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PERSONAL POWER AND TRUST AS MEDIATORS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND AFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

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BETWEEN SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND AFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT

By
George D. Bingham, Jr.

A DISSERTATION

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A Dissertation
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PERSONAL POWER AND TRUST AS MEDIATORS OF THE RELATIONSHIP
BETWEEN SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND AFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT

By

George D. Bingham, Jr.

We hereby certify that this Dissertation submitted by George Bingham conforms to
acceptable standards and as such is fully adequate in scope and quality. It is therefore
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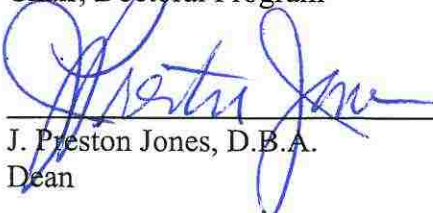
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ABSTRACT

PERSONAL POWER AND TRUST AS MEDIATORS OF THE RELATIONSHIP
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This research was designed to investigate the potential mediating role of personal power and of trust in the relationship between servant leadership and affective organizational commitment. The research responds to calls for increased understanding of the mechanisms at work between leadership models and outcomes. Especially unique in the available literature is the quantitative study of the relationship between servant leadership and personal power. All of the constructs in the research model are based on existing instruments, including those developed for personal power (PP; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989; Raven, Schwarzwald, & Koslowsky, 1998), trust (T; Mayer & Gavin, 2005), servant leadership (SL; Winston & Fields, 2015), and affective organizational commitment (AOC; Allen & Meyer, 1990), and were measured as follower perceptions and attitudes. Social exchange theory was used as the theoretical basis of the proposed model (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1962). This includes the perspective of social power and trust being characteristic of exchange relationships as opposed to attributes of an individual. Linear regression was performed using IBM$^{®}$ SPSS$^{®}$ (SPSS), and mediation was evaluated using the approach from Baron and Kenny (1986). The hypotheses for the positive relationship between SL and AOC, and for mediation of the SL-AOC relationship by PP were supported. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used in confirmation analysis. The hypothesis for T as a mediator in the relationship between SL and AOC was not supported. Further ad hoc analysis suggests SL and PP as serial mediators in the relationship between T and AOC. Implications for academic and practitioner applications are discussed.

Keywords: servant leadership, social power, personal power, trust, affective organizational commitment

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Chapter I

Introduction

"Ignore the executives" (Collins, 2001, p. 22). That was the initial directive Collins (2001) gave to the research team investigating those companies whose performance justified an elevated classification from g*ood* to *great.* His directive was given to avoid the perceived cliché of "leadership" always being the answer to the question of why an organization is successful. However, their conclusion was that the leadership factor was indeed significant and needed to be included among the important explanatory factors for the companies' success (Collins, 2001). VanMeter, Chonko, Grisaffe, and Goad (2016) asserted "that leadership is the most extensively studied social influence process in behavioral science, particularly in management literature" (p. 59). Organizations seem to be constantly attempting to implement and enhance effective leadership to fulfill organizational purposes in the context of historical and new challenges. Among the challenges are demands for increased focus on employee well-being and for increased moral/ethical orientation of management. Servant leadership is an approach that can be responsive to those demands (Hunter et al., 2013; Reed, Vidaver-Cohen, & Colwell, 2011).

Servant leadership has been known since ancient times, from a philosophical perspective, as well as in practice (Liden et al., 2015; Washington, Sutton, & Feild, 2006). Despite this long history, it has been only in relatively recent years that servant leadership has received a significant amount of academic attention (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). In addition, many companies on Fortune magazine's "100 Best Companies to Work For" proclaim values consistent with servant leadership as

characterizing their companies (de Waal & Sivro, 2012; Hunter et al., 2013). There are various definitions for servant leadership, but at the core of its modern conceptualization, servant leadership is characterized by two key factors: a primary motivation of serving through leading and a priority interest in employee well-being (Greenleaf, 1977; VanMeter et al., 2016). A commonly quoted passage, used in distilling the essence of Greenleaf's (1977) concept of servant leadership, is as follows:

> The servant-leader is servant first. . . . It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. . . . The best test, and difficult to administer, is this: Do those served grow as persons? Do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, and more likely themselves to become servants? (Greenleaf, 1977) (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 27)

Challenges in researching servant leadership include the variety of efforts to operationalize the servant leadership construct. To date, there is no consensus on the factors associated with a servant leadership construct, and there is often overlap in proposed factors with other leadership models (Reed et al., 2011; van Dierendonck, 2011; VanMeter et al., 2016). Researchers have issued a call to fill the gap in research on those characteristics that are more unique to servant leadership (VanMeter et al., 2016; Winston & Fields, 2015).

The study of leadership and its effectiveness would logically require an indication of an outcome that is valuable to organizations. Those who research leadership often use organizational commitment as an outcome variable reflecting effectiveness in leadership; and in turn, leadership is an important antecedent in studies focused on organizational commitment (Jackson, Meyer, & Wang, 2013). Research associated with employees'

organizational commitment over several decades (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Mowday, 1998; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979) is understandable given its positive association with important organizational success parameters. Meyer and Allen (1991) identified three components of organizational commitment: *affective* commitment (reflecting identification with and involvement in the organization, with an emotional attachment), *continuance* commitment (indicating the perception of costs resulting from leaving an organization), and *normative* commitment (associated with a sense of obligation to stay with an organization). Affective organizational commitment, in particular, has been shown to positively relate to organizationally desirable factors, such as employee attendance, retention, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Jackson et al., 2013; Pierro, Raven, Amato, & Bélanger, 2013), along with employee psychological benefits, such as job satisfaction (Asag-Gau & van Dierendonck, 2011; Meyer et al., 2002).

Burns (1978) acknowledged the importance of using an appropriate outcome for judging leadership effectiveness, but through a series of questions in his introduction of his classic book, he also suggested the importance of gaining knowledge about the leadership process. "Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth" (Burns, 1978, p. 2). In introducing his anthology of writings on leadership, Wren (1995) also emphasized the value of insight into the mechanisms of leadership. "The more that is known and understood about the process of leadership, . . . the more likely it . . . will yield satisfactory results" (Wren, 1995, p. xi). In their meta-analysis of 25 years of leadership studies, Hiller, DeChurch, Murase, and Doty (2011) concluded that increased attention should be paid to the complexities of the relationships between leadership and "'ultimate' tangible

outcomes of performance and effectiveness" (p. 35), by focusing on intermediate variables.

Pierro et al. (2013) also observed the limited study of the nature of mechanisms at work in the

relationship between the constructs of leadership and outcome variables such as

organizational commitment. Addressing this gap in the research, this study focuses on

potential factors mediating the relationship between leadership (in the form of servant

leadership) and affective organizational commitment.

Servant leadership's emphasis on the leader motivation of service and employee

well-being suggests a focus on the quality of the relationship developed between leader

and follower. It is argued that social power reflects a characteristic of a relationship, such

as between leader and follower, rather than being an actual attribute of an agent (Burns,

1978; Dahl, 1957; Emerson, 1962; Fiske & Berdahl, 2007). Emerson (1962) claimed this

relationship characteristic to be one of *mutual dependence*, a factor commonly seen as

linking parties in social relations, and suggested that each party has an ability to influence

fulfillment of a perceived need of, or access to something valued by the other

party. "Power resides implicitly in the other's dependency" (Emerson, 1962, p. 32).

Social power as a construct has long been associated with leadership behavior and

with interactions within groups in general; "social power is at the heart of group

dynamics" (Pierro et al., 2013, p. 1123). The process of leading is based on influence and

the potential for influence is the definition of social power (Elias, 2008; Pierro et al.,

2013; Raven, 1992; Yukl, 2006). "Influence is the essence of leadership" (Yukl, 2006, p.

145) included the implication that in what is considered leadership, something about a

leader, such as leadership behaviors, induces or influences followers to some degree

toward production of a desired outcome. The meta-analysis from Hiller et al. (2011) of

1,161 leadership studies included leader criteria such as traits, behaviors, and leader-follower relationship, along with outcome categories related to performance rating, follower attitudes, and follower behaviors, among others. Leader influence could logically presuppose the existence of an antecedent at some point of a *capacity* or *potential* for this influence, which recalls the previously referenced definition of social power of the *potential for influence*. Social power's association with leadership and its relationship characterizing function suggests its potential for a mediating role in leadership's relationship to outcomes.

Social power is often presented as having subcategories: *position (or formal) power*, with its source of influence drawn from the official or functional role of the agent; and *personal (or informal) power*, based on the agent's characteristics or capabilities (Bass, 1990; Chong, Fu, & Yu Fan, 2013; Erkutlu & Chafra, 2006; Peiró & Meliá, 2003). Peiró and Meliá (2003) asserted that a "degree of trust" is implied with personal (or informal) power. In addition, like social power, trust is also argued to reflect a quality of a relationship rather than an attribute of a relationship entity (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000; Lewis & Weigert, 1985; Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2007). This similarity suggests a role for trust in the connection between antecedent and outcome variables in the leadership process. As traditional control and coordination frameworks in an organizational context are being replaced, leadership roles have shown an increasing interest in the factor of trust as important in facilitating social interaction (Ingenhoff & Sommer, 2010; Kramer, 1999; Ren, Gray, & Kim, 2009).

This study addresses the question of whether the characteristics of servant leadership act to develop the relationship with the follower in a way that enhances aspects

of the leader's potential for influence (that is, power) and trust, which in turn are associated with the follower's response of increased commitment. Specifically, this study investigated these potential mediating roles for trust and personal power in the relationship between servant leadership and affective organizational commitment.

Problem Statement

The purpose of this study is to identify the degree to which personal power and trust mediate the relationship between servant leadership and follower affective organizational commitment**.**

Sub-problems

1. What is the relationship between follower-perceived servant leadership and the level of affective organizational commitment expressed by followers?

2. To what extent does personal power mediate the relationship between follower-perceived servant leadership and the level of affective organizational commitment expressed by followers?

    i. What is the relationship between follower-perceived servant leadership and the level of follower-perceived personal power of the leader?

    ii. What is the relationship between leader personal power perceived by the follower and the degree of affective organizational commitment expressed by the follower?

3. To what extent does trust in leadership mediate the relationship between follower-perceived servant leadership and the level of affective organizational commitment expressed by followers?

i. What is the relationship between follower-perceived servant leadership and the degree of trust expressed by the follower for the leader?

ii. What is the relationship between the level of trust of the follower for the leader and the degree of affective organizational commitment expressed by the follower?

Background and Justification

Leadership quality and strategy effectiveness in both public and private institutions have been increasingly questioned, given the scandals and moral failures in recent years, including leadership's potential role in the recent global economic crisis (Reed et al., 2011). The changing views on leadership include an increasing call for management that is more people- and ethically-focused (van Dierendonck, 2011), with the expectation that increasing leadership's emphasis on values will improve a company's overall ethical culture (Hunter et al., 2013). Servant leadership's incorporation of moral and ethical dimensions, potentially reducing leadership's inclination towards self-interest, could answer such a call. In addition, servant leadership provides a potential response to calls for deeper involvement, greater interaction, and increased innovation from followers, along with an emphasis on social responsibility not typically found in other leadership views (Greenleaf, 1977; Liden et al., 2015; Reed et al., 2011).

Van Dierendonck (2011) observed that servant leadership differs from other leadership theories, not only in certain behaviors, but also in the attitudes and motivations of the leader. In addition, servant leadership places emphasis on values, especially the priority value of follower interests. And, while the servant leader is characterized as

valuing followers' needs ahead of the leader's interests and ahead of the organization's well-being (Liden et al., 2015; Washington et al., 2006), Kool and van Dierendonck (2012) asserted in their conception of servant leadership that servant leaders, while emphasizing a motivation of service and prioritizing follower needs, are still providing direction and performance accountability expectations for followers. This apparent need that Kool and van Dierendonck felt to emphasize this inclusion of common definitional elements for leadership, such as providing direction (Yukl, 2006), may suggest that they perceived a question as to whether servant leadership fulfills the typical leadership function of guiding follower efforts in supporting the overall organizational mission.

Yukl (2006) noted the lack of consensus on the general definition of leadership over the years. He nevertheless attempted a synthesis saying that "most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person over other people to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organization" (p. 3). In many measurement models of servant leadership, there are constructs that relate to "providing direction" more or less specifically (van Dierendonck, 2011). Even so, with the priority on follower well-being, it seems appropriate to consider an outcome variable that provides reinforcement of the *leading* aspect of servant leadership; that is, one that relates to the follower's commitment to support the overall effort of the organization, such as *organizational commitment*.

Kool and van Dierendonck (2012) suggested that greater focus on employee commitment is an appropriate response to the increasingly dynamic environment, resulting from increasing technology and globalization. And, as previously mentioned, organizational commitment, especially affective organizational commitment, positively

relates to beneficial outcomes for both the organization and the employee (Jackson et al., 2013; Pierro et al., 2013). Positive relationships have been shown for servant leadership with follower commitment to the organization, although empirical research is limited (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). Factors related to affective commitment have also been shown to have a strong positive relationship with *perceived organizational support* (POS) as an antecedent (Eisenberger et al., 1990). POS is a variable representing employees feeling that they are valued and supported by the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Kim, Eisenberger, & Baik, 2016). This would support the expectation of a positive relationship between servant leadership and affective organizational commitment, given servant leadership's priority on follower needs and interests.

In addition to this empirical and logical support for the expectation of a positive relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment, social exchange theory (SET) has been associated with the influence of leadership on followers in an organizational context (Asag-Gau & van Dierendonck, 2011; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Hunter et al., 2013). Social exchange theory proposes that a relationship between entities, such as between an organization and employee, is dependent on mutually beneficial exchanges (Hunter et al., 2013). The findings of Eisenberger et al. (1990) exemplified the social exchange view in both affective and cognitive reactions by employees to perceptions of concern for their welfare and valuing of their contributions by the organization. Their studies showed positive relationships between these forms of POS and employee responses such as stronger organizational affinity and increased improvement suggestions (Eisenberger et al., 1990).

Associating SET with organizational support theory, Kim et al. (2016) asserted that SET underlies the reciprocity response in connecting POS and Affective Organizational Commitment (AOC). "When the organization is perceived to value and care about them (POS), employees feel obliged to return the caring by developing AOC. . . . POS meets socio-emotional needs such as esteem, affiliation, and emotional support" (Kim et al., 2016, p. 560). Since servant leadership is a follower-oriented approach, which prioritizes support for employees, it is expected to create employees who feel a greater commitment to the organization "in exchange" for the support and empowerment from the organization, as represented by the servant leader (Asag-Gau & van Dierendonck, 2011).

POS comes from actions and expressions of an agent or agents of the organization, such as someone in a leadership role, but the response seems to include a sense of reciprocal obligation to the overall organization (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Kim et al., 2016). Levinson (1965) called this tendency by an employee to attribute a degree of personhood to the organization from interaction with agents acting on its behalf *transference phenomena* (Kim et al., 2016). Employees experiencing favorable interaction with an agent of the firm, such as in the case of a leader providing beneficial support, could be expected to perceive that support as coming from the organization, as an anthropomorphized entity. Thus, an employee perceiving beneficial support received from an agent of the organization, such as a leader, could be expected to feel a reciprocal obligation to the organization in the social exchange between leader and subordinate.

SET, as a focus on social relations, also provides a theoretical basis for the mechanisms involved in the leader-follower relationship, specifically personal power and

trust as qualities of relationships (K. S. Cook, Cheshire, Rice, & Nakagawa, 2013; Emerson, 1962; Fiske & Berdahl, 2007; Lewis & Weigert, 1985). Social power in particular is among the most commonly studied aspects of SET (Emerson, 1976; Molm, Peterson, & Takahashi, 1999), in addition to its central role in the leader-follower relationship (Elias, 2008; Yukl, 2006). Additionally, K. S. Cook et al. (2013) observed that commitment as a function of power and of its use have been demonstrated in research associated with SET.

Trust has also been one of the central topics associated with SET research (K. S. Cook et al., 2013). Martinez, Kane, Ferris, and Brooks (2012) in reviewing leader-follower relationships, asserted that trust itself can be a "social exchange good," further reinforcing the proposed role of trust in the relationship between servant leadership and follower response. "Work relationship quality is determined by the exchange of social goods, such as . . . trust" (Martinez et al., 2012, p. 144). Molm, Takahashi, and Peterson (2000) argued that trust as an emergent element in exchange relationships is linked closely to affective commitment. The concepts of power and trust as central factors in social exchange relations and their quality of characterizing relationships provide theoretical support for their consideration as appropriate focal points of analysis as mediating factors in the servant leadership-affective organizational commitment relationship (Brower et al., 2000; Emerson, 1962, 1976; Lewis & Weigert, 1985; Schoorman et al., 2007).

As reflected in Yukl's (2006) synthesized leadership definition, the many differing definitions of leadership include the common element of the application of influence by a leader (Yukl, 2006) and, by implication, the capacity for influence; that is, social power

(French & Raven, 1959). Social power is a foundational concept in understanding the functioning of management in organizations. Noting social power's centrality in leadership and management, Elias (2008) claimed that the original social power typology from French and Raven (1959), along with subsequent development, has been associated with a significant portion of the social power research, and has often been referenced for other related theories and models since that time. The paradox of associating servant with leadership could be thought of as similar to a paradox of associating servant leadership with power. However, with use of power being a common element to various definitions of leadership, if servant leadership is to fit in the leadership category, it is of necessity associated with power and influence.

As previously mentioned, one of the unique factors distinguishing servant leadership involves the motivation of the leader, especially the motivation to serve (VanMeter et al., 2016). In the context of the social power discussion, this recalls the motivations identified in the research discussed by McClelland and Burnham (2003), especially the "need for power." Van Dierendonck (2011) discussed servant leadership in relationship to the three needs from the research of McClelland and Burnham (2003): need for power, need for achievement, and need for affiliation. The findings of McClelland and Burnham suggested that those with the need for power are drawn to, and are most effective in, leadership roles. They defined "power motivation" as "a desire to have an impact, to be strong and influential" (p. 120) and contrasted it with *dictatorial behavior*, presumably responding to a negative reaction that can be associated with the phrase, *need for power*. In fact, they asserted that "power-motivated managers make their subordinates feel strong rather than weak" (McClelland & Burnham, 2003, p. 120). Van

Dierendonck (2011) claimed that the servant leader has or develops a "need to serve" (p. 1244), which is then combined with the need for power in the form of a motivation to serve by leading. Thus, servant leadership is about a different application of power rather than a low need for it.

