organizations. As organizations are increasingly becoming "socially responsible" there is a need for leaders who will drive change in a more prosocial manner. As shown in the present study, servant leadership is related to prosocial behaviors through prosocial identity development. If there are strong organizational values for prosocial behaviors both within and outside of the organization, programs targeting employees' prosocial identity development or supporting the prosocial identity development engendered through followers' connections to servant leaders may prove fruitful.

In recent years with the rise in popularity in positive leadership approaches, there has been an influx of management consulting firms offering training in servant

leadership. It is our job as researchers in the scientific study of the workplace to be good stewards of our research knowledge and bridge the science-to-practice gap, especially as it relates to talent management and development initiatives (Rotolo et al., 2018). I submit that part of this is leveraging the reputation of well-known consulting firms and then augmenting their offerings to be more in line with research. I-O psychology practitioners in talent management and development, learning and development, and organizational development roles (to name a few) are encouraged to utilize their research knowledge to partner with vendors that are providing leadership development (specifically servant leadership in the context of the present study). This is one recommendation from moving this research from the “what” to the “how.” Certainly, we need to rigorously evaluate our training offerings (more discussion on this in the future research section), but while our research pace continues to lag behind organizations we can find middle ground by improving leadership development offerings by utilizing the literature.

Future Research

In the following section, I present an agenda for future research. The two main areas I recommend for advancing this research stream are: 1) expanding the current model and 2) further distinguishing and establishing servant leadership as a viable leadership approach. Future researchers are encouraged to expand the model by adding additional variables, capturing complex processes, and applying rigorous research methods. Future researchers are encouraged to further distinguish servant leadership by conducting more construct validity analyses and further establish servant leadership by conducting a rigorous leadership training evaluation. Each of these are discussed in turn.

Expansion of the Current Model. The first avenue for future research is to expand the model from the current study. The hypothesized model represented an initial test of several relationships proposed in the servant leadership literature. However, there remains numerous relationships that have yet to be explored. To start, adding additional variables provides a clearer picture of servant leadership correlates. With additional variables, how they precisely relate to servant leadership (and each other) can be further explored. To include more variables and test more nuanced relationships, enhanced research methods (e.g., alternative measures, increased sample size) is essential.

To expand the model, researchers should consider adding antecedents such as need to serve, motivation to lead, and moral cognitive development; mediators such as LMX and fairness; and outcomes such as job performance, creativity, organizational citizenship behaviors directed at the organization, and engagement (Banks et al., 2018; Liden et al., 2014a; van Dierendonck, 2011). These are each variables that have either been conceptually or empirically tied to servant leadership. However, very little research has included them in large model tests. Adding these variables will provide the building blocks to achieve a broader understanding of the similar and unique effects variables have on servant leadership and similar and unique impacts servant leadership has on variables.

Recall that the hypothesized model was rooted in the JD-R framework and inspired by two organizing frameworks presented in the literature. As these frameworks continue to develop (e.g., Banks et al., 2018) describing the mechanisms through which leadership impact outcomes, testing complex processes helps elucidate servant leadership's nomological network. For example, considering how internal drivers like a need to serve or moral cognitive development impact servant leadership should be added

to larger model tests considering servant leadership's inherent ethical/moral basis. As an additional example, researchers should consider testing the mediation effect of LMX in a servant leadership nomological network. Follower trust is thought to develop as a result of a high-quality LMX relationship. Is it the case that LMX is the initial mediator prior to follower trust on the relationship between servant leadership and outcomes? Which antecedents are important to facilitate this relationship? Which outcomes are more impacted? Testing LMX will provide further understanding of what makes follower trust important to the relationships between servant leadership and outcomes. Currently, there is theoretical discussion regarding more complex servant leadership relationships, but explicitly modeling and empirically testing these relationships will push the servant leadership research literature forward.

Future researchers can apply rigorous research methods by utilizing alternative measures and improving the sample size. High correlations were demonstrated between some study outcomes (e.g., turnover intentions and job satisfaction) that were likely the result of content validity issue. At a minimum, alternative measure should be explored for the focal constructs in this study (e.g., Liden et al., 2008; van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). Although each measure in the present study demonstrated acceptable psychometric properties, ensuring strong measurement further establishes confidence regarding reported study relationships. Pursuing larger samples can achieve the same goal. As previously mentioned, sample size is directly related to a study's power to detect significant relationships that are present. With increasingly complex models using more advanced statistical techniques (e.g., LGM) researches should ensure that adequate sample sizes are used to safeguard against Type II error. Taken together, alternative

measures and larger samples are research methods improvements that would assist in testing more expansive models of servant leadership.