Emerson (1962), as referenced previously, argued that power is a characteristic of the "social relation" and not an attribute of the one attempting to influence. The bases of power reside with the potential influencer or *agent* as resources in a broad sense, but it is the degree of "dependence" that the *target* of influence has in association with the agent that establishes the potential for influence, or power (Chong et al., 2013; Emerson, 1962; Peiró & Meliá, 2003). The meeting of socio-emotional needs, such as through support from a leader, could logically be seen as providing a basis for a degree of follower dependence on the leader/organization. The degree of dependence is a basis for potential influence; that is, social power (Emerson, 1962).

The perspective of power being a property of the relationship is especially apparent in the informal or personal power context. The category of personal power in general appears consistent with servant leadership, given its follower focus and relational qualities. Stone et al. (2004) asserted that the influence of servant leaders "derives from servanthood itself" (p. 354).

As noted, trust is also argued to be characteristic of the leader-follower relationship. There has been increasing interest in the concept of trust as effective in facilitating social interaction in a variety of disciplines. This is especially true as traditional frameworks for interaction are being replaced. Trust has been considered key in organization success, given its potential role in improving stakeholder cooperation, with increased efficiency in

interactions compared to formal accountability mechanisms (Ingenhoff & Sommer, 2010; Ren et al., 2009).

Risk and reliance are the basic concepts associated with trust. The trusting parties, or *trustors*, based on a trustworthiness assessment of the trusted party, or *trustee*, determine their degree of willingness to make themselves vulnerable to uncertainty and the potential of negative impact from an act of reliance on trustees. With sufficient confidence from an assessment of trustworthiness comes a willingness on the trustor's part to accept vulnerability to the trustee falling short of the trustor's expectations or engaging in opportunistic behavior (Ingenhoff & Sommer, 2010; Ren et al., 2009). The organization, as embodied in the consistently supportive leader (Levinson, 1965), could also logically be assessed by the employee as fulfilling factors of trustworthiness, leading to an employee's willingness to risk, or trust, in the relationship to the leader/organization.

Given the previously noted calls for research into the mechanisms of leadership (Burns, 1978; Hiller et al., 2011; Wren, 1995) and observations of the limited research in the related area of mechanisms in the team leadership-team outcomes relationship (Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011), this study is justified by contributing to the research on mediating factors in the relationship between servant leadership and affective organizational commitment. Pierro et al. (2013), in their study of willingness to comply with *soft power bases* mediating the relationship between different styles of leadership (transformational and charismatic) and affective commitment, observed the lack of research on "the nature of this relationship" (p. 1122).

In earlier research, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) observed the limited number of studies on the potential of trust mediating the leader/outcome relationship. More recently, a meta-analysis by Dirks and Ferrin (2002) looked at antecedents and outcomes of trust in leadership. They argued for trust as a distinct construct being considered as a mediator between leadership behaviors and follower response. They observed that despite numerous studies on the leader behavior of *consideration*, there were insufficient studies to include it as an antecedent to trust in their meta-analysis. The suggestion was that leader consideration often incorporates concepts related to trust, and as such, trust was essentially incorporated into leader consideration rather than being recognized as a stand-alone construct. Servant leadership's priority on follower well-being could be considered related to the concept of leader consideration, in which case this study would add to the research on the general category of leader consideration relating to trust as a distinct construct.

This research also makes a contribution more specifically to the research on the relationship between servant leadership and power. Despite the recognized close association of the distinct constructs of leader behavior and leader power, Atwater and Yammarino (1996) observed the need for further research on the relationship between social power and more contemporary leadership models. The development of operationalized constructs for servant leadership was beginning at approximately this time (e.g. Laub (1999)), and yet a recent search of the Proquest database of business journals found no quantitative empirical studies of the relationship between servant leadership and social power.

In their meta-analysis of emerging positive leadership forms compared to transformational leadership, Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, and Wu (2016) identified additional variance explained by servant leadership for various outcomes, including trust and affective organizational commitment. They observed the limited amount of research available for servant leadership, implying the need for further research. Combining this observation with the lack of consensus on the definition and measurement of servant leadership (VanMeter et al., 2016) further reinforces the contribution of additional research on servant leadership, especially study focused on the unique characteristics of the servant leadership model in relationship to, for example, trust and affective organizational commitment.

Definition of Terms

Leadership**.** Yukl (2006) observed the lack of consensus in leadership definitions, but argued for common elements including an intentional process of influence exerted by one person facilitating a group effort.

Servant Leadership. Similar to the amount of variation in definitions of leadership in general, VanMeter et al. (2016) highlighted the lack of consensus on a servant leadership definition, but argued for the core elements of (a) a motivation to serve through leading and (b) a priority for follower well-being, per the original conception from Greenleaf (1977). Liden et al. (2015) asserted that servant leadership is a multidimensional, aggregate construct, indicating it is the "sum of its parts."

Servant leadership is thus best described as the combination of its dimensions. It captures honest leaders who put the needs of followers first, promote helping in

the larger community as well as at work, and possess the technical skills

necessary to provide meaningful help to followers, (Liden et al., 2015, p. 255)

Laub (1999) defined servant leadership simply as leadership that "places the good of

those led over the self-interest of the leader" (p. 81).

Influence. "Social influence (is) a change in the belief, attitude or behavior of a

person—the target of influence, which results from the action, or presence, of another

person or group of persons—the influencing agent" (Raven, 1992, p. 218).

Social power. Social power refers to a potential for influence (French & Raven,

1959; Raven, 1992) or "ability to take action and to initiate interaction" (Bass, 1990, p.

225). The exertion of power does not require specific intention (Bass, 1990).

Bases of power. In the social power typology from French and Raven (1959) there

are five bases of power: reward, coercive, legitimate, expert, and referent.

- Reward—the recipient's perception of the agent's control of rewards linked to compliance.

- Coercive—the recipient's perception of the agent's control of sanctions or punishment linked to non-compliance: related to the reward basis.

- Legitimate—the recipient's perception of the agent's valid right to exert power and the recipient's sense of obligation to comply; based on values internalized by the recipient.

- Referent—the recipient identifying or desiring to identify with the agent.

- Expert—the recipient's perception of greater knowledge of the agent in the area relevant to the power exertion. (French & Raven, 1959).

Personal power. Personal power is potential influence based on an agent's characteristics or capabilities. Personal power generally includes the bases of referent and expert power; also referred to as informal power (Bass, 1990; Chong et al., 2013; Peiró & Meliá, 2003).

Trustworthiness. Trustworthiness is an assessment by a prospective trustor of the levels of ability, integrity, and benevolence perceived as characterizing a potential trustee. Ability is skill or knowledge relevant to the applicable context. Integrity is adherence to accepted principles. Benevolence is the level of consideration by the trustee for the well-being of the trustor (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995).

Trust. Trust is the degree of willingness (i.e., an intention) of the trustor to take steps of reliance on a trusted party, in the context of the risk of the trustee failing to meet expectations. Trust is the outcome of a process of assessment of the trustee's perceived factors of trustworthiness by a trustor (Ingenhoff & Sommer, 2010; Mayer et al., 1995).

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is a multidimensional construct in which organization members could be said to develop varied combinations of affective, continuance, and normative commitment to an organization. It is a "psychological state" reflecting "a desire, a need and/or an obligation to maintain membership in the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 62).

Affective organizational commitment. Affective commitment is identification with and involvement in the organization, including an emotional attachment; the employee feels that he or she *wants to* remain with and support the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Delimitations

1. This study is limited to followers' perception of the relationship with their direct or nearly direct leader/manager.

2. This study is intended only to investigate perceived leadership behaviors, and the perceived power and trust of the leader by the follower. It will not include other influences on follower commitment or other perceptions of the leadership.

3. This study did not investigate other antecedents or outcomes of personal power or trust.

Assumptions

1. Leader behavior influences follower attitudes and behavioral intentions.

2. Leader behavior influences follower assessments about the nature of the relationship with the leader.

3. The follower's perception of the nature of the relationship with the leader is significant in influencing follower attitudes and behavioral intentions.

4. The mechanisms relating perceived leader behaviors and organizational commitment is the effect of leader behaviors on perceived characteristics of the relationship (namely personal power and trust) between the follower and leader.

Summary

Chapter I provides an introduction to the context of the study, and presents the problem statement and sub-problems that are the specific focus. Introductory background is discussed for the study variables servant leadership, organizational commitment, personal power, and trust, along with their proposed relationships and the theoretical model. Theoretical foundation is proposed based on social exchange theory. Justification

is provided in the form of salience of the variables for the practitioner, along with contributions to the research literature. Specifically at the practitioner level, the chapter includes the potential that servant leadership has in addressing organizational and employee/follower needs, and the benefits associated with increased organizational commitment. The expected contributions to the research literature from the study include primarily additional insight into the mechanisms at work in the servant leadership/affective organizational commitment relationship, with personal power and trust proposed as mediators.

<center>**Chapter II**</center>

<center>**Review of Literature**</center>

Introduction

Chapter II reviews existing literature on the study constructs of servant leadership, affective organizational commitment, personal power, and trust in their relevant context. In addition, it reviews the literature relevant to the relationships between constructs and theoretical background, and it develops study hypotheses.

As previously indicated, much of the research on servant leadership is still directed towards construct definition and operationalization, and often includes models having factors that overlap with other leadership models (Parris & Peachey, 2013; VanMeter et al., 2016). Comparison to other contemporary leadership models is discussed.

The chapter also includes review of the literature for other key study constructs: affective organizational commitment, personal power, and trust. In the case of affective organizational commitment and personal power, review of the literature starts with the broader constructs of organizational commitment and social power, respectively, of which they are subcategories. Development of study hypotheses is included in the chapter, reflecting relationships between the constructs, according to the theoretical model.

Servant Leadership

The organization in a continual pursuit of achieving ever more challenging goals typically includes attention to improving leadership effectiveness as part of its strategic efforts. This expectation of a positive contribution from more effective leadership

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explains the extensive research efforts devoted to the leadership process (Collins, 2001; VanMeter et al., 2016). Over the years, the domain of leadership study has expanded its focus beyond the individual leader to other organizational members (Avolio et al., 2009), especially followers in the context of broadening responsibilities. The increased responsibility demands greater independence, initiative, and innovation on the part of employees, giving a competitive edge to the firm that can develop employees who not only have the required knowledge and skill but who also internalize a commitment to the organization and its mission (House, 1995). In addition to increasing demands for contributions and commitment from followers, leadership is expected to respond to demands for a more ethically-oriented culture. Servant leadership, with its priority on follower well-being and its ethical orientation, could be responsive to such demands (Greenleaf, 1977; Liden et al., 2015; van Dierendonck, 2011).

Concept, definition, and measurement. There is no consensus on the definition of servant leadership (VanMeter et al., 2016), with proposals from a simple "leadership that 'places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader'" (Laub, 1999, p. 81) to a multidimensional, "sum of the parts" construct (Liden et al., 2015). However, generally there is agreement that servant leadership includes as primary factors the unique characteristic of a motivation to serve by leading, and a priority focus on the well-being of followers (Asag-Gau & van Dierendonck, 2011; Greenleaf, 1977; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008; VanMeter et al., 2016).

The paradoxical sound and nature of associating the term *servant* with the term *leadership* (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002) is acknowledged by Greenleaf (1977) early in his seminal essay, without attempting to resolve the suggested dilemma.

As I ponder the fusing of servant and leader, it seems a dangerous creation: dangerous for the natural servant to become a leader, dangerous for the leader to be servant first and dangerous for a follower to insist on being led by a servant. There are safer and easier alternatives available to all three. But why take them? (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 26)

Often lost in the discussions of servant leadership, with its initial priority on serving, is Greenleaf's (1977) own emphasis on the leadership aspect of the servant leader.

The very essence of leadership, going out ahead to show the way, derives from more than usual openness to inspiration. Why would anybody accept the leadership of another except that the other sees more clearly where it is best to go? . . . He ventures to say, "I will go; come with me!" . . . A mark of leaders . . . is that they are better than most at pointing the direction. . . . The leader always knows what [the goal or overarching purpose] is and can articulate it for any who are unsure. By clearly stating and restating the goal the leader gives certainty and purpose to others who may have difficulty in achieving it for themselves. (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 29)

Implicit in Greenleaf's (1977) declaration of the servant leader's priority being the followers' needs is the suggestion that leadership, in pursuit of purpose larger than itself, is a primary need of followers in an organization. This is the primary need that the leader, who is first a servant, is motivated to serve. And, by its nature, it is the type of leadership that does not elevate the person who is the leader but serves a purpose and serves others, beyond himself or herself (Greenleaf, 1977). Focus on and communication

of vision, values, and core principles is commonly incorporated in descriptions of servant leadership, even if not identified with specific factors (Dennis & Winston, 2003; Farling, Stone, & Winston, 1999; Russell & Stone, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011). Part of the struggle for researchers in defining and characterizing servant leadership is that its modern day "founder" did not view it as an academic pursuit. More than a technique for management, Greenleaf (1977) focused philosophically, especially on the motivation and impact of his conception of servant leadership. He did not propose a concise definition or theoretical framework, as the beginning of research, although the original quote included in Chapter I often is quoted as a beginning point for discussions of servant leadership (van Dierendonck, 2011). In fact, Greenleaf specifically indicated that was not his intent, saying "it is meant to be neither a scholarly treatise nor a how-to-do-it manual" (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 62). Though not pursued as a validated instrument, Spears (2002) did propose 10 characteristics of servant leaders based on the initial work of Greenleaf. These included listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community (Spears, 2002). Yet, efforts to create a theoretical framework for research nevertheless continued.

Although sharing many common elements, including when different terms are used for similar concepts, consensus on a definition and characteristics of servant leadership remain elusive. Several different measures have been used in the limited empirical research, beginning within the past two decades. Much of the academic study of servant leadership has continued to focus on development of the theoretical concepts and measurement instruments (Parris & Peachey, 2013; van Dierendonck, 2011).

Laub (1999) is credited with early efforts to develop a measurement instrument (Parris & Peachey, 2013). His focus was the assessment of the "servant organization," which he defined as "an organization where the characteristics of servant leadership are displayed through the organizational culture and are valued and practiced by its leadership and workforce" (Laub, 1999, p. 82). Six factors were identified in the measurement instrument for the servant leader/organization, which were values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership (Laub, 1999).

Van Dierendonck (2011) proposed six factors representing servant leadership, synthesizing the measurement instruments from seven different researchers, with each instrument having five to eight dimensions and up to 62 items:

- Empowering and developing people—strives to enhance the capability, confidence, and initiative of followers, reflecting a value for people and their potential for contribution.

- Humility—reflects a realistic self-assessment of a leader's strengths and weaknesses. It shows a "teachable" demeanor, and a willingness to support the participation and performance of others.

- Authenticity—shows consistency between the inner person and the outward expression. Related to integrity, it reflects a wholeness and an ethical orientation; a "trueness" to oneself.

- Interpersonal acceptance—reflects an ability to be sensitive to and empathetic with others and gracious with another's shortcomings and failures.

- Providing direction—is clear with expectations in the organizational context, while matching capabilities with requirements, and implementing appropriate accountability.

- Stewardship—takes responsibility for a larger organizational role, with commitment to the group or organization mission, as opposed to self-interest. It reflects an attitude of service, accepting a position as caretaker and role model (van Dierendonck, 2011).

Asag-Gau and van Dierendonck (2011) categorized these six dimensions of servant leadership into a serving or people-oriented component and a leading component. From the six characteristics synthesized by van Dierendonck (2011), the people component would include the dimensions of empowerment, humility, authenticity, and interpersonal acceptance. The component of leading would include providing direction, which incorporates accountability and stewardship (Asag-Gau & van Dierendonck, 2011; van Dierendonck, 2011).

Criticism of these various conceptualizations of servant leadership comes from their multi-dimension additions to the unique, core elements of servant leadership, resulting in overlap with other leadership models; the core, distinctive elements argued by VanMeter et al. (2016) as being "(1) leading out of a core motivation to serve first and lead second and (2) being driven by ideas that elevates [sic] the needs of others above oneself and the organization" (p. 72). There are some exceptions to the multi-dimension conceptualizations, including single dimension instruments from Liden et al. (2015) and from Winston and Fields (2015). Winston and Fields developed and validated a measurement scale limited to what they refer to as the *essential leadership behaviors.* It

is not without criticism (VanMeter et al., 2016) but is noteworthy as a single dimension

measure that has attempted to focus on a more narrow scope of core characteristics

unique to servant leadership.

The variation in definitions and measurement instruments complicates

comparison of empirical studies (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Conceptually, there seems to

be an on-going question of whether servant leadership is a full scope, stand-alone

leadership model or a unique approach to the role of leadership that is combined with

other functional aspects of the leading process (VanMeter et al., 2016). VanMeter et al.

(2016) proposed a hierarchical leadership framework having three levels of leadership

competencies: functional, personal, and servant. The initial, functional level includes

behaviors such as exchanging rewards for performance and monitoring compliance with

standards. The personal level includes communicating vision and purpose, and individual

consideration (VanMeter et al., 2016). The functional level appears to be roughly

analogous to a management-by-exception/transactional approach, and the personal level

to a transformational leadership approach (Bass, Jung, Avolio, & Berson, 2003). The

servant level reflects behaviors based on the two core servant leader traits of (a) a

primary motivation to serve and (b) putting the interest of others above one's own

(VanMeter et al., 2016).

Antecedents and consequences. Greenleaf's (1977) conceptualization of servant

leadership included *motivation to serve in a leadership role* as an antecedent of servant

leadership, whether it is innate to the leader or developed (Claar, Jackson, & TenHaken,

2014), perhaps as a result of a prior role as a follower of a servant leader (Greenleaf,

1977). Measurement instruments generally include a follower's perception, resulting in a

conclusion that the servant leader places priority on follower well-being and/or puts the interests of others, especially followers, above his or her own (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005; Liden et al., 2008; Liden et al., 2015; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008; Winston & Fields, 2015). McClelland and Burnham (2003) argued for the *need for power* being associated with those drawn to and most effective in leadership roles. Van Dierendonck (2011) discussed the association of the need for power concept and the desire to serve with servant leadership as a call to serve by leading. Washington et al. (2006) found servant leadership to be positively related to values observed in leaders of competence, integrity, and empathy, in addition to the leader personality trait of agreeableness. Emotional intelligence was found by Barbuto, Gottfredson, and Searle (2014) to significantly relate to the expressed leadership approach of leaders but was not found to be a good predictor of follower observations of servant leader behavior.

Servant leadership has shown positive relationships with work-related attitudes and behaviors of subordinates important to organizations, including organizational commitment, trust, job satisfaction, and performance (Avolio et al., 2009; Parris & Peachey, 2013). In their review of the literature, Parris and Peachey (2013) "found that a servant-led organization enhances leader trust and organizational trust, organizational citizenship behavior, procedural justice, team and leader effectiveness, and the collaboration between team members" (p. 387). In addition, their review identified studies related to the general well-being of followers, with positive relationships between servant leadership and a positive work environment, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and reduced turnover (Parris & Peachey, 2013). In a comparison study, Liden et al. (2008) found that their measure of servant leadership explained additional

variance in the relationship with organizational commitment, beyond that of transformational leadership.

Comparison with selected leadership models. Servant leadership has been compared to other contemporary leadership theory, including transformational, authentic, and ethical leadership (Hoch et al., 2016; Reed et al., 2011; Stone et al., 2004; van Dierendonck, 2011). Transformational leadership has been among the most widely researched leadership theories over the past couple of decades (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). "Transformational leadership refers to the leader moving the follower beyond immediate self-interests through idealized influence (charisma), inspiration, intellectual stimulation, or individualized consideration" (Bass, 1999, p. 11). This suggests that the focus is on the outcome of the follower "transformed" beyond self-interests; the process behaviors are a means to an end, and the end is having the organization member go "beyond one's self-interests for the good of the organization" (Bass, 1999, p. 10). Accomplishing this requires alignment of values and interests between member and organization. The relationship between leader and follower requires a basis of trust in order for identification with the organization and internalization of organizational values to occur, resulting in "the emergence in the workforce of transcendental organizational citizenship behavior" (Bass, 1999, p. 10). Transformational leadership behaviors include the following:

- Idealized influence and inspirational leadership—envisioning the positive future and how to achieve it, setting high performance standards and confidently serving as a model of commitment to the future.

- Intellectual stimulation—facilitating follower creativity and innovation.

- Individualized consideration—supporting, coaching, and delegating in growth opportunities, as "leaders pay attention to the developmental needs of followers" (Bass, 1999, p. 11).

Presupposing that the organizational values and purpose have a positive impact on followers and society at large, transformational leadership "elevates the follower's level of maturity and ideals as well as concerns for achievement, self-actualization and the well-being of others, the organization and society" (Bass, 1999, p. 11).

Authentic leadership is referred to as a *root construct*, suggesting it is a leader quality foundation by which other added leadership behaviors are enhanced and not a complete leadership theory in itself (Avolio et al., 2009). It was developed essentially addressing this presupposition of transformational leadership resulting in others' positive well-being. It came in part in response to the suggestion of the existence of "pseudo versus authentic transformational leaders" and is defined as "a pattern of transparent and ethical leader behavior that encourages openness in sharing information needed to make decisions while accepting followers' inputs" (Avolio et al., 2009, p. 423). Authentic leadership is associated with higher levels of self-awareness and of self-regulation on the part of the leader. The components of authentic leadership are generally agreed to include the following:

- Balanced processing—objective evaluation of relevant data in decision making.

- Internalized moral perspective—having an internal morality that guides self-regulation.

- Relational transparency—open, but appropriate, communication of feelings and personal information as a presentation of the authentic self.

- Self-awareness—a realistic assessment of one's strengths and weaknesses, as well as one's world view (Avolio et al., 2009).

Stone et al. (2004) compared the *functional* and *accompanying* attributes of transformational leadership to those of servant leadership. They argued that based on being people-oriented approaches to leadership, their characteristics are "relatively analogous . . . . While both . . . are influential, servant leaders gain influence in a nontraditional manner that derives from servanthood itself . . . . They allow . . . freedom for followers to exercise their own abilities [and] place a much higher degree of trust in their followers" (p. 354). They argued further that servant leadership is different primarily based on the leader focus. While transformational leaders are focused primarily on influencing followers to support the goals of the organization, servant leaders are focused primarily on "service to their followers" (Stone et al., 2004, p. 354).

Van Dierendonck (2011) described transformational leadership "as a leadership style with explicit attention to the development of followers through individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation and supportive behavior" (p. 1235), which is consistent with servant leadership. Individualized consideration is one of the factors that may be applied in "transforming followers" for greater organizational support (Bass, 1999). While empowerment and development of followers is incorporated in the individualized consideration element of transformational leadership, it is often explicitly referenced in servant leadership, in the context of priority focus on follower well-being (Liden et al., 2008).

Transformational leadership's primary focus on the organization's well-being has the potential to undermine genuine consideration of followers, with the risk of manipulation through the appearance of individual consideration. The charismatic element of idealized influence has the risk of subjecting both the followers' and the organization's well-being to the personal agenda of the leader. Through the elements of humility, authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, and stewardship required for servant leadership, the well-being of the followers and the organization are explicit, with the implication that the leader's attitude is one of having a role to contribute among equals (van Dierendonck, 2011).

The *leading* category of servant leadership characteristics identified by Asag-Gau and van Dierendonck (2011) parallels the idealized influence and inspirational leadership factors of transformational leadership. Liden et al. (2008) quoted Bernard Bass, suggesting that servant leadership exceeds Bass's "notion of the 'socially oriented transformational leader' who engages in 'moral uplifting of followers'" (p. 163).

Authentic leadership has common elements but focuses on leading through the expression of one's true self, which may or may not include a valuing of followers or of stakeholders beyond the organization boundaries, both of which are explicit in servant leadership. This describes important qualities or traits of the individual in the role of leader but does not describe the process of leading or the value for entities beyond the leader (Avolio et al., 2009; van Dierendonck, 2011).

Another current leadership theory with elements common to servant leadership is ethical leadership. Brown and Trevino (2006) identified the definition of ethical leadership as modeling ethical behavior personally and in relationships, and promoting

ethical conduct among followers. This reflects the two primary dimensions of the ethical

leader of being an ethical example and actively promoting ethical behavior among

followers. It presupposes the normative principles of consideration for others, being

trustworthy, and having integrity in serving the common good (Brown & Trevino, 2006),

which are elements similar to servant leadership.

Brown and Trevino (2006) indicated similarities between ethical,

transformational, and authentic leadership include consideration, integrity, ethical

perspective, and acting as role-models. Differences include authentic leaders' focus on

self-awareness and consistency in actions, while ethical leaders have more awareness of

others, and ethical management is more transactional. Transformational leadership differs

from ethical leadership in the emphasis on communicating vision and values, and

stimulating creativity and development (Brown & Trevino, 2006). Van Dierendonck

(2011) indicated similarities between ethical and servant leadership, with his three

dimensions of empowering and developing people, humility, and stewardship. Aspects of

the servant leader dimensions of authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, and providing

direction are not emphasized in ethical leadership (van Dierendonck, 2011).

Leadership theories are typically compared for similarities and differences in

behaviors. In addition to sharing characteristics with other theories, servant leadership is

unique in being identified by its primary motivation of the desire, or even need, to be of

service (van Dierendonck, 2011). Sun (2013) argued for the servant leadership

motivation coming from a *servant identity*, comprised of attributes including calling,

humility, empathy, and agape love. As indicated by the original passage quoted from

Greenleaf (1977), this motivation to serve is at the core of servant leadership definition

and theory. The implication is that this is closely followed by a desire and (given the factors of humility, authenticity, and stewardship) perhaps a self-assessment of ability, to lead; thus, the result of an inclination to be of service by leading.

Affective Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has a long history of study, going back many decades, with a significant amount of published research (Mowday, 1998; Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). Asag-Gau and van Dierendonck (2011) asserted that employee organizational commitment, especially affective organizational commitment, is one of the variables studied most often in research on organizational behavior.

Etzioni (1975) used the classification of *kinds of involvement* to incorporate both *positive involvement* or *commitment* and *negative involvement* or *alienation*. He considered involvement on a continuum from a "highly intense negative zone through mild . . . zones to a highly positive zone" (p. 9). Etzioni's mild positive/negative zones represented *calculative* commitment or involvement and the commitment corresponding to the highly positive zone was termed *moral*. Calculative involvement, typically associated with *remunerative* influence, was exemplified by ongoing business relationships or regular customers. Moral commitment was associated with identification with, and internalization of, values and purposes (Etzioni, 1975).

Becker (1960) was one of the earlier theorists on commitment. With a focus on the category of calculative commitment, he characterized the extant thinking on commitment as describing "consistent lines of activity" (Becker, 1960, p. 33). This suggested calculative commitment was considered virtually *commitment behaviors* as opposed to attitudes. Becker characterized his original conception as "side bets," which

involved an individual's decision concerning a direction of behavior or "line of action" in relation to its impact on one or more of the individual's potentially unrelated interests; for example, an individual staying with a well-recognized firm because he or she receives admiration from people outside the firm by being one of its employees. Becker's work contributed to a foundation for linking organizational commitment and employee turnover (Cohen, 2007).

Attention was increasingly directed towards study of *attitudinal* commitment or *psychological attachment* (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986), which parallels Etzioni's (1975) moral involvement, and which became the form most often researched (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). "Attitudinal commitment focuses on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization" (Cohen, 2007, p. 342). Porter and associates developed perhaps the most commonly used scale for attitudinal commitment through this period (Cohen, 2007; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974).

Concept, definition, and measurement. Porter et al. (1974) defined organizational commitment "in terms of the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (p. 604). Although conceived as a single dimension construct, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Porter et al. (1974) included different attitudinal dimensions, providing additional insight into the feelings and intentions of organization members (Benkhoff, 1997; Mowday, 1998). The three dimensions of commitment incorporated in the OCQ included (a) identification with the organization, (b) willingness to provide extra effort, and (c) intention to remain with the organization (Mowday et al., 1979). An analytic review of

the OCQ instrument was completed by Benkhoff (1997). According to Benkhoff (1997), mixed results have occurred in studies, in part due to the lack of differentiation between three distinct dimensions of commitment. In the OCQ, as a single dimension construct, results of the questionnaire effectively blend the commitment indications, potentially confusing the relationships with antecedents and outcomes (Benkhoff, 1997). In addition, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) argued that the components of willingness to provide extra effort and intention to remain could be considered as consequences of the identification component, rather than three dimensions of the same stage of psychological attachment.

The three-component model from Meyer and Allen (1991) generally has been seen as an improved perspective in covering the scope of what falls into the category of organizational commitment, while maintaining a distinction between the separate concepts of affective, continuance, and normative commitment, indicating that the employee feels that, respectively, he or she *wants to*, *has to*, or *ought to* remain with an organization (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Benkhoff, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Meyer and Allen (1991) described commitment overall and then the three components as

> a psychological state that (a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization . . . . Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization . . . . Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization . . . (and) . . . normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue. (p. 67)

Cohen (2007) developed a model of organizational commitment with related dimensions of *psychological* attachment versus *instrumental* attachment, which also incorporated the changing context of commitment before joining a firm compared to commitment developed after employment. Before joining the firm, the stage of commitment comes in the form of *commitment propensity* of the individual, with two dimensions: *normative* and *instrumental*.

> Normative propensity (is) defined as a general feeling of moral obligation toward the organization and employment . . . that reflects the likelihood of becoming committed . . . . Instrumental commitment propensity is defined . . . as a general tendency to be committed based on one's expectations of benefits . . . from the specific organization. (Cohen, 2007, p. 345)

Following time with the organization, the attachments are considered commitments:

> Instrumental commitment is . . . defined as attachment resulting from one's perception of the quality of exchange between . . . contributions to the organization and the rewards . . . . Affective commitment is a psychological attachment to the organization such that the strongly committed individual identifies with, is emotionally involved in, and feels a strong sense of belonging to the organization. (Cohen, 2007, pp. 345-346)

In proposing normative commitment as a propensity of the individual, which serves as an antecedent to affective commitment, Cohen (2007) observed a high correlation that typically occurs between affective and normative commitment in the Meyer and Allen (1991) three component model. In addition, Cohen contrasted *instrumental* commitment, which places emphasis on the benefits associated with

remaining in a firm, with *continuance* commitment from Meyer and Allen (1991), which

focuses on the employee's assessment of the costs associated with leaving a firm. He also

affirmed the normative and affective commitment scales from Meyer and Allen (1991) as

being suitable for use in his model with minor variations (Cohen, 2007).

     Antecedents and consequences. Asag-Gau and van Dierendonck (2011) asserted

that employee organizational commitment, and affective organizational commitment in

particular, is one of the variables studied most often in research on organizational

behavior. It is associated with positive psychological benefits for employees, such as

employee satisfaction, and with organizational benefits, such as reduced turnover and job

performance (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). In the research by O'Reilly and Chatman

(1986), support was indicated for the positive relationship of higher order interaction,

such as from leadership influence, to the identification and internalization aspects of

psychological attachment from organization members.

     The variations in definitions and measures over the years of research associated

with organizational commitment have resulted in varied results for antecedents and

consequences. In addition, the outcomes of organizational commitment can be influenced

by the nature of defining organizational commitment as reflecting attitudes

(psychological attachment), behavioral intentions, or behaviors (Benkhoff, 1997; Mathieu

& Zajac, 1990). In earlier incarnations in defining organizational commitment as a "line

of activity" or ongoing pattern of involvement, for example, in Becker's (1960)

conceptualization of *side bets*, the commitment behavior could itself be considered an

outcome of the commitment attitude or behavioral intention. In Mathieu and Zajac's

(1990) meta-analytic review of "antecedents, correlates, and/or consequences of

organizational commitment" (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990, p. 171) , behavioral intentions, and actual behaviors associated with commitment were considered consequences of organizational commitment, such as *intention to search* and *intention to leave*. As previously mentioned, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggested that two of the dimensions in the OCQ scale from Porter et al. (1974), *willingness to provide extra effort* and *intention to remain with the organization*, could be considered consequences of the third dimension, *identification with the organization*. It is interesting to contrast this suggestion with the effort to classify behavioral intentions in the meta-analysis from Mathieu and Zajac (1990) as consequences, when over half of the studies in their analysis used the OCQ as indication of organizational commitment. This reinforces some of the variation in earlier efforts in organizational commitment research (Benkhoff, 1997).

Meyer et al. (2002) completed a meta-analysis of organizational commitment research, limiting their review to studies using the three-component model from Meyer and Allen (1991) over approximately the prior decade. The results showed in the review of antecedent variables that among the strongest positive correlations were with perceived organizational support, which is consistent with the previously referenced work of Eisenberger et al. (1990). Additional strong positive correlations were shown with transformational leadership and with interactional justice. Meyer et al. (2002) used the category of *correlates* for those variables lacking consensus on the order of causation in relationship to organizational commitment. The correlates that showed the strongest positive correlation with affective commitment were "overall job satisfaction, job involvement, and occupational commitment" (Meyer et al., 2002, p. 32). For the consequence variables, withdrawal cognition showed the strongest negative correlation

with affective commitment in the review. Turnover and absenteeism also showed negative correlations. Positive correlations were shown with organizational citizenship and with job performance (Meyer et al., 2002).

Servant Leadership and Affective Organizational Commitment

As stated previously, social exchange theory has been referenced in studying the influence of leadership, including servant leadership, on followers in an organizational context (Asag-Gau & van Dierendonck, 2011; Eisenberger et al., 1990; Hunter et al., 2013). Social exchange theory proposes that a relationship between entities, such as between an organization and employee, is dependent on mutually beneficial exchanges (Hunter et al., 2013). "An individual who supplies rewarding services to another obligates him. To discharge this obligation, the second must furnish benefits to the first in turn" (Blau, 1964, p. 89).

With servant leadership being a people-oriented approach, which prioritizes support for employees, it is projected to yield employees with greater commitment to the organization in exchange for the support and empowerment from the organization, as represented by the servant leader (Asag-Gau & van Dierendonck, 2011). Exemplifying this aspect is the previously referenced study completed by Eisenberger et al. (1990), testing the relationship between perceived organizational support (POS) and organizational involvement and innovative contribution on the part of employees. POS is a variable representing employees feeling they are valued and supported by the organization. Job performance and attendance showed a significant positive relationship to POS, as did innovation and affective attachment. Affective attachment used items from existing instruments of affective organizational commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1990).

Other studies also have shown a significant positive correlation between POS and affective organizational commitment (Shore & Wayne, 1993; Wayne, Shore, & Linden, 1997).

Though research is limited, studies have shown a positive relationship between servant leadership and follower commitment (Avolio et al., 2009; Liden et al., 2008; Parris & Peachey, 2013). Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko, and Roberts (2009) found servant leadership to have a positive relationship with organizational commitment. Hunter et al. (2013) found a negative relationship between servant leadership and follower disengagement, which could be considered a negative form of organizational commitment. Similarly, Kashyap and Rangnekar (2016) found servant leadership to be negatively related to turnover intention, with the relationship partially mediated by trust. Dannhauser and Boshoff (2006) investigated the related context of a team, finding support for servant leadership's positive relationship to team commitment. They further distinguished between emotional commitment and rational commitment, and found a higher level of emotional commitment with servant leadership. Liden et al. (2008) found the dimension from their servant leadership measure of *helping subordinates grow* to positively relate to organizational commitment. Asag-Gau and van Dierendonck (2011) demonstrated a connection between servant leadership and organizational commitment in the context of providing job challenge enhancement for highly-talented employees. They found that servant leadership's empowerment dimension had a direct, positive relationship with meaning in the job, and meaning was, in turn, positively related to organizational commitment (Asag-Gau & van Dierendonck, 2011). Showing organization commitment's relationship to both servant leadership and transformational leadership,

van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, and Alkema (2014) determined a difference in the mechanisms of the leadership-organizational commitment relationships. Specifically, servant leadership was found to work through the mechanism of follower need satisfaction, while leadership effectiveness perceived by followers was the mechanism through which transformational leadership worked (van Dierendonck et al., 2014).