Distinguishing and Establishing Servant Leadership. The second avenue for future research is to further distinguish and establish servant leadership. While servant leadership as a concept is not new, its high-quality research base and practical application are in their infancy. Additional work is needed to distinguish servant leadership from traditional and newer approaches, as well as firmly establish it as a viable leadership approach. This can be achieved by continuing to conduct construct validity analyses comparing leadership approaches and by conducting a rigorous servant leadership training evaluation.

With recent research asserting servant leadership as a viable stand-alone research approach (Hoch et al., 2018) and other research questioning its legitimacy (Banks et al., 2018), it is imperative for future research to attempt to further distinguish servant leadership to ensure construct validity and construct nonredundancy. This will become increasingly important as positive leadership continues to grow and clear conceptual and empirical distinctions need to be made. One way this can be accomplished is every leadership study involving recent, positive leadership approaches conducts construct validity analyses including multiple leadership approaches prior to completing analyses regardless if the multiple leadership approaches are specifically included in the model. Researchers are thus encouraged to collect data on multiple leadership approaches even when only one style is of interest to address this concern.

Continuing the line of thinking presented in the practical implications section regarding training evaluations, servant leadership can be further established by conducting a rigorous evaluation of a servant leadership training. While the research pace

and quality has indeed improved for servant leadership, there still remains no rigorous evaluation of servant leadership training in the research literature (van Dierendonck, 2011). Without the use of rigorously evaluated servant leadership trainings, unstable and uncertain conclusions are likely to result. In fact, methodological rigor is a large need in the leadership development arena in general (Barling, 2011). U.S. organizations spend over 100 billion dollars annually on training, with a large portion of these funds spent on leader and managerial development (Avolio, Sosik, & Berson, 2013). Although two meta-analyses have been published on leadership interventions (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2009; Collins & Holton III, 2004), Avolio et al. (2013) lament that “there has not been considerable progress in demonstrating the merits of leadership development, despite the large investment being made in this area” (pg. 369). Addressing the need for a rigorous evaluation of servant leadership training would also address the larger disconnect between the training literature and leadership development initiatives. Therefore, future research is first encouraged to fill a major gap in the servant leadership literature by rigorously evaluating a servant leadership training intervention with an experimental design and testing a model rooted in theory that distinguishes behaviors, mediating processes, and outcomes. Extending the present research, a potential research design is to stringently evaluate a servant leadership training through the lens of Kirpatrick’s four levels of evaluation (reactions, learning, behavior, and results). Specifically, reactions should be assessed using affective and utility reactions; learning assessed at least using a knowledge test; behavior should be assessed using leaders’ superiors’ ratings of servant leadership behavior; and results should be assessed through outcome measures tested in the current hypothesized model and additional constructs of

relevance (e.g., job attitudes, job performance, OCB, CCB, turnover intentions, productivity, and turnover).

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS

The aim of the current study was to examine the relationships between servant leadership and follower outcomes through the mediating mechanisms, follower trust and prosocial identity, rooted in the JD-R framework. Results suggested that servant leadership is positively associated with follower trust and follower prosocial identity, and that both constructs mediate the relationships between servant leadership and job attitudes, citizenship behaviors, and turnover intentions. Moreover, follower trust and follower prosocial identity demonstrated unique mediating relationships with follower trust exhibiting stronger indirect effects than follower prosocial identity. Overall, the present research builds our understanding of how leaders can have a powerful impact on organizations and organization members by enacting a leadership approach that is counter to typical approaches to leadership—namely serving others by putting others’ needs above their own.

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APPENDIX A
SERVANT LEADERSHIP

Emotional Healing

1. I would seek help from my manager if I had a personal problem.
2. My manager cares about my personal well-being.
3. My manager takes time to talk to me on a personal level.
4. My manager can recognize when I'm down without asking me.