In analogous research, Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, and May (2004) found that psychological empowerment mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. "Transformational leadership theory emphasizes the role of empowerment as a central mechanism of building commitment to the organization's objectives" (p. 953). With follower empowerment often included as a dimension of servant leadership (van Dierendonck, 2011), it is reasonable to project servant leadership also relating to organizational commitment through empowerment. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory is based on leaders developing unique exchange relationships with each follower, with leader-subordinates relationships on a continuum between high and low. High LMX relationships are associated with a stronger bond and higher communication between leader and follower, with the result expected to be a higher level of commitment on the part of the follower (Avolio et al., 2009). Gerstner and Day (1997) found a positive relationship between high LMX and organizational commitment. The relationship between servant leader and subordinate could generally be expected to be evaluated towards a higher LMX and therefore would be expected to result in related outcomes, such as higher organizational commitment.

Recalling the discussion of social exchange theory (SET) from Chapter I, the service orientation and support perceived by a follower from a servant leader could be expected to result in a sense of obligation on the part of the follower (Blau, 1964). As part of the social exchange relation, affective organizational commitment could be an expected response from the follower to the sense of obligation for the support provided from the servant leader, as an agent of the organization (Levinson, 1965). Adding this theoretical perspective to the background of empirical evidence leads to the following hypothesis:

> Hypothesis 1 (H1): Follower-perceived servant leadership has a positive relationship with the level of affective organizational commitment expressed by followers.

Personal Power

In early work on power, Dahl (1957) asserted that "power is as ancient and ubiquitous as any that social theory can boast" (p. 201). In describing power, Dahl indicated that it "is a relation among people" (p. 203) and "unless there is some 'connection' . . . then no power relation can be said to exist" (Dahl, 1957, p. 204). This reinforces the point of power, like trust, being a characteristic or quality of a relationship and not of an individual (Emerson, 1962; Fiske & Berdahl, 2007; French & Raven, 1959). "By the basis of power we mean the relationship between (a social agent—individual or group) and (the target person) which is the source of that power" (French & Raven, 1959, p. 155). Burns (1978) argued for "one vital clue to power: power is a relationship among persons" (p. 12). Hinkin and Schriesheim (1990) asserted that power

is not an observable phenomenon, like a behavior, but is inferred from observable factors, such as behavior.

Concept, definition, and measurement. French and Raven's (1959) five bases of power taxonomy and related development have been part of a significant percentage of the research addressing social power since that time (Elias, 2008). Relating social influence and social power, French and Raven

> defined social influence as a change in the belief, attitude or behavior of a person—the target of influence, which results from the action, or presence, of another person or group of persons—the influencing agent. Social power was defined as the potential for such influence. (Raven, 1992, p. 218)

The five power bases identified by French and Raven (1959) were

1. Reward—the target's perception of the agent's control of rewards linked to compliance.

2. Coercive—related to reward power; perception of the agent's control of sanctions for non-compliance.

3. Legitimate—perception of the agent's valid right to exert power and the target's duty to comply; related to the target's internal values.

4. Referent—perception of the agent as one with whom the target identified.

5. Expert—perception of the agent's superior knowledge in a relevant context.

These five bases were developed over time to a total of 14, adding information power as a sixth primary basis, and then identifying two to four subcategories for each primary basis (for example, referent and expert power each having a positive and negative

subcategory, and reward and coercive power each having subcategories of personal and impersonal) (Elias, 2008; Raven, 1992).

As previously noted, another commonly used categorization of social power involves distinguishing between position (or formal) power and personal (or informal) power (Bass, 1990; Etzioni, 1975; Peiró & Meliá, 2003; Yukl & Falbe, 1991). Position power typically has its basis in a formal role or position with recognized authority and control over rewards and sanctions. Reward, coercive, and legitimate power bases from French and Raven (1959) are generally associated with position power. Personal power is based on the perception of an individual's characteristics and capabilities, and includes the French and Raven power bases of referent and expert (Peiró & Meliá, 2003; Yukl & Falbe, 1991). In a study with Chinese participants, Chong et al. (2013) separated relational power as a third basis category, versus positional and personal power, based on the construct of *guanxi*, which is associated with the culture in China. The construct incorporated affective attitudes such as affection, loyalty, obligation, and mutual commitment (Chong et al., 2013).

The idea of categorizing power as personal was extended with the proposal by Raven (1992) of personal and impersonal sub-components of both reward and coercive power. These bases were considered primarily from a tangible benefit or threat in the original taxonomy (French & Raven, 1959). The distinction of *personal reward* and *personal coercive* components recognizes the significant influence that others can exert based on, for example, how much a target values or depends on gaining approval or avoiding disapproval (Raven, 1992). This also reinforces the relational nature of personal power.

The positive and negative subcomponents from Raven (1992) of the personal power bases of expert and referent reinforce the association, not only with perceived qualities and abilities of the leader, but also with the follower assessment of the leader's motivations, suggesting an additional connection with a key component in servant leadership; that is, motivation to serve. The positive forms of expert and referent power are consistent with the original conception; that is, the potential to influence another based on the perception of leader expertise, or as a result of the leader being someone with whom the follower identifies (French & Raven, 1959; Raven, 1992). The negative forms are suggested as resulting in less commitment, or even resistance, based on the qualities and/or motivations of the leader in the context of the relationship; for example, the leader is seen as someone with whom the follower does not want to identify, or as someone who attempts to influence for his or her own benefit (Raven, 1992).

Other bases of power have been proposed over the years, such as information (Raven, 1992), persuasiveness, and charisma (Yukl & Falbe, 1991). These additional bases were included in research by Yukl and Falbe (1991) that provided empirical support for the personal and position categorization of social power, with information power grouped in position power, and persuasiveness and charisma grouped in personal power. However, the original five bases from French and Raven (1959) continue to be the classifications used most often (Reiley & Jacobs, 2016).

Yukl and Falbe (1991) studied the relationship of influence measures with power using the French and Raven (1959) model for five bases of power, along with the addition of power based on information, persuasiveness, and charisma. With factor analysis, the authors grouped the bases into power categories of personal (expert and

referent bases from French and Raven (1959), plus persuasiveness and charisma); and position (French and Raven's (1959)'s reward, coercive, and legitimate bases, plus informational). Theirs was an early study showing support empirically for the two-factor approach of personal and position power (Yukl & Falbe, 1991).

Podsakoff and Schriescheim (1985) completed a review of the research to that point that had used the taxonomy from French and Raven (1959) and found significant problems with the research as a result of poorly developed or incomplete measures. Several attempts have been made to develop scales (Nesler, Aguinis, Quigley, Lee, & Tedeschi, 1999), with two of the more commonly referenced ones being from Hinkin and Schriesheim (1989) and from Yukl and Falbe (1991).

Antecedents and consequences. Fiske and Berdahl (2007) summarized the perspective of *status* being considered a distinct construct from power and serving as an antecedent to power. In certain circumstantial or cultural contexts, such characteristics as gender, age, height, physical attractiveness, and so forth, can be perceived as having more or less status and providing foundation for bases of power (Fiske & Berdahl, 2007). In addition, certain motivations and personality traits have been linked to power and influence strategies, and could be considered antecedents of power (Fiske & Berdahl, 2007).

In the leadership context, Hinkin and Schriesheim (1990) studied the effect of leader behavior in the form of *influence tactics* on the perception of supervisory power. They found that "the use of *rational explanations* . . . a relatively egalitarian influence tactic" (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990, p. 234), was positively related to the personal power bases of expert and referent, along with legitimate power. The two influence

tactics of *assertiveness* and *upward appeal-sanctions*, incorporating demands, rewards, and punishments, both resulted in negative relationships to the personal plus legitimate bases of power (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990). The study by Atwater and Yammarino (1996) found that expert and referent power were best predicted by transformational leader behaviors.

Carson, Carson, and Roe (1993) completed a meta-analytic review of early studies, looking at correlations of outcomes with French and Raven's (1959) five bases of power. The outcomes from the studies included satisfaction with supervision, job satisfaction, and performance. The strongest correlations were between satisfaction with supervision and expert power, with supervision satisfaction and referent power nearly as strong. Expert power also showed relatively strong correlations with job satisfaction and performance. Referent power showed somewhat weaker but nevertheless positive correlations with job satisfaction and performance (Carson et al., 1993).

A study by Reiley and Jacobs (2016) tested the relationship between bases of power and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), and included the moderating influence of follower perceptions of leadership ethics. They found that higher levels of OCB resulted from the use of both expert and referent power when the leadership was perceived by followers to be more ethical. In the presence of less ethical leaders, use of referent power resulted in less OCB. The moderating effect of follower-perceived ethics between expert power and OCB was not significant (Reiley & Jacobs, 2016).

Servant Leadership and Personal Power

The paradox of associating the term servant with leadership could perhaps be considered analogous to associating servant leadership with the term power, despite

power being central to the leadership process (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990). Burns (1978) referenced research that he argued can "remind us that the power holder has a variety of motives besides . . . wielding power over others" including seeking "power as an intermediate value instrumental to realizing . . . loftier goals" (Burns, 1978, p. 14). Blau (1964) provided a social exchange foundation for power: "Imbalances of obligations incurred in social transactions produce differences in power. Unreciprocated, recurrent benefits obligate the recipient to comply with the requests of the supplier (of benefits) and thus give the latter power over the former" (Blau, 1964, p. 140). Servant leadership, by virtue of its primary motivation of service and priority of follower well-being, could be said to provide *recurrent benefits* obligating the follower (recipient) to provide reciprocating value to the leader and/or the organization he or she represents.

Additional study has been called for on the leader behavior relationship to power, which are two interrelated but nevertheless independent constructs (Atwater & Yammarino, 1996; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990). It has been argued that follower perception is the best measure for power and for leader behavior, with the assertion that it is the follower's belief about, or perspective of, the leader's behavior or power that will be more influential, regardless of the factual reality (Atwater & Yammarino, 1996; Farmer & Aguinis, 2005). The study by Atwater and Yammarino (1996) showed individual differences in perception of leader behavior and leader power, suggesting that the relationship between leader behavior and power operates at the individual level rather than at the group level. Palich and Hom (1992) also found leader behavior contributing to the development of power perception. In addition, Lord (1977) found that initial impressions of power are modified by leader behavior. Aguinis, Simonsen, and Pierce

(1998) completed a study indicating that even nonverbal behaviors, including facial expressions and eye contact, related to perceptions of power.

Personal Power and Organizational Commitment

Mossholder, Kemery, Bennett, and Wesolowski (1998) observed that the personal power bases of referent and expert power from French and Raven (1959) consistently have been found to correlate with organizational commitment, which is among the variables most frequently studied with power in the organizational context. Their study found that the relationship between personal power bases and organizational commitment was fully mediated by procedural justice. This reinforces the suggestion that concern over power-use intentions causes evaluation by the follower, looking for indications that supervisors are ethical and considerate in dealings with subordinates (Mossholder et al., 1998). In addition to empirical support for the categories of personal and positional power, Yukl and Falbe's (1991) research also reflected that both task commitment and subordinate perceived managerial effectiveness show stronger significant relationships with personal power than with position power.

In research on a sample of U.S. accountants, Rahim and Afza (1993) found that the perception of personal power was positively related to organizational commitment. In a subsequent study, Rahim, Khan, and Uddin (1994) found a positive relationship between personal power bases and organizational commitment in a U.S. sample, but expert and legitimate power bases were positively related to organizational commitment in a sample from Bangladesh, indicating the possibility of cultural differences in response to perceived supervisory power.

As previously discussed, SET provides a theoretical basis for the relationship between servant leadership and affective organizational commitment. The servant leader, as an agent of the organization, provides follower support and prioritizing of the follower needs, along with perhaps the leadership sought by a follower, and a model for identification and admiration. Receipt of this value creates a sense of obligation on the part of the follower to reciprocate (Blau, 1964). The reciprocal value provided by the "obliged" follower could be affective organizational support.

Theorizing on the process by which the social exchange relationship works, Emerson (1962) proposed his *power-dependence* explanation of power in the exchange relationship (K. S. Cook & Yamagishi, 1992). As previously noted, Emerson (1962) asserted that "power is a property of the social relation" (p. 32), and, in addition, he argued that power is a function of dependency. The power of one party is enhanced by being the source of valued resources—tangible and/or intangible—on which dependency is developed by another party in an exchange relationship (Emerson, 1962). Further, Blau (1964) emphasized the factor of *balance* in responses to exchange of value: "Imbalances of obligations incurred in social transactions produce differences in power. Unreciprocated, recurrent benefits obligate the recipient to comply with the requests of the supplier (of benefits) and thus give the latter power over the former" (Blau, 1964, p. 140).

Servant leadership, by virtue of its primary motivation of service and priority of follower well-being, could be said to provide *recurrent benefits*, on which a follower (recipient) could become increasingly dependent, and which could serve as ongoing reinforcement of a sense of obligation on the part of the follower to reciprocate, for

example, with increased affective organizational commitment. Reinforcing this potential

link, the study from van Dierendonck et al. (2014) determined that servant leadership

worked through the mechanism of follower need satisfaction in its relationship to

affective organizational commitment. Satisfaction of follower needs could be logically

related to the *receipt of recurrent benefits* discussed by Blau (1964) as a basis for

imbalance in obligations, and by Emerson (1962) as an increase in dependence on the

part of the follower, leading to an increase in leader power perceived by the follower.

Combining this theoretical perspective with the previously referenced empirical support

suggests the next hypothesis:

> Hypothesis 2 (H2): Follower-perceived personal power mediates the relationship
>
> between follower-perceived servant leadership and the level of affective
>
> organizational commitment expressed by followers, such that servant leadership
>
> has a significant positive effect on personal power, which in turn has a significant
>
> positive effect on affective organizational commitment.

Trust

Kramer (1999) observed a significantly increasing interest in recent times in trust

associated with control and coordination in an organizational context. The benefits of

trust to the organization include increased efficiency in various types of transactions,

exchanges, and interactions. In addition, trust increases *spontaneous sociability*

manifesting in extra-role activities such as cooperation and altruism, which enhances the

achievement of organizational goals and increases the overall organizational well-being

(Kramer, 1999).

Concept, definition, and measurement. Blau (1964), contrasting to economic exchange, asserted that "social exchange tends to engender feelings of . . . trust" (p. 94). Similar to personal power, trust models in an organizational context have identified trust as characteristic of a relationship, such as between leader and subordinate, rather than being an individual attribute (Brower et al., 2000; Lewis & Weigert, 1985; Schoorman et al., 2007): "Trust is applicable to the relations among people rather than to their psychological states taken individually" (Lewis & Weigert, 1985, p. 968). Schoorman et al. (2007) argued that their model of trustworthiness factors, which included benevolence, ability, and integrity, works at the individual, group, and organizational level.

Mayer et al. (1995) defined trust as

the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party. (p. 712)

Across academic disciplines, there seems to be broad agreement on the elements of *confident expectations* and *willingness to be vulnerable* as part of the definition of trust, arguing for the definition being at the level of a psychological state as opposed to a behavior (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998; Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010).

Mayer et al. (1995) contrasted a dependence on trust, with control-related mechanisms intended to minimize risk and reduce the need for trust in interdependent working relationships. "Legalistic remedies have been described as weak, impersonal substitutes for trust, which may bring organizational legitimacy, yet often are ineffective" (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 710). They identified trends that are likely to increase the advantage of using more trust-based connections in the workplace, where substitute

control mechanisms are at least less efficient, if not unworkable. These trends included

diversity, employee empowerment, and increasing use of virtual organizational forms

(Mayer et al., 1995; Ridings, Gefen, & Arinze, 2002). Reinforcing this perspective,

Schoorman et al. (2007) stated the following:

> We argue that one of the major distinctions between agency theory and
>
> stewardship theory is the use of trust versus control systems to manage risk.
>
> However, we do not see these mechanisms as being mutually exclusive . . . a
>
> control system can bridge the difference by lowering the perceived risk to a level
>
> that can be managed by trust . . . . However . . . if there is a very strong system of
>
> controls in an organization, it will inhibit the development of trust. (Schoorman et
>
> al., 2007, pp. 346-347)

A commonly referenced measure of trust in earlier decades was from Rotter

(1967). Criticism of this measure resulted from its length (25 items) and multiple

dimensions (Schoorman et al., 2007). A single dimension, short measure was developed

in 1996 by Schoorman, Mayer, and Davis (Schoorman, Mayer, & Davis, 2016) based on

defining trust with a focus on *willingness to accept vulnerability*, but it had difficulty

with reliability (Schoorman et al., 2007). Mayer and Gavin in 2005 and Schoorman and

Ballinger in 2006 developed somewhat longer single dimension measures that were much

more reliable (Schoorman et al., 2007).

Antecedents and consequences. The organizational trust model from Mayer et

al. (1995) starts with an assessment by the potential trustor of the perceived

trustworthiness of the prospective trustee, evaluating the factors of integrity, ability, and

benevolence as antecedents to trust. These three factors are related, but nevertheless may

independently vary. Overall trustworthiness is on a continuum, and the trustworthiness assessment and the perceived need for trust can both be influenced by the situation or context (Mayer et al., 1995). Other factors affecting the assessment of trustworthiness include the trustor's propensity for trust, the perception of the past experience outcomes resulting from trusting behavior (Mayer et al., 1995), and the level of trust the subordinate perceives that the leader has for him or her (Brower et al., 2000). Integrity is initially the most important trustworthiness factor. Perceived benevolence increases over time with relationship development (Mayer et al., 1995). In a study of information exchange in virtual communities, Ridings et al. (2002) found the level of trust to be positively related to the willingness to share information and the desire to obtain information.

Dirks and Ferrin (2002) completed a meta-analysis of approximately 40 years of research focused on trust in leadership that incorporated studies including over 100 independent samples. In the case of antecedents, the strongest relationships were with transformational leadership and perceived organizational support; significant positive relationships were also found with transactional leadership, the individual factors of organizational justice, and participative decision making (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). Consequence variables associated with trust were in the categories of both behavior and performance, and attitudes and intentions. For consequences, the strongest relationships were with organizational commitment and job satisfaction, and additional significant relationships were found with job performance, organizational citizenship behavior, decision commitment, and (negative) intent to quit. Correlates of satisfaction with leader

and leader-member exchange showed among the strongest relationships overall (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

Mayer and Gavin (2005) observed the limited amount of research associated with how performance is influenced by trust and the mixed results in studies of the relationship of trust with performance. Studies have been more consistent in showing organizational citizenship behavior's positive relationship with trust (Mayer & Gavin, 2005). Their results suggested that trust in more direct management and in top management allows employees to increase focus on value-adding activities, which in turn increases overall performance (Mayer & Gavin, 2005). McEvily, Perrone, and Zaheer (2003) suggested that trust has *enabling effects*, generating or enhancing an environment "conducive to obtaining organizational outcomes like cooperation and higher performance" (p. 91). There is a wide range of studies relating trust to different organizational outcomes, with the result that the role of trust can often reflect a "fragmented" perspective (McEvily et al., 2003).

Servant Leadership and Trust

Brower et al. (2000) observed that leadership and trust have been associated throughout history as well as across academic fields in the modern era. Mayer and Davis (1999) completed their study of the relationship between an organization's performance evaluation system and trust. The results support the view that a variable combination of the trustworthiness factors influences the level of trust. The study also suggests a basis for management's actions influencing the levels of trust in the organization (Mayer & Davis, 1999). As previously noted, in their meta-analysis of leadership trust, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) found transformational leadership and perceived organizational support to

have the strongest relationships with trust, compared to other antecedents reviewed. Schaubroeck et al. (2011) found that transformational leadership behaviors related positively to cognitive trust, and servant leader behaviors related positively to affective trust. Eisenberger et al. (1990) argued that leader behaviors that reflect perceived organizational support would be expected to increase the level of trust, especially through "its exchange obligations of noticing and rewarding efforts made on its behalf" (p. 52).

Ethical leadership, conceptualized as both behaving ethically and actively promoting ethics from the leadership role (i.e., having dimensions of a *moral person* and a *moral manager*), has been shown to positively relate to affective trust in leadership (Brown & Trevino, 2006). At the team level, Schaubroeck et al. (2011) observed a more consistent positive relationship between performance and trust in the team leader in the limited empirical studies completed.

Sendjaya and Pekerti (2010) argued that the behaviors of a servant leader inherently incorporate the trustworthiness factors of integrity, benevolence, and ability. They found a significant positive relationship between servant leadership factors and trust. Joseph and Winston (2005) found a positive relationship between organizations perceived as being servant-led and both leadership trust and organizational trust. Servant leadership was also shown to relate positively to perceptions of leader competence, empathy, and integrity (Joseph & Winston, 2005), which align closely with the factors of trustworthiness, namely ability, benevolence, and integrity (Mayer et al., 1995).

Dannhauser and Boshoff (2006) found a significant positive relationship between servant leadership and trust. Servant leadership can enhance trust that subordinates have

in leaders specifically, but also in the organization as a whole (Dannhauser & Boshoff, 2006).

Trust and Organizational Commitment

J. Cook and Wall (1980) found substantial correlation between trust and organizational commitment, with the highest correlation between trust and faith in management, which they propose as a variable contributing to organizational commitment. Dannhauser and Boshoff (2006) found a significant positive relationship between trust and the analogous *team commitment*. The level of commitment influence is higher for emotional commitment compared to rational commitment. Support was also found for a positive relationship between trust and the commitment related factor of *intent to stay*, in a five-month longitudinal study (Mayer, Bobko, Davis, & Gavin, 2011).

Nyhan (1999) studied the relationship of trust and organizational commitment, distinguishing between *interpersonal trust* (trust directly between leader and subordinate) and *systems trust* (trust between subordinate and the organization). He found that affective organizational commitment was positively related to both interpersonal and systems trust but has a much stronger correlation with interpersonal trust (Nyhan, 1999). The previously referenced meta-analysis completed by Dirks and Ferrin (2002) identified organizational commitment (along with job satisfaction) as having the strongest correlation with trust, among the outcome and correlate variables reviewed.

Schaubroeck et al. (2011) asserted that when trust is studied as a mediating factor between team leader behavior and outcomes, such as team performance (a group level outcome), distinguishing affective from cognitive dimensions is important, since the psychological processes involved are different. They found that cognitive trust in the

leader related to member beliefs in the team capabilities, and affective trust related to beliefs that the team environment is safe for taking interpersonal risks (Schaubroeck et al., 2011). Podsakoff et al. (1990), in studies with trust as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leader behaviors and OCB, concluded that "the aggregate effects of the leader behaviors on OCBs are indirect, rather than direct, in that they are mediated by followers' trust in their leaders" (p. 129). Citing social exchange as a theoretical foundation, Aryee, Budhwar, and Chen (2002) found trust to mediate the relationship between factors of organizational justice and beneficial organizational outcomes, including organizational commitment.

In studying negotiated versus reciprocal social exchange, Molm et al. (2000) argued that in reciprocal exchange, "trust is one aspect of a broader nexus of feelings toward the partner which also includes affective commitment" (p. 1398). Blau (1964) asserted that "since social exchange requires trusting others to reciprocate, the initial problem is to prove oneself trustworthy" (p. 98). The core elements of servant leadership would by their nature be inclined to exhibit factors of trustworthiness, especially integrity and benevolence (Mayer et al., 1995). In observing consistent trustworthiness of the servant leader, the follower's *willingness to risk* or trust could be expected to be enhanced. In response to the follower's sense of obligation to reciprocate, projected to be fulfilled by AOC (as proposed in H1) increased trust on the part of the follower could be expected to facilitate the development of identification with and commitment to the organization, recalling Levinson's (1965) *transference phenomena*. The willingness to risk commitment is made easier by development of trust in the leader and the organization.

Combining this theoretical foundation with the referenced empirical support leads to the next hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3 (H3): The degree of trust expressed by the follower for the leader mediates the relationship between follower-perceived servant leadership and the level of affective organizational commitment expressed by followers, such that servant leadership has a significant positive effect on trust, which in turn has a significant positive effect on affective organizational commitment.

Theoretical Model

The mediating role of personal power and trust in the relationship between servant leadership and affective organizational commitment is portrayed in Figure 1.
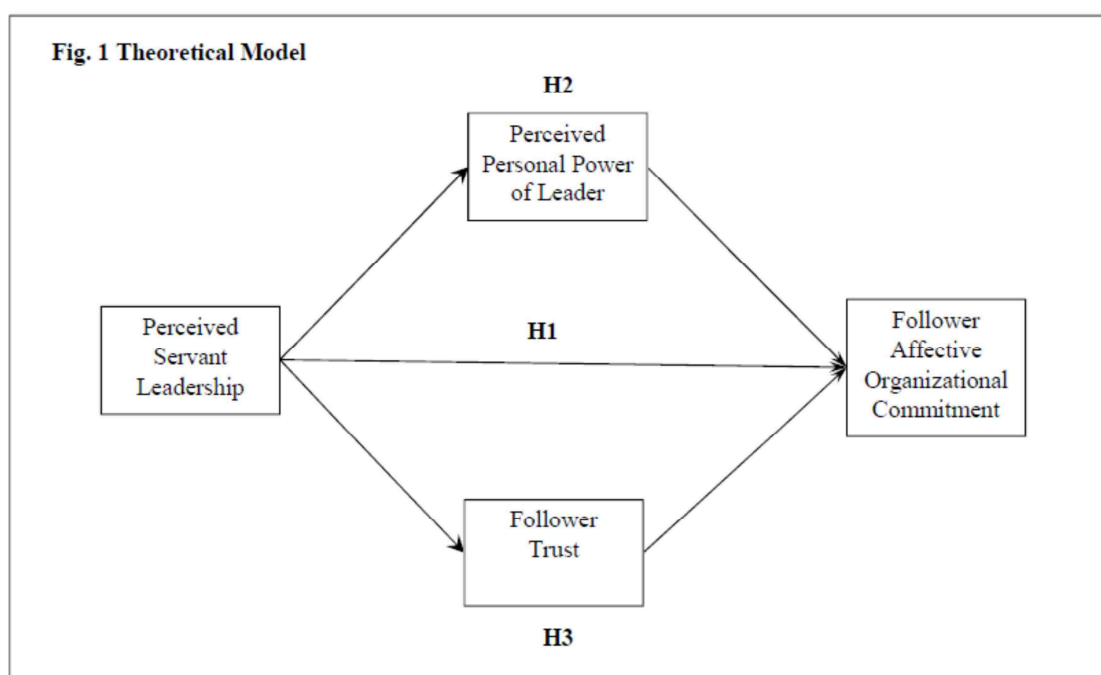
Figure 1. Theoretical model.

Chapter III

Methodology

Chapter Organization

Chapter I provided an overview of the study, identifying the research problem of the mechanism(s) at work in the relationship between servant leadership and affective organizational commitment, along with background and justification for the study. Chapter II reviewed the literature related to the study constructs and existing research on their relationships. It included the development of the hypotheses for this study. Chapter III describes the research design and methodology used in the study for the testing of these hypotheses.

Research Framework

The research framework is structured to investigate proposed mechanism(s) at work in servant leadership's relationship to affective organizational commitment, as was described in the problem statement; that is, identifying the degree to which personal power and trust mediate the relationship between servant leadership and follower affective organizational commitment, and the associated sub-problem statements presented in Chapter I.

The theoretical model (see Figure 1) reflects relationships between each pair of constructs, which are established in testing the hypotheses developed in Chapter II:

H1:   Follower-perceived servant leadership has a positive relationship with the level of affective organizational commitment expressed by followers.

H2:   Follower-perceived personal power mediates the relationship between follower-perceived servant leadership and the level of affective organizational commitment expressed by followers, such that servant

leadership has a significant positive effect on personal power, which in turn has a significant positive effect on affective organizational commitment.

H3:   The degree of trust expressed by the follower for the leader mediates the relationship between follower-perceived servant leadership and the level of affective organizational commitment expressed by the follower, such that servant leadership has a significant positive effect on trust, which in turn has a significant positive effect on affective organizational commitment.

Research Design

This is a cross-sectional study based on participant completion of the survey instrument at a single point in time. The survey was designed to collect responses from the follower perspective. Atwater and Yammarino (1996) asserted that follower perception provides the best measure for social power and for leader behavior, arguing that it is the follower's belief about, or perspective of, the leader's behavior and/or power that will be more influential on a follower's eventual response to the perceived power and/or leader behavior, regardless of the factual realities. The research design involves analysis for mediation by more than one factor.

Survey Population

The primary survey population was sourced through the mailing list of a non-profit organization that creates faith-based broadcasting content focused on Bible teaching. The board of the organization approved a resolution providing permission to solicit participation in a voluntary, anonymous survey (see Appendix A). The initial

contact consisted of 5,971 email addresses of individuals who had opened recent emails from the non-profit organization, plus 895 self-identified clergy members who were expected to be primarily in leadership roles. In addition to requesting participation from email recipients, the recipients were asked to forward the survey link to their staff members, co-workers, and associates in a snowball strategy (see Appendix B). This likely resulted in individuals being contacted who had no direct association with the non-profit organization.

Demographics were collected, including verification that survey participants were at least 18 years of age and reported mainly to one individual in a leadership role, in the organization for which they worked (see Appendix C). Demographics collected included gender, age range, education, tenure, and work role for the survey respondent (the *follower*), as well as their observation or estimation of these demographics for the respondent's *leader*. Additional demographic questions included addressed follower position status and religiosity, and organization size, type, and location.

Given that the initial contact was with constituents of the faith-based non-profit, it was likely that a significant number or even a majority of participants were people of faith. A respondent's connection to a faith community may be significant in the context of what has been suggested as the paradoxical nature of combining the concept of *servant* with the concept of *leader* (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Winston & Fields, 2015), as discussed in Chapter II. From an implicit leadership perspective, characteristics of servant leadership attitudes and behaviors may be more or less consistent with an individual's view of what constitutes an effective leader, based on their individual,

cultural, and so forth, experience. "For most people from the same culture, a common set of categories fits the image of what the typical leader is like" (Bass, 1990, p. 377).

Den Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, and Dorfman (1999) observed the North American character of the majority of leadership research and theory, which included assumptions emphasizing rationality over ascetics and religion, and motivation that is hedonistic versus altruistic, among others. Keller's (1999) study focused at a more individualistic level and found support for hypotheses suggesting that some idealized traits of leadership correlate with self-perceptions of personality traits and with perceived parental traits. It has been suggested that the effectiveness of servant leadership may be context dependent, specifically that positive correlations between servant leadership and effectiveness are more likely in faith-based organizations (Hale & Fields, 2007). This would be a reasonable assumption for the case of Christian faith communities, for example, given that the central figure, Jesus Christ, taught and modeled the concept of servant leadership.

> And Jesus called them to him and said to them, "You know that those who are considered rulers of the [unbelievers] lord it over them and their great ones exercise authority over them. But it shall not be so among you. But whoever would be great among you must be your servant, and whoever would be first among you must be [servant] of all. For even the Son of Man came not to be served but to serve and to give his life as a ransom for many." (Mark 10: 42-45 English Standard Version)

Since the focus of this study was the potential mediator(s) in the relationship between servant leadership and affective organizational commitment, a sample

population that is less likely to be negatively affected by the potential paradox of servant leadership, that is, less likely to exclude servant leadership qualities such as humility and motivation for service from an idealized leadership image, may serve as a *control* of this implicit leadership bias. Potentially in contrast to this concern, in the development and validation studies of their servant leadership measure, which was used in this study, Winston and Fields (2015) collected data from a diverse group of respondents from six different industries, including categories of for-profit, non-profit, religious, and government. Their results showed no significant differences in rating servant leader behaviors and leader effectiveness between groups.

Data Collection

A self-administered survey created in the web-based Survey Monkey tool was used for data collection. The link to the survey was sent via email to a mailing list from the previously referenced non-profit organization, along with introductory information, including that the survey was voluntary and anonymous. Those who were in follower roles were asked to complete the survey themselves. Application of a snowball strategy was used to increase the number of potential participants contacted. Those contacted initially were asked to forward the survey link to other coworkers and associates. In addition, those who were in leader roles were asked to forward the email to their staff members for completion.

Survey Instrument

Existing validated instruments were selected as the basis of the survey (see Appendix D). Winston and Fields (2015) have developed and validated a 10-item measure of what they asserted to be *essential behaviors* distinguishing *servant leadership*

from other leadership forms; in particular, transformational and transactional leadership. They started by identifying 116 distinct items from five different existing servant leadership "operationalizations". Then, at a servant leadership conference, 23 researchers in attendance rated each item on a 4-point scale as to its contribution in describing servant leadership. Twenty-two items with the highest rating were retained. Factor analysis resulted in 10 items loading onto a single factor. For the personal power, trust, and affective organizational commitment constructs, the survey items also come from existing validated instruments (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989; Mayer & Gavin, 2005; Meyer & Allen, 2004; Raven et al., 1998).

For personal power, which includes the dimensions of referent power and expert power, items from two different instruments were included to capture two aspects of the referent power dimension: the potential influence from leader affirmation of followers and the potential influence from the follower's identification with the leader. In the typology from French and Raven (1959), referent power was originally conceived of as "a feeling of oneness . . . , or a desire for such an identity. If (the referent) is a person toward whom (one) is highly attracted, (he or she) will have a desire to become closely associated with (the referent)" (French & Raven, 1959, p. 161). The referent power items from Hinkin and Schriesheim (1989) focused on approval from a superior. The addition of the Raven et al. (1998) selected items include the identification dimension.

In their survey instrument for trust, Mayer and Gavin (2005) found that exploratory factor analysis resulted in separate groups of five items loading on two different factors: one factor reflecting a willingness for more *general risk* taking with the trustee versus the other factor with behaviors that reflected a willingness to take more

specified risks (such as, admit mistakes or share opinions). Use of the general risk 5-item scale showed only a minor reduction in coefficient alpha to 0.81.

Common method bias is a risk given that each survey participant is providing responses to the items for each of the independent, mediating, and dependent variables in the theoretical model at a single point in time (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). The survey was structured to provide reduction of method bias by

- adding some physical separation. The dependent construct items as a group were placed before the other construct items, and some of the demographic questions were located at the beginning and some part way through the construct questions.

- balancing positive and negative responses. Some questions were modified to make them reverse scored in those instruments without any reverse scored questions.

- reducing ambiguity. Some questions were adapted to make them more relevant to the likely context of the participant.

- reducing social desirability bias. Introductory statements were included, reinforcing that the survey is anonymous and that there were no right or wrong responses. (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff et al., 2012)

In addition, items from an unrelated construct (in this case, attitudes related to online shopping) were included for comparison.

The possibility of servant leadership's context dependency was previously mentioned, as well as the likely faith-based orientation of the sample population. Given

these factors, five intrinsic religiosity items were included in the survey as a demographic

construct variable *religiosity*, adapted from nine intrinsic religiosity items in the I/E-R

scale from Gorsuch and McPherson (1989), with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.83.

Methodology

Descriptive statistics (including mean, median, mode, and frequency as

appropriate) were generated for the study variables. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

was conducted separately for each study construct to determine that factor loading of

items was sufficient, indicating the items represent their associated constructs.

Hierarchical multiple regression from IBM® SPSS® (SPSS) was included,

regressing dependent variables onto demographic variables as predictors, in order to

identify demographic variables with significant relationships to study constructs in the

dependent variable position. All demographic variables were generally controlled for in

the regression models. Study constructs in the predictor position were introduced in the

regressions, along with control variables. The regression outcome equations were used to

evaluate mediation according to Baron and Kenny (1986), considering the mediators

separately. Figure 2 shows the proposed statistical model reflecting the regression

coefficients.