Creating Value for the Community

5. My manager emphasizes the importance of giving back to the community.
6. My manager is always interested in helping people in our community.
7. My manager is involved in community activities.
8. I am encouraged by my manager to volunteer in the community.

Conceptual Skills

9. My manager can tell if something is going wrong.
10. My manager is able to effectively think through complex problems.
11. My manager has a thorough understanding of our organization and its goals.
12. My manager can solve work problems with new or creative ideas.

Empowering

13. My manager gives me the responsibility to make important decisions about my job.
14. My manager encourages me to handle important work decisions on my own.
15. My manager gives me the freedom to handle difficult situations in the way that I feel is best.
16. When I have to make an important decision at work, I do not have to consult my manager first.

Helping Subordinates Grow and Succeed

17. My manager makes my career development a priority.
18. My manager is interested in making sure that I achieve my career goals.
19. My manager provides me with work experiences that enable me to develop new skills.
20. My manager wants to know about my career goals.

Putting Subordinates First

21. My manager seems to care more about my success than his/her own.
22. My manager puts my best interests ahead of his/her own.
23. My manager sacrifices his/her own interests to meet my needs.
24. My manager does what she/he can do to make my job easier.

Behaving Ethically

- 25. My manager holds high ethical standards.
- 26. My manager is always honest.
- 27. My manager would not compromise ethical principles in order to achieve success.
- 28. My manager values honesty more than profits

Note. From Liden et al. (2008). Response scale anchors are 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

APPENDIX B
JOB SATISFACTION

1. Generally speaking, I am satisfied with this job.
2. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.
3. I frequently think of quitting this job (REVERSE)
4. Most people on this job are very satisfied with the job.
5. People on this job often think about quitting (REVERSE)

Note. From Hackman & Oldham (1975). Response scale anchors are 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

APPENDIX C**ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT**

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
3. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization (REVERSE)
4. I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization (REVERSE)
5. I do not feel like part of the family at my organization (REVERSE)
6. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Note. From Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993). Response scale anchors are 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

APPENDIX D
ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS

OCB-I

1. I help others who have been absent.
2. I help others who have heavy workloads.
3. I assist my supervisor with his/her work (when not asked).
4. I take time to listen to co-worker' problems and worries.
5. I go out of my way to help new employees.
6. I take a personal interest in other employees.
7. I pass along information to co-workers.

Note. From Williams & Anderson (1991). Response scale anchors are 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

APPENDIX E**COMMUNITY CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIORS**

1. I am involved in community service and volunteer activities outside of work.
2. I believe it is important to give back to the community.
3. I take into consideration the effects of decisions I make in my job on the overall community.
4. I believe that our company has the responsibility to improve the community in which it operates.
5. I encourage others in the company to volunteer in the community.
6. When possible, I try and get my organization involved in community projects that I am involved in.
7. I believe that an organization is obligated to serve the community in which it operates.

Note. From Liden et al. (2008). Response scale anchors are 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

APPENDIX F
TURNOVER INTENTIONS

1. I would prefer another more ideal job than the one I now work in.
2. I have thought seriously about changing organizations since beginning to work here.
3. If I have it my own way, I will not be working for this organization three years from now.
4. Within this year I intend to search for an alternative role to my present job.

Note. Items 1 through 3 are from Chatman (1991) and item 4 was developed for this study. Response scale anchors are 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

APPENDIX G
FOLLOWER TRUST

1. If I had my way, I wouldn't let my direct supervisor have any influence over issues that are important to me (REVERSE).
2. I would be willing to let my direct supervisor have complete control over my future in this company.
3. I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on my direct supervisor (REVERSE).
4. I would be comfortable giving my direct supervisor a task or problem which was critical to me, even if I could not monitor his/her actions.
5. If someone questioned my direct supervisor's motives, I would give my direct supervisor the benefit of the doubt.