Fig. 2 Statistical Model
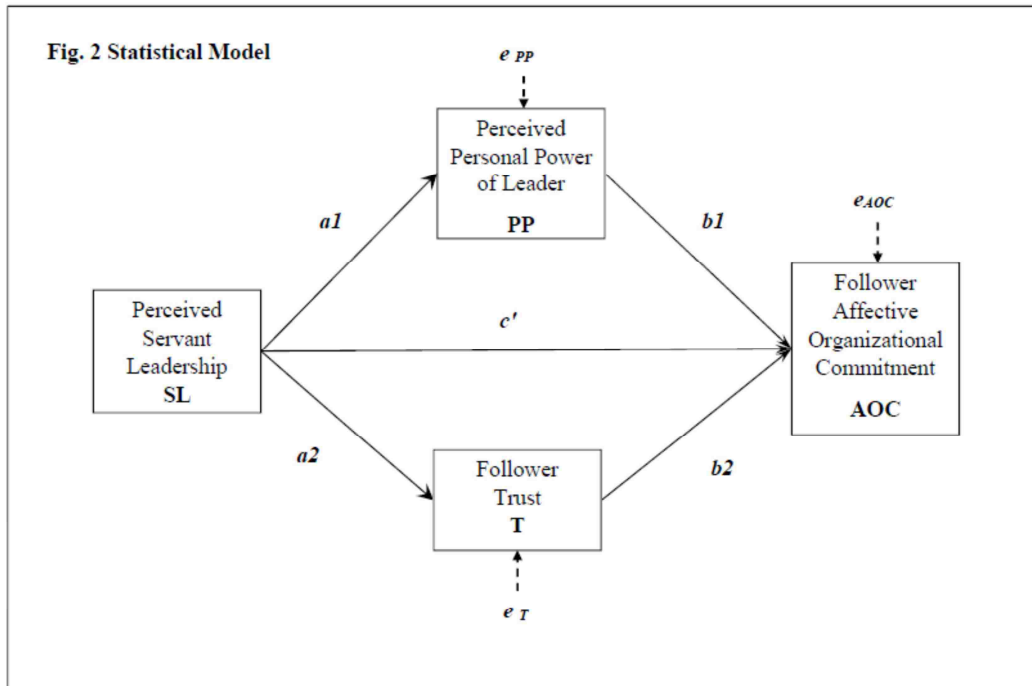
Figure 2. Statistical model.

The regression equations are

$$AOC = i_{AOC1} + cSL + e_{AOC}. \tag{1}$$

$$PP = i_{PP} + a_1SL + e_{PP}. \tag{2}$$

$$AOC = i_{AOC2} + c'SL + b1PP + e_{AOC}. \tag{3}$$

$$T = i_T + a_2SL + e_T. \tag{4}$$

$$AOC = i_{AOC3} + c'SL + b2T + e_{AOC}. \tag{5}$$

$$AOC = i_{AOC4} + c'SL + b_1PP + b_2T + e_{AOC}. \tag{6}$$

where

- c shows the change in affective organizational commitment (AOC) from one unit change in servant leadership (SL);

- a_1 shows the change in personal power (PP) resulting from one unit change in SL;

- a_2 shows the change in trust (T) resulting from one unit change in SL;

- b_1 shows the change in AOC from one unit change in PP, holding SL (or SL and T) constant;

- b_2 shows the change in AOC from one unit change in T, holding SL (or SL and PP) constant;

- c' shows the change in AOC from one unit change in SL, holding PP and/or T constant; and

- $i_{PP, T, AOC}$ are the constants, and $e_{PP, T, AOC}$ are the error terms for the relevant equations.

The specific indirect effect of SL through PP is a_1b_1, and the specific indirect effect of SL through T is a_2b_2. The direct effect of SL on AOC is c'. The total effect of SL on AOC is $c = c' + a_1b_1 + a_2b_2$.

Baron and Kenny (1986) specified initially determining the significance of the total effect of SL on AOC in the analysis for mediation. Mediation by PP and/or T in the relationship between SL and AOC exists with

- a significant effect of SL on PP combined with a significant effect of PP on AOC, and/or

- a significant effect of SL on T combined with a significant effect of T on AOC (Hayes, 2013).

In addition, the variables were analyzed using structural equation modeling (SEM) with SPSS Amos for confirmatory factor analysis of the manifest variables, to determine the extent of the indirect effects, and for robustness.

Reliability and Validity

Both EFA and CFA provide insight into construct validity, and CFA establishes the goodness of fit of the model. For EFA, Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2010) specify a minimum of 0.30 for factor loading (though 0.50 or greater is viewed as "practically significant" (p. 117)). For construct validity using CFA, standardized loading estimates should be at least 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010).

In development of the essential servant leadership behaviors, Winston and Fields (2015) found a Cronbach's alpha of 0.96 (see Table 1). Allen and Meyer (1990) scale development studies for affective organizational commitment resulted in an alpha coefficient of 0.87. Hinkin and Schriesheim (1989) scale development efforts for expert and referent power resulted in alpha coefficients of 0.83 or greater in three different sample studies. Raven et al. (1998) found a reliability of 0.73 for the referent power scale. Mayer and Gavin (2005) expanded a 4-item measure to 10 items, with improvement to alpha by 0.07 to 0.82 for the plant manager as the trustee.

Table 1

Scale Reliabilities

Survey instrument	Cronbach's alpha
Essential servant leadership behaviors (Winston & Fields, 2015)	0.96
Affective organizational commitment scale (Allen & Meyer, 1990)	0.87
Personal power components - referent and expert (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989)	0.83
Referent power components (personal power) (Raven et al., 1998)	0.73
Trust scale (Mayer & Gavin, 2005)	0.82

Summary

Chapter III describes the approach for testing the hypotheses developed in Chapter II. The research framework and design were summarized as a cross-sectional study of proposed mediators in the servant leadership-affective organizational commitment relationship. The sample population was characterized, including how participants may relate in a unique way to servant leadership. Data collection and the method for analysis were outlined, highlighting the approach for testing proposed multiple mediators in the study model. The elements of the survey instrument were discussed, including information on their development.

Chapter IV

Analysis and Presentation of Findings

Chapter Organization

Chapter III described the research design and methodology used in the study for the collection of data to test the proposed hypotheses. Chapter IV presents the summary and analysis of the data collected. The survey sample is described in terms of demographic characteristics of the respondents and the levels of the latent variables. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to establish validity and reliability of latent variables. Hypothesis 1 (H1 – total effect) was tested using regression analysis, while controlling for respondents' demographic characteristics. Following Baron and Kenny (1986), the mediation relationships for Hypotheses 2 and 3 (H2 & H3) were first evaluated separately using regression analysis. Significance and size of the mediating (indirect) effect for PP and T from H2 and H3 were also investigated using Hayes's (2013) methodology, incorporating the PROCESS macro for SPSS from www.afhayes.com, which involves bootstrapping. Finally, structural equation modeling (SEM) was applied for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), robustness, and estimation of the size of the indirect effect.

Descriptive Statistics

The survey participation requests resulted in 379 initiated responses, with 325 completed responses. From the completed responses, 254 were usable, which is 67% of the total responses and 78% of the completed responses. The unusable completed responses resulted primarily from individuals falling outside of the inclusion criteria and from responses with missing data. As previously noted, in addition to verification of the

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respondents' willingness to participate and that they were at least 18 years of age, the

respondents were asked to affirm that they reported primarily to one individual in a

leadership role, in the organization for which they worked.

The demographics were chosen to characterize aspects of the organizations, the

followers, and the leaders represented in the survey population, based on observations or

estimations of the follower respondents. For the organization, size, region, and category

type were identified. For the follower and the leader (as observed or estimated by the

follower), information on gender, age range, education, tenure, and work role was

collected. In addition, follower respondents were asked to identify their position

classification and respond to items representing a latent construct of religiosity.

As shown in Table 2, the survey response was composed of 157 (61.8%) males

and 97 (38.2%) females for the follower category. Survey responders indicated the leader

category was made up of 194 (76.4%) males and 60 (23.6%) females. The follower

category composition was higher for males than the Bureau of Labor Statistics' (2016)

survey of full-time United States workers, 16 years and over, at 57%.

Table 2

Frequency Distribution: Gender

Gender	Follower Frequency	%	Leader Frequency	%
Male	157	61.8	194	76.4
Female	97	38.2	60	23.6
Total	254	100.0	254	100.0

For Age Range (see Table 3), the largest group of follower respondents was in the 55–64 year old age range at 40.2%. This was the same age range constituting the largest group for leaders at 36.6%.

Table 3

Frequency Distribution: Age Range

Age Range	Follower Frequency	%	Leader Frequency	%
18–24 years old	13	5.1	3	1.2
25–34 years old	10	3.9	15	5.9
35–44 years old	32	12.6	44	17.3
45–54 years old	62	24.4	77	30.3
55–64 years old	102	40.2	93	36.6
65–74 years old	29	11.4	19	7.5
75 years or older	6	2.4	3	1.2
Total	254	100	254	100

The Education level (see Table 4) for those in follower roles shows almost 70% with a bachelor's degree or higher, with 33% having advanced degrees. As reported by the followers, those in leader roles reflect over 80% with a bachelor's degree or higher; 44% having advanced degrees. The largest individual group was made up of those with Bachelor's degrees both for followers at 35% and for leaders at 40.6%. The next largest groups were made up of those with Master's degrees both for followers at 25.6% and for leaders at 27.6%.

Table 4

Frequency Distribution: Education Level

Education	Follower Frequency	%	Leader Frequency	%
Some high school, no diploma	0	0	1	0.4
High school graduate	7	2.8	10	3.9
Some college credit	44	17.3	14	5.5
Vocational/technical training	13	5.1	9	3.5
Associate degree	18	7.1	6	2.4
Bachelor's degree	89	35	103	40.6
Master's degree	65	25.6	70	27.6
Professional degree	5	2	18	7.1
Doctorate degree	13	5.1	23	9.1
Total	254	100	254	100

As previously noted, the initial request for survey participation involved use of email addresses from a faith-based non-profit organization. The initial contact email also employed a snowball technique, requesting recipients to forward the email and survey link to subordinates, co-workers, and other associates in an effort to expand the sample population. It was nevertheless expected that the majority of responses would come from email contacts of the non-profit organization, although this could not be verified given the anonymous nature of the survey.

This non-profit organization providing the initial contact emails had conducted a survey of their constituency for website user experience information approximately six months prior to this survey. A total of 2,478 responses were received at that time for the non-profit organization's survey, from more than 30,000 email contacts and website

promotion. The demographics in similar categories were relatively consistent with those of the survey completed for this study. Mat Roni (2014) suggested a comparison of surveys taken separately from the same sample population can provide insight for evaluating the possibility of nonresponse bias. Similarities in comparable items between the organization's survey and the one for this study would seem to provide some evidence suggesting there was not an issue with nonresponse bias in the current survey sample.

From the non-profit organization's user experience survey, the respondents indicated 61.4% male (versus 61.8% in the current study survey): 21% were in the 45–54 age range, 35% were in the 55–64 age range, and 18% were in the 65–74 age range (vs. 24.4%, 40.2%, and 11.4%, respectively, for followers from the current survey). Combining the age range categories from 45–74 years old, the non-profit organization's user experience survey totaled 74% of the respondents, while the respondents for this study survey totaled 76.0% for followers and 74.4% for leaders in the combined categories. For the non-profit organization's survey, 54% had bachelor's degrees or higher (versus 67.7% for followers in the current survey). The differences in age and education categories would seem to be consistent with the current study survey's inclusion criteria of those working in organizations. For example, the organization's user experience survey could and likely would have included retired individuals, explaining the higher percentage of older individuals, and could also have included individuals not associated with an organization, such as many self-employed workers and home/family-care individuals for whom formal education is not a requirement.

For Organization Type (see Table 5), the largest group was represented by For-profit businesses at 45.3%. The next two highest frequency organizations were Other faith-based non-profit and Church or worship institution, with a combined total of 30.7% of organizations represented being some form of non-profit, faith-based organization.

Table 5

Frequency Distribution: Organization Type

Organization Type	Frequency	%
Church or worship institution	31	12.2
Other faith-based non-profit	47	18.5
Other non-profit–not faith-based	18	7.1
For-profit business	115	45.3
Government organization or government contractor	23	9.1
Educational institution	17	6.7
Other	3	1.2
Total	254	100

Almost half of the organizations represented in the survey had more than 100 employees (see Table 6), with the largest group having more than 300 employees at 31.5%. The next highest individual category was made up of small organizations with 5–15 employees, constituting 18.1% of the survey responses.

Table 6

Frequency Distribution: Organization Size

Total Number of Employees	Frequency	%
Less than 5	19	7.5
5–15	46	18.1
16–30	21	8.3
31–50	18	7.1
51–100	37	14.6
101–300	33	13
Greater than 300	80	31.5
Total	254	100

Over half the organizations represented in the survey responses were identified as

being located in the US – Southeast at 51.2%, for the largest category by far (see Table

7). The next highest category was the US – Midwest at 16.1%.

Table 7

Frequency Distribution: Organization Location

Organization Location	Frequency	%
US – Northeast	34	13.4
US – Southeast	130	51.2
US - Midwest	41	16.1
US – West	17	6.7
US – Southwest	20	7.9
Canada/Other country	12	4.7
Total	254	100

The most frequently occurring category for Tenure was 4–10 years both for followers at 30.3% and for leaders at 32.7% (see Table 8). The next most frequently occurring tenure category was More than 20 years for followers at 22%, and 11–20 years for leaders at 27.6%.

Table 8

Frequency Distribution: Tenure with Organization

Tenure	Follower Frequency	%	Leader Frequency	%
Less than 1 year	19	7.5	8	3.1
1–3 years	51	20.1	33	13
4–10 years	77	30.3	83	32.7
11–20 years	51	20.1	70	27.6
More than 20 years	56	22	60	23.6
Total	254	100	254	100

The largest category by far for follower Position Classification was full-time at 79.5% (see Table 9). The part-time category constituted 13.4% of the followers.

Table 9

Frequency Distribution: Follower Position Classification

Follower Position Status	Follower Frequency	%
Full-time	202	79.5
Part-time	34	13.4
Internship	6	2.4
Regular volunteer	12	4.7
Total	254	100

For the work role questions, efforts were made to incorporate *Other–please*

specify responses into a defined category by expanding a category's definition or, in some

cases, adding a category based on respondent entries. The individual responses were then

recoded to the new or modified category as appropriate. The most frequently occurring

category for follower work role (see Table 10) was Management at 24.8%. The next

highest was Educator, Counselor, Patient Care at 16.9%. As would be expected, for

Leader Work Role (see Table 11) the most frequently occurring category by far was

Management at 57.9%.

Table 10

Frequency Distribution: Follower Work Role

Work Role – Follower	Follower Frequency	%
Administrative support	30	11.8
Business or Financial Operations	30	11.8
Educator, Counselor, Patient Care	43	16.9
Building trades/facility maintenance	6	2.4
Management	63	24.8
Minister, Pastor or other Clergy	26	10.2
Engineering, computer, media, technology	29	11.4
Sales, customer service	11	4.3
Legal, accounting, financial	3	1.2
Other Medical	5	2
Other	8	3.1
Total	254	100

Table 11

Frequency Distribution: Leader Work Role

Work Role – Leader	Leader Frequency	%
Office Administration and Support	14	5.5
Business or Financial Operations	24	9.4
Education, Counseling, Patient Care	21	8.3
Management	147	57.9
Minister, Pastor or other Clergy	33	13
Engineering, Computer, Media, Technology	11	4.3
Other	4	1.6
Total	254	100

For Follower Religiosity, the scores from 5 items were averaged to represent the religiosity latent variable. The descriptive statistics are shown in Table 12. The Cronbach's alpha for this study of 0.831 matched Gorsuch and McPherson (1989) and compares favorably to the alpha of 0.88 determined by Sims and Bingham (2017).

Table 12

Demographic Descriptive Statistics: Follower Religiosity

Statistic	Religiosity - Intrinsic
Cronbach's alpha	0.831
Mean	6.205
Median	6.400
Mode	7.00
Standard Deviation	0.877
Range	4.80
Minimum	2.20
Maximum	7.00

Data Analysis

Data analysis was performed using SPSS. Descriptive statistics for each of the study constructs are presented in Table 13. Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the reliability for each construct scale, which was compared to the reliability of the construct in the literature reference from which the study construct was adapted. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients compare favorably to those from the literature sources as shown in Table 14.

Table 13

Study Variables: Descriptive Statistics

Statistic	Servant Leadership	Personal Power	Trust	Affective Organizational Commitment
Cronbach's alpha	0.954	0.947	0.919	0.895
Mean	5.168	5.350	5.308	4.928
Median	5.500	5.700	5.600	5.250
Mode	7.00	7.00	6.00	5.625
Standard Deviation	1.494	1.350	1.230	1.312
Range	6.00	6.00	5.300	5.750
Minimum	1.00	1.00	1.700	1.250
Maximum	7.00	7.00	7.00	7.00

Table 14

Scale Reliabilities

	Cronbach's alpha	
Survey Instrument	Literature	Survey Sample
Essential servant leadership behaviors (Winston & Fields, 2015)	0.96	0.954
Affective organizational commitment scale (Allen & Meyer, 1990)	0.87	0.895
Personal power components–referent and expert (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989)	0.83	0.947
Referent power components (personal power; Raven et al., 1998)	0.73	0.947
Trust scale (Mayer & Gavin, 2005)	0.82	0.919

For Servant Leadership, the Cronbach's alpha was determined to be 0.954, which was nearly equivalent to 0.96 found by Winston and Fields (2015). The Cronbach's alpha was 0.895 for the Affective Organizational Commitment study construct scale compared to 0.87 found by Allen and Meyer (1990). For the Trust scale, the Cronbach's alpha for the study variable of 0.919 was significantly higher than the 0.82 found by Mayer and Gavin (2005). The Personal Power scale's Cronbach's alpha was 0.947, which was also significantly higher than the Cronbach's alphas for the scales from which it was adapted: 0.83 for Hinkin and Schriesheim (1989) referent and expert power components, and 0.73 for referent power from Raven et al. (1998).

All of the construct variables showed positive intercorrelations (see Table 15), significant at $p < 0.01$. In addition, Table 15 shows the correlations between study variables and the demographic variables.

Table 15

Variable Correlations with Study Variables

	Correlations			
	SL	*PP*	*T*	*AOC*
Study Variables				
Servant Leadership (SL)				
Personal Power (PP)	.835**			
Trust (T)	.815**	.825**		
Affective Organizational Commitment (AOC)	.547**	.586**	.489**	
Demographic Variables				
Follower Gender	.139*	.133*	.185**	0.110
Follower Age	-0.044	-0.068	-0.034	0.114
Follower Education	0.059	0.061	-0.023	.145*
Follower Position	0.121	0.055	0.036	-0.024
Follower Role	-0.062	-0.040	-0.111	-0.004
Follower Tenure	-0.027	0.015	0.047	.190**
Follower Religiosity	.204**	.139*	.208**	.212**
Organization Type	-.134*	-0.057	-0.044	-0.066
Organization Location	0.056	0.044	0.039	0.017
Organization Size	-.169**	-0.109	-0.081	-.226**
Leader Gender	-0.022	0.005	0.043	-0.047
Leader Age	0.101	.131*	0.066	.194**
Leader Education	.232**	.169**	.124*	.152*
Leader Tenure	-0.011	0.119	.149*	.156*
Leader Role	0.022	-0.011	0.022	0.112

Note. Pearson Correlation. Bootstrap results based on 1000 bootstrap samples.
*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Construct Validity

Principal Component Analysis was performed on each group of items (manifest variables) associated with each of the study constructs (see Table 16). The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Construct/Composite Reliability (CR) were computed for each construct. For the Personal Power construct, factor analysis based on eigenvalues greater than 1 resulted in two factors associated with items for Expert Power and for Referent Power. Running the factor analysis specifying only one factor resulted in loadings greater than 0.7 for all items. Hair et al. (2010) specify that factor loadings of greater than 0.4 are minimally acceptable, greater than 0.5 are "practically significant," and greater than 0.7 are "indicative of well-defined structure" (p. 117). AVE of greater than 0.5 indicates acceptable convergence. CR of greater than 0.7 indicates "good reliability," and 0.6 to 0.7 could be adequate depending on acceptability of other construct validity indicators (Hair et al., 2010, p. 687). The Personal Power construct (combining Expert Power and Referent Power items) was used for hypothesis testing. The results for AVE and for CR indicate adequate convergent validity and internal reliability of the study constructs (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 16

Principal Component Analysis – Factor Loadings, AVE, and CR

Item	Loading	N	AVE	CR
Servant Leadership		10	0.709	0.961
SL01r	0.843			
SL02	0.832			
SL03	0.851			
SL04	0.867			
SL05	0.870			
SL06r	0.887			
SL07	0.855			
SL08r	0.833			
SL09	0.778			
SL10	0.797			
Personal Power		10	0.683	0.955
EP1	0.840			
EP2	0.726			
EP3r	0.793			
EP4	0.805			
RP1	0.872			
RP2r	0.783			
RP3	0.853			
RP4	0.863			
RP5	0.861			
RP6	0.855			
Trust		10	0.595	0.935
T01r	0.842			
T02	0.697			
T03r	0.612			
T04	0.812			
T05	0.854			
T06	0.759			
T07r	0.842			
T08	0.638			
T09	0.812			
T10	0.798			
Affective Organizational Commitment		8	0.587	0.918
AOC1	0.746	(removing item AOC6r)		
AOC2r	0.812	7	0.643	0.926
AOC3	0.765			
AOC4	0.854			
AOC5	0.715			
AOC6r	0.483			
AOC7r	0.836			

Item	Loading	N	AVE	CR
AOC8	0.850			
Follower Religiosity		5	0.616	0.888
REL1	0.877			
REL2	0.867			
REL3r	0.755			
REL4	0.703			
REL5r	0.705			

Note. r = reverse scored items. EP = expert power. RP = referent power. N = number of items. AVE = Average Variance Extracted. CR = Construct Reliability.

Further supporting construct validity, all factor loadings exceeded the minimally acceptable level of 0.4, all but one exceeded 0.5, and most exceeded 0.7. All of the SL and PP factor loadings exceeded 0.7, the level identified for structure that is *well-defined* (Hair et al., 2010). Using these criteria for AOC suggested removal of item AOC6r with a factor loading of 0.483. All regression analysis going forward in this paper uses 7 factors (minus AOC6r) for AOC. The factor loadings for T were close to or above 0.7, so all items were maintained. The demographic variable of Religiosity had factor loadings that all exceeded 0.7.

For the purposes of evaluating discriminant validity, CR, AVE, correlation, and the square of the correlation for and between study constructs are summarized in Table 17. Hair et al. (2010) indicated that the AVEs for two constructs should exceed the squared correlation between them. Discriminant validity exists between AOC and each of the other study constructs. Discriminant validity is a concern between SL and PP, and is perhaps minimally acceptable, with the average of their AVEs equaling their correlation squared. Discriminant validity appears to fall short between T and both SL and PP.

Table 17

CR, AVE, Correlations and Squared Correlations

Study Variables	CR	SL	PP	T	AOC[*]
SL	0.956	**0.709**	0.697	0.664	0.314
PP	0.955	0.835	**0.683**	0.681	0.346
T	0.935	0.815	0.825	**0.595**	0.248
AOC[*]	0.926	0.560	0.588	0.498	**0.643**

Note. Squared correlation shown above the diagonal. AVE shown on the diagonal. Correlation shown below the diagonal. All significant at $p < .01$.
*updated to exclude item 6.

Regression analysis was completed for hypothesis testing with the existing constructs, but discriminant validity was revisited in additional analysis using SEM.

Hypothesis Testing

Per Baron and Kenny (1986), testing for mediation requires regression equations for regression of the dependent variable on the independent variable or predictor (Equation A), mediator on the independent variable (Equation B), and dependent variable on both the mediator and independent variable (Equation C). Mediation is then established when the following outcomes result:

1. Equation A shows the independent variable affecting the dependent variable,

2. Equation B shows the independent variable affecting the mediator, and

3. Equation C shows the mediator affecting the dependent variable.

Given these three outcomes, the independent variable's effect on the dependent variable must be less in regression Equation C than in Equation A (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Hypothesis 1 (H1): Follower-perceived servant leadership (SL) has a positive relationship with the level of affective organizational commitment (AOC) expressed by followers.

Initially, linear regression of the dependent variable AOC on the independent variable SL was completed with IBM® SPSS® (SPSS), with no control variables, to determine the effect of SL as the independent variable on AOC as the dependent variable (Equation 7). The regression result reflects a significant positive effect of SL on AOC (with $p < .01$ for both constant and coefficient) indicating support for Hypothesis 1, and meeting Baron and Kenny's (1986) first criterion for mediation testing.

$$AOC = 2.464** + 0.520** \text{ SL.} \tag{7}$$

R Square = 0.314.

$t_{\text{constant}} = 9.46$ and $t_{\text{SL coefficient}} = 10.74$.

The regression of AOC on SL was repeated (see Equation 8). The analysis controlled for demographic factors by including all 15 variables as predictors with SL as the independent variable. The model was significant ($p < 0.01$) with R Square = 0.433. Only the coefficients for SL, organizational size (Org_size), and follower tenure (F_tenr) were significant ($p < 0.01$), resulting in the following equation:

$$AOC = -.015 + .479** \text{ SL} - .150** \text{ Org\_size} + .192** \text{ F\_tenr.} \tag{8}$$

$t_{\text{constant}} = -.019, \ p = .985$.

A hierarchical regression was run with only the 15 demographic variables as predictors and AOC as the dependent variable in Model 1. SL was then added as a predictor variable in the second model, indicating an additional 22.4% of the variance was explained with the addition of SL for a total of 43.3%.

R Square: Model 1 = 0.209   Model 2 = 0.433   (R Square change = 0.224)

Both Model 1 and 2 of the hierarchical regression were significant at $p < 0.01$. In Model 1, the demographic variable coefficients that were significant at $p < 0.01$ included

religiosity (Rel), Org_size, and F_tenr, with follower gender significant at $p < 0.05$. With the addition of SL in Model 2, the variables that were significant (all at $p < 0.01$) were SL, Org-size, and F_tenr, as in Equation 8. The constant was not significant.

Support for H1 is shown with the significant positive coefficients for SL in Equation 7 and 8. In addition, the first criterion for mediation testing was met (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Hypothesis 2 (H2): Follower-perceived personal power (PP) mediates the relationship between follower-perceived SL and the level of AOC expressed by followers, such that SL has a significant positive effect on PP, which in turn has a significant positive effect on AOC.

The linear regression analysis in SPSS was completed with all 15 demographic factors as control variables included. Equation 9 shows regression of the proposed mediator PP on the independent variable SL, and Equation 10 reflects regression of the dependent variable AOC on both PP and SL. The model reflected in Equation 9 was significant ($p < 0.01$) with R Square = 0.722. Only the coefficients for SL and leader tenure (L_tenr) were significant ($p < 0.01$), resulting in the following equation:

$$PP = .939 + .765^{**} \, SL + .154^{**} \, L\_tenr. \tag{9}$$

$t_{constant} = 1.738, \ p = .083.$

Equation 9 shows a significant positive effect of the independent variable SL on the proposed mediator PP, meeting the second of the criterion for mediation per Baron and Kenny (1986). The model shown as Equation 10 was significant ($p < 0.01$) with R Square = 0.472. Only the coefficients for PP, Org_size, and F_tenr were significant at $p <$

0.01, and SL and Leader work role (L_role) were significant at $p < 0.05$, resulting in the following equation:

$$AOC = -.372 + .380^{**} PP + .188^* SL - .144^{**} Org\_size + .191^{**} F\_tenr + .099^* L\_role. \tag{10}$$

$t_{constant} = -.483$, $p = .630$.

Equation 10 shows a significant positive effect of the proposed mediator PP on the dependent variable AOC, meeting the third of the criterion for mediation. In addition, the effect shown by the SL coefficient in Equation 10 at 0.188 is less than that of the SL coefficient in Equation 8 at 0.479, along with the significance level of the SL coefficient being only $p < .05$ (not achieving the significance level of $p < .01$ as in Equation 8). This meets the fourth criterion for mediation, providing support for Hypothesis 2. The significance of the SL coefficient in Equation 10 suggests partial mediation by PP in the relationship between SL and AOC.

With the non-significant control variables removed (including only Org_size, F_tenr, and L_role as control variables), R Square = 0.436 and the resulting equation is

$$AOC = 1.449^{**} + .409^{**} PP + .185^* SL - .124^{**} Org\_size + .240^{**} F\_tenr + .075 L\_role. \tag{11}$$

$t_{L\_role} = 1.776$, $p = .077$.

In a hierarchical regression with all 15 demographic variables as predictors in Model 1, SL added as a predictor in Model 2, and PP as the dependent variable, R Square for Model 1 = 0.119 and for Model 2 = 0.722 (R Square change = 0.603). Models 1 and 2 were significant at $p < 0.01$. For Model 1, only the constant, religiosity (Rel), follower age (F_age), and leader education (L_educ) were significant, all at $p < 0.05$.

Hypothesis 3 (H3): The degree of trust (T) expressed by the follower for the leader mediates the relationship between follower-perceived SL and the level of AOC expressed by the follower, such that servant leadership has a significant positive effect on trust, which in turn has a significant positive effect on affective organizational commitment.

Equation 12 reflects regression of the proposed mediator T on the independent variable SL. The linear regression analysis was completed in SPSS with all 15 demographic control variables included. The model was significant at $p < 0.01$ with R Square = 0.723. Only coefficients for SL and L_tenr were significant at $p < 0.01$ and Rel at $p < 0.05$:

$$T = .791 + .678^{**} SL + .110^{*} Rel + .206^{**} L\_tenr. \tag{12}$$

$$t_{constant} = 1.612, \quad p = 0.108.$$

Significance of the independent variable's (SL) effect on the mediator T meets the second of the criteria for mediation per Baron and Kenny (1986).

Equation 13 reflects regression of the dependent variable AOC on T and SL as predictor variables. The linear regression analysis was completed in SPSS with all 15 demographic control variables included. The model shown as Equation 13 was significant at $p < 0.01$ with R Square = 0.434. Only SL, Org_size, and F_tenr were significant ($p < 0.01$); T was not significant. The following equation resulted:

$$AOC = -.066 + .065 T + .435^{**} SL - .150^{**} Org\_size + .191^{**} F\_tenr. \tag{13}$$

$$t_{constant} = -.083, \ p=.934; \ t_{T\ coefficient} = .619, \ p = 0.537.$$

The lack of significance of the coefficient for T in Equation 13 translates to a lack of support for Hypothesis 3.

Running regression of AOC on SL, PP, and T, with all 15 control variables, for the model equation (see Equation 6) resulted in an R Square = .475 (p < .001), with the significant variables being SL, PP, Org_size, F_tenr, and Leader role (L_role). The equation is

$$AOC = -.311 + 0.243* SL + 0.439*** PP - 0.147 T - .142**Org\_size +$$

$$.193**F\_tenr + .107*L\_role. \tag{14}$$

$$t_{Tcoef} = -1.307, \ p = 0.192 \text{ (not significant)}$$

SPSS PROCESS macro analysis. For further confirmation of the mediation effects, the PROCESS macro from www.afhayes.com for SPSS was used with 5,000 bootstrap samples. Regression analysis was completed with AOC as the dependent variable, SL as the independent variable, and PP and T as mediators. Controlling for the demographic factors, all 15 demographic variables were included as predictors.

The model for the total effect includes only AOC as the dependent variable and SL as the independent variable. Matching the result shown in Equation 8, the significant coefficients were for SL, Org_size, and F_tenr, resulting in a regression equation for the total effect:

$$AOC = -.015 + .479*** SL - .150*** Org\_size + .192** F\_tenr \ (4.2). \tag{15}$$

$$t_{constant} = -.019, \ p = .985.$$

$$(*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001)$$

The model was significant at $p < .001$ and R Square = 0.434, fulfilling the first requirement for mediation and confirming support for H1.

The model of SL's effect on PP had an R Square = 0.722 and was significant at p < 0.001. This significant effect of the independent variable SL on the mediator PP

confirms the second criterion for mediation by PP. Matching Equation 9, the equation including the significant control variable was

$$PP = .939 + .765^{***} SL + .154^{**} L\_tenr. \tag{16}$$

$t_{constant} = 1.738, p = .084.$

The model of SL's effect on T had an R Square = 0.723 and was significant at $p < 0.001$, which confirms the second criterion for mediation by T. Matching Equation 12, the equation including the significant control variables was

$$T = .791 + .678^{***} SL + .206^{***} L\_tenr + .110^{*} Rel. \tag{17}$$

$t_{constant} = 1.612, p = .108.$

Matching Equation 14, the model of SL, PP and T's effect on AOC (see Equation 18) had an R Square = 0.476 ($p < 0.001$). The equation including the control variables with significant coefficients was

$$AOC = -.311 + .243^{*} SL + .439^{***}PP - .147 T - .142^{***} Org\_size +$$
$$.193^{**}F\_tenr + .107^{*} L\_role. \tag{18}$$

$t_{coefT} = -1.307, p = .192.$

The direct effect of SL (.243) on AOC in the combined equation (see Equation 18) is less than in the total effect equation (see Equation 15) with .479 SL, fulfilling the fourth requirement for mediation. The coefficient for SL in (see Equation 18) being significant at $p < .05$ indicates only partial mediation exists.

The mediator PP's effect on the dependent variable AOC in the combined equation (see Equation 18) meets the third of the criterion for mediation. Additional confirmation is provided from the bootstrap confidence interval not containing zero for

the indirect effect of PP. The indirect effect through PP is 0.336. Also, the Sobel test for mediation for PP is significant, with Z = 4.211 and p < .001, confirming support for H2.

The coefficient of T in (see Equation 18) is not significant, confirming the lack of mediation by T and therefore the lack of support for H3. Further confirmation is provided from the bootstrap confidence interval containing zero for the indirect effect of T. Also, the Sobel test for mediation for T fails to meet significance with Z = -1.304 and p = .192.

Structural equation modeling (SEM) using the IBM® SPSS® Amos 24. An SEM model was constructed for the mediation of the SL-AOC relationship by PP as a second order construct. With concerns over the discriminant validity of PP, factors were selected for removal from study constructs to improve construct validity and model fit. In addition to the complete list of survey questions included in the study variables, Appendix D indicates the items selected to remain in the constructs for SEM modeling. Calculated individually using principle component analysis in SPSS, all factor loadings were greater than 0.84, except for one factor in AOC at 0.782. As shown in Table 18, correlation, CR, and AVE were recalculated for the SEM constructs based on the included factors. Construct validity was preserved, including face validity, and discriminant validity was improved.

Table 18

SEM Model Constructs—AVE, Correlations, and Squared Correlations

SEM Constructs	CR	SL_4	PP rp5&ep3	AOC_5
SL_4	0.933	**0.778**	*0.543*	*0.318*
PP-rp5&ep3	0.947	0.737	**0.692**	*0.343*
AOC_5	0.924	0.564	0.586	**0.710**

Note. Constructs maintained the number of factors as shown for SEM. Squared correlation shown above the diagonal. **AVE shown on the diagonal.** Correlation shown below the diagonal—all significant at p < .01.