Note. From Mayer and Gavin (2005). Response scale anchors are 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

APPENDIX H
FOLLOWER PROSOCIAL IDENTITY

1. I see myself as caring
2. I see myself as generous
3. I regularly go out of my ways to help others

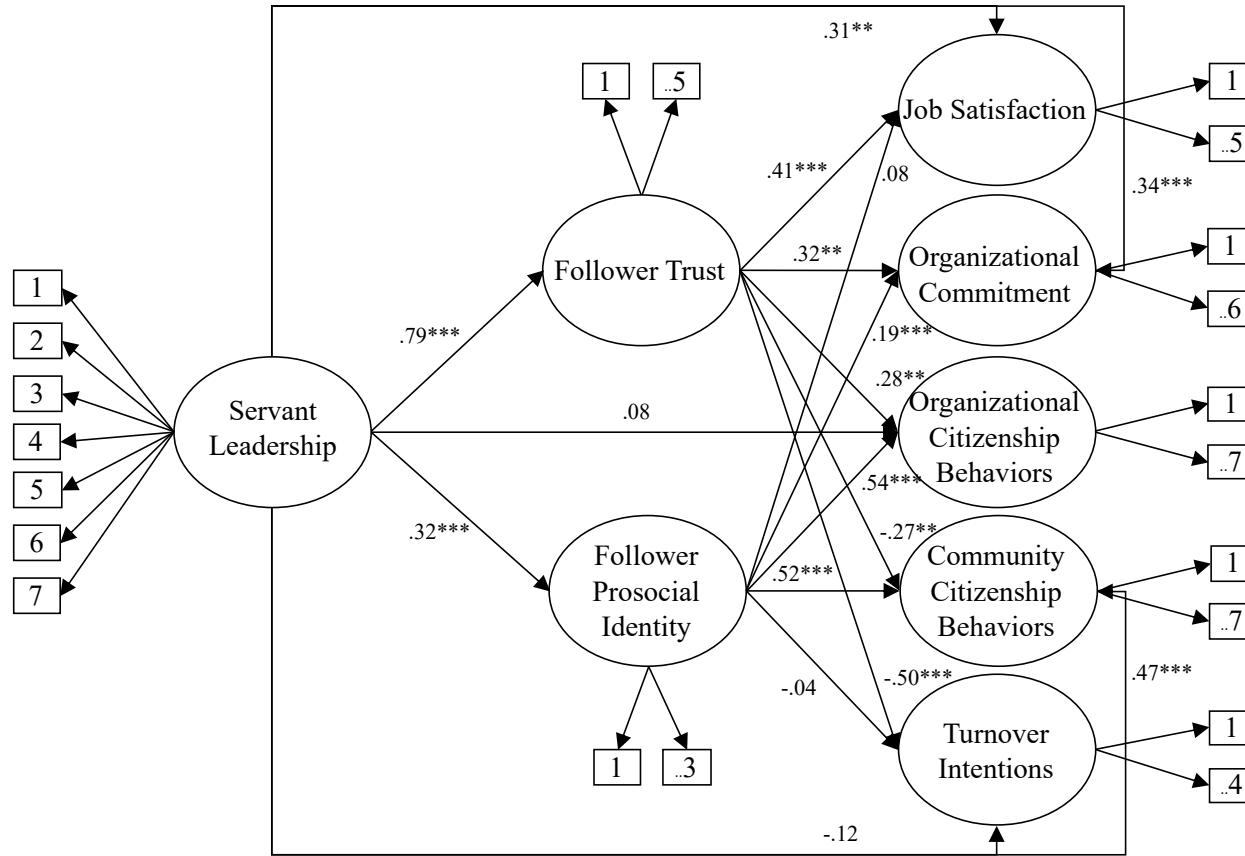
Note. From Grant, Dutton, & Rosso (2008). Response scale anchors are 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

APPENDIX I
DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

1. What is your gender? (Male, Female)
 2. What is your direct manager's gender (Male, Female)
 3. What is your age?
 4. What is your race/ethnicity? (Caucasian, African-American, Asian, Hispanic, Other)
 5. What is your direct manager's race/ethnicity? (Caucasian, African-American, Asian, Hispanic, Other)
 6. What is your highest level of education? (High school, Associates, Bachelors, Masters, Doctorate, Other)
 7. What is your marital status? (Single, Married, Cohabiting)
 8. What is your job title?
 9. On average, how many hours do you work per week?
 10. How long have you been with your organization?
 11. How long have you worked under your current manager?
-

APPENDIX J

HYPOTHESIZED MODEL WITH LATENT VARIABLE INDICATORS



The hypothesized structural model with standardized path estimates and latent variable indicators. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

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