Figure 3 shows the model and the resulting standardized effects. Bootstrap sampling was performed using 5,000 samples. The key results of the SEM modeling are shown in Table 19.
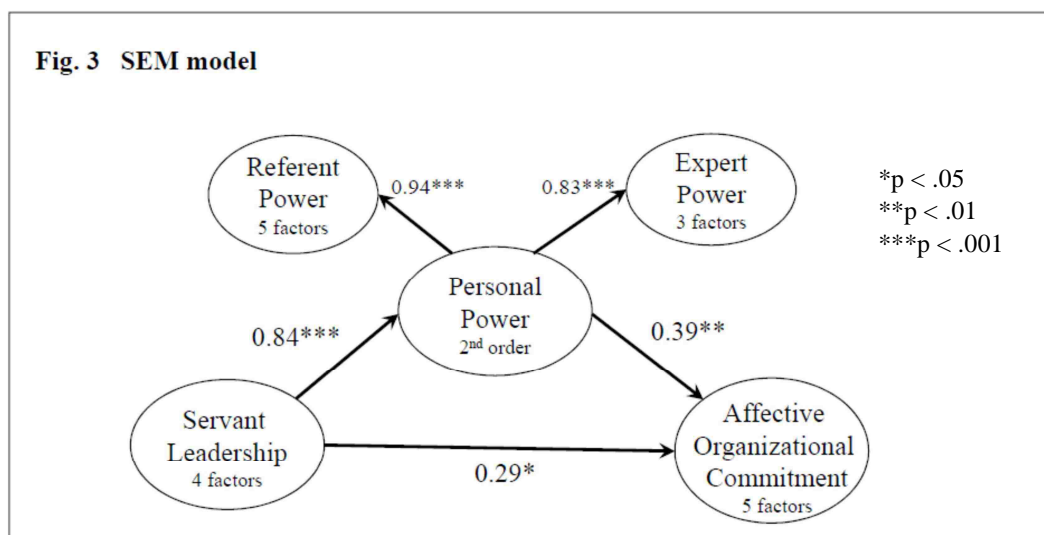
Figure 3. SEM model of PP(RP&EP) mediation of SL–AOC relationship.

Table 19

SEM Model Results for PP Mediation

Path	Standardized Effect	Significance
Direct Effect		
SL → PP	0.841	$p < .001$
SL → AOC	0.294	$p = .027$
PP → AOC	0.389	$p = .005$
Indirect Effect		
SL → PP → AOC	0.327	$p = .009$

Chi-square for the model was 279.5 with 112 degrees of freedom ($p < .001$). The effect of SL on PP is 0.841 ($p < .001$), and the effect of PP on AOC is 0.389 ($p < .05$), for a combined significant indirect effect of 0.327 ($p < .01$). This indicates PP, composed of referent power (RP) and expert power (EP), mediates the relationship between SL and

AOC, and provides additional support for H2. The direct effect of SL on AOC is 0.294 (p < .05), suggesting only partial mediation by PP. Guidelines for goodness of fit measures are indicated in parentheses from Hair et al. (2010) for the sample size and number of indicator variables.

CMIN/DF = 2.496 (max ratio 3)

CFI = .953 (min .92)

RMSEA = .077 (max .07)

A model of the total effect, including just the relationship between SL and AOC showed an effect of SL on AOC of 0.62, which was significant at p < .001. The goodness of fit results were CMIN/DF = 1.783, CFI = .987, RMSEA = .056. The SEM analysis supports the significance of the mediation by PP of the SL-AOC and adds further support for H2.

Summary

The analysis in Chapter IV began with descriptive results of the study variables and demographic variables, in addition to construct validity testing of the study constructs. Principle component analysis confirmed acceptable factor loadings for the manifest variables representing the latent variables. Cronbach's alphas were determined and compared favorably to the literature sources for the study instruments. Hypothesis testing using multiple regression showed support for H1 and H2, but not for H3. SEM was used for CFA of the latent variables in PP mediation, with elimination of some manifest variables. The SEM modeling provided confirmation of the mediation by PP of the SL-AOC relationship.

Chapter V

Summary and Conclusions

The previous chapter presented the analysis of the survey results, including the analysis as to whether the data provided support for the hypotheses. As discussed, Hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported by the data analysis, and Hypotheses 3 was not. Chapter V includes an overall summary of the study, additional discussion of the survey results, data analysis, and hypotheses testing, along with theoretical and managerial implications. The chapter also includes a discussion of study limitations and suggestions for future research.

Summary Review

This study began with recognition of the importance of leadership in achieving organizational goals and purposes. The servant leadership model was identified as being particularly appropriate to respond to the call for more ethically-focused, follower-sensitive leadership. In addition, a better understanding of the leadership process was expected to result from studying intervening variables between leader action and valued outcomes of the process of leading. Discussion included the paradox of associating the terms servant and leadership, and of associating servant leadership (SL) with power. Affective organizational commitment (AOC) was chosen as an outcome measure since it has commonly been used to reflect leadership effectiveness, and has also been shown to relate to other positive outcomes for the organization. Using social exchange theory as a theoretical foundation, along with empirical evidence from existing research, hypotheses were developed proposing personal power (PP) and trust (T) as potential mediators in the relationship between SL and AOC.

An online survey was developed using existing instruments from the literature representing the study variables. The survey link was distributed initially to constituents of a faith-based non-profit organization via email requesting their participation and also asking them to forward the survey link to associates in order to expand participation. The result of data collection efforts was 254 usable responses. The averages of related instrument items (manifest variables) were determined to represent the constructs (latent variables). Linear regression was performed using the resulting construct averages following the approach described by Baron and Kenny (1986) for evaluating mediation. Hypothesis 1 was supported, providing evidence of a positive relationship between SL and AOC. Hypothesis 2 was also supported, providing evidence of mediation of the SL-AOC relationship by PP. Hypothesis 3 proposing additional mediation of the SL-AOC relationship by T was not supported. Further ad hoc analysis suggested by the hypothesis testing provided evidence of a serial mediation by SL and PP in the relationship between T and AOC.

Discussion of Research Findings

As previously noted, to show support for H1 and H2 the approach specified in Baron and Kenny (1986) was used. Following their procedure, a series of regression equations showed (a) the independent variable's (SL) effect on the dependent variable (AOC) was significant in regression of AOC on SL; (b) the independent variable's effect on the mediator (PP) was significant in regression of PP on SL; (c) the effect of the mediator PP on the dependent variable was significant in regression of AOC on both PP and SL; and (d) the effect of SL on AOC was less for the regression in (c) than for the

regression in (a). SL's effect in (d) was significant, indicating a partial mediation of the SL-AOC relationship by PP.

The research on SL in general is limited (Avolio et al., 2009), so the significant positive relationship found between SL and AOC contributes additional insight to some limited existing research consistent with this outcome (Parris & Peachey, 2013). The SL-AOC relationship is also analogous to cited research, indicating a positive relationship between perceived organizational support (POS) and AOC (Kim et al., 2016), with the argument that the apparent similarities in the nature of POS and SL related to concern for employees' well-being could be expected to result in a similar relationship to AOC. For the control variables reflected in Equation 8 in Chapter IV, it seems logically consistent that organization size (Org_size) would be negatively related to AOC, given the greater opportunity for connection with organizational purposes and firm management in a smaller organization compared to a larger one. It would seem equally logical that tenure of the follower (F_tenr) would be positively related to AOC, with a longer association with a firm also providing greater opportunity for connection with senior management and organizational purposes.

As indicated in the review of the literature in Chapter II, no quantitative research was found in a search for empirical analysis of the relationship between SL and PP. The positive relationship found in this study was consistent with empirical study of other leadership models in relationship to PP, including with willingness to comply with *PP* (soft) bases mediating the relationship between transformational leadership (TfL) and AOC (Pierro et al., 2013).

For the testing of Hypothesis 3, the relationship between SL and T was significant, as predicted, and consistent with Dannhauser and Boshoff (2006) and Sendjaya and Pekerti (2010). In the regression of AOC on both SL and T, the effect of SL on AOC was significant and lower than in the regression of AOC only on SL; however, the effect of T on AOC was not significant, failing to show support for H3. This outcome is inconsistent with a somewhat related outcome from Kashyap and Rangnekar (2016) in which they found SL to have an analogous negative relationship with turnover intention, and also found this relationship to be partially mediated by T. The lack of a significant relationship between T and AOC was inconsistent with Dirks and Ferrin (2002) and Nyhan (1999). For comparison, a regression of AOC on T was run separately, and the effect of T on AOC was significant. The regression equation (6) from Chapter III (AOC regression on SL, PP, and T) was run with the result that the coefficients for SL and PP were significant, but the coefficient for T was not.

Additional ad hoc analysis was completed to investigate the possible serial mediation roles for SL and for PP in the relationship between T and AOC (see Figure 4), based on indications in the hypothesis testing of alternative relationships among the constructs. Multiple regression with bootstrapping was completed using the serial mediation model from Hayes' PROCESS macro for SPSS. The regression controlled for all 15 demographic variables. In the model, combinations with AOC as the outcome, Org_size and F_tenr were significant at $p < .01$. The overall model was significant at $p < .001$ with an R Square of 0.476. The mediation effects were significant at $p < 0.001$, except for T–SL–AOC, which was significant at $p < 0.05$. The direct effect of T on AOC was not significant in the overall model, providing evidence of full mediation by SL and

PP in the relationship between T and AOC. Overall, this non-hypothesized result seems logical in that the likelihood of SL characteristics affecting the PP of the servant leader could depend on the degree to which the followers trust that the servant leader's commitment to serve is an authentic representation.
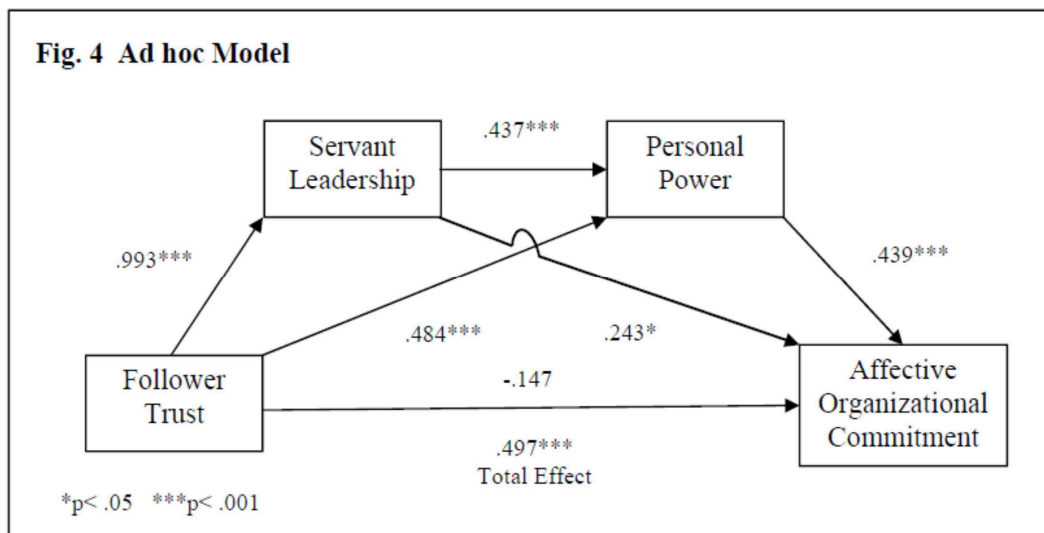
Figure 4. Ad hoc model. Servant leadership and personal power mediating the relationship between trust and affective organizational commitment (showing effects from regression analysis).

The T-SL relationship could be considered consistent with the research by Washington et al. (2006), which found follower perceived servant leadership to be positively related to antecedent values of competence, integrity, and empathy observed in leaders. These values closely align with the trustworthiness factors of ability, integrity, and benevolence (Mayer et al., 1995). In addition, trust is conceptually identified as affecting whether the expert power basis is perceived by the target of influence as being genuine or deceptive and self-serving, in the original French and Raven (1959) taxonomy for the social power bases, and also in the subdivision of negative expert power described by Raven (1992).

Theoretical Implications

Among the most significant contributions made by this research is what is believed to be the first quantitative, empirical evidence of a relationship between servant leadership (SL) and bases of social power; specifically the sub-category of personal power (PP), which includes the bases of expert and referent power. Greater significance can be attached to this result given that the SL construct used was developed with the specific intention of focusing on the core conceptual elements of SL and of minimizing overlap with other leadership models (Winston & Fields, 2015).

The results of this study also provide empirical evidence for the mediating role of PP in the relationship between SL and affective organizational commitment (AOC), and more broadly provide evidence identifying an important aspect of the mechanism between leadership and ultimate outcomes. This broader implication is analogous to results obtain by Pierro et al. (2013) showing that followers' willingness to comply with PP bases mediated the relationship between transformational leadership (TfL) and AOC. These results provide insight into a potential mechanism of the leadership process (that is, mediation by PP of a leadership-outcome relationship), which is specifically responsive to the call from Hiller et al. (2011) for greater attention to be paid to the intermediate variables in the relationship between leadership and outcome variables having organizational impact. Further, the implication of the SL–PP relationship could be interpreted as providing support for SL being appropriately classified in the leadership category, given the centrality of power and influence in various definitions of leadership (Yukl, 2006).

Other implications include that in general, the results contribute additional empirical knowledge to the limited research on SL, being specifically responsive to the call from VanMeter et al. (2016) for additional research focused on the core elements of SL. To this point, the results reflected significant correlations between SL and the other study variables, including PP, AOC, and T. Also, as a recently developed construct, the study contributes additional evidence of reliability and validity to the essential characteristics of SL construct from Winston and Fields (2015). The adaptations to some items of wording changes and reverse scoring provide insight and options that may be of value in future applications of the construct, addressing issues such as minimizing common method bias.

Managerial Implications

Wren (1995) argued that a better understanding of the leadership process results in leaders more effectively engaging in the process of leading, with a greater potential for positive outcomes. The results of this study provide insight into the role of the key leadership elements of PP bases in relationship to the important outcome of leadership efforts of AOC. The results also highlight the potential benefits of using the SL model, perhaps in combination with other leadership approaches, as suggested by and/or illustrated by various researchers (Liden et al., 2008; van Dierendonck et al., 2014; VanMeter et al., 2016). As previously suggested, including SL in a leadership approach can be specifically responsive to the demand for a higher-level ethical orientation and enhanced focus on employee well-being (Hunter et al., 2013; Reed et al., 2011). The results of this study indicate that these benefits can be obtained, while still providing important benefits to the organization through AOC.

An important factor of the SL model is at the level of motivation, specifically a desire or even a need to serve, combined with the inclination to serve by leading. This aspect may preclude the broad application of SL as something that one simply chooses to do. If the motivation to serve is not already an innate inclination for someone in or aspiring to a leadership role, it may require working with or for someone who is motivated to serve by leading to adopt or "catch" servant leadership from someone serving as a model, as Greenleaf (1977) implied as being an anticipated consequence. The implication of the ad hoc analysis indicating that trust could be an antecedent of SL suggests that less than authentic motivation to serve by leading could undermine the effectiveness of efforts to implement a servant leadership approach.

Given the paradox of associating the term servant with the term leader, and the suggestion of an analogous paradox of associating the concept of servant leader with social power, as discussed in Chapter II, it seems appropriate to summarize a possible rationale for the relationships on which this study focused. Servant leadership has been contrasted with other leadership models, especially transformational leadership (van Dierendonck et al., 2014; VanMeter et al., 2016) with the suggestion that the interest of, for example, the transformational leader is the organization over the follower or employee, in contrast to the servant leader whose priority interest is in the well-being of the follower over that of the organization. This comparison seems to suggest that the interest of one tends to be at the exclusion of the interest of the other. This rationale is offered to address the question of how SL, with its need to serve by leading and its priority for the well-being of others above that of the leader and the organization,

especially the well-being of the followers, could result in advancement of the interest of the firm, with an outcome of increased AOC by the followers.

Reiterating part of the commonly used quote from Greenleaf recalls the expected outcomes of the servant leader's efforts:

> The servant-leader . . . begins with the natural feeling that one wants . . . to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead . . . . The . . . servant first . . . make(s) sure that other people's highest priority needs are being served. The best test . . . is this: Do those served grow as persons? Do they, while being served, become . . . more likely themselves to become servants? And what is the effect on the least privileged in society; will they benefit, or, at least, not be further deprived? (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 27)

The idealized servant leader, in addition to a priority of service and priority for the well-being of followers, is typically characterized as having a higher degree of ethical orientation and commitment to integrity, which is a logical reflection of the interest of others over self-interest. Such a commitment to integrity would of necessity require that for a servant leader to continue association with an organization, he or she must believe that the organization and its purposes are, or at least have the potential of, advancing the well-being of its workers, as well as other stakeholders beyond the organizational boundaries, especially those that the organization intends to serve. The commitment to serve others could logically then align with the organization purposes that facilitate and multiply the serving of others.

Given the organizational context, it is reasonable to project that part of the needs and the well-being of the followers, "who are more likely themselves to become

servants" (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 27), is the need to contribute to a purpose beyond themselves, a purpose that serves others. The effective servant leader could then be seen by the followers as having a degree of expertise in how to be of service to others in their organizational role, as well as expertise in advancing the organization's purposes that are intended to serve others. It would also be reasonable to expect the servant leader committed to serve in cooperation with the organizational purposes to gain skill and/or knowledge relevant to organization operations, adding other dimensions of perceived expertise. The servant leader and his or her commitment to serving others, and commitment to the purposes of the organization that serve others, could logically also be considered a model or referent which followers could emulate, and with which they could identify, as they develop a greater commitment to service themselves and to the organizational purposes that effectively serve others. These perceptions of the expert and referent roles of the servant leader, the two bases of power associated with personal power, could provide the foundation for the influence of the servant leader on followers.

A desire to identify with the organization that seeks to serve others, and an increase in commitment to its purposes, could then result with the followers who, again, "are more likely themselves to become servants" (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 27). While beyond the considerations of this study, it also seems logical to project that an organization with purposes of serving others both inside and outside the organization would be in great demand for whatever it was offering, and profitability or financial sustainability would be a more likely by-product for the for-profit or non-profit firm having such a growing commitment to serve its stakeholders.

Limitations

The leadership aspects tested in this study were limited to items adapted from the instrument developed by Winston and Fields (2015), focused on what they described as the "essential servant leadership behaviors" (p. 424). As suggested by VanMeter et al. (2016), it is likely that the unique core elements of servant leadership ([a] a primary motivation to serve and to serve by leading, and [b] a pattern of prioritizing the interest of others above one's own) could work in conjunction with other elements of leadership that are common to other leadership models (Yukl, 2006), such as those represented in transformational leadership (TfL). SL core elements may have a role as a root construct, analogous to authentic leadership as described by Avolio et al. (2009); that is, a construct that "represents the base of good leadership regardless of form" (p. 424), contributing an effect on outcome variables, but itself is not a complete model. For example, as previously noted, Liden et al. (2008) found that SL explained additional variance in subordinate organizational commitment beyond that explained by TfL and leader-member exchange (LMX), when controlling for TfL and LMX in the same study. Research by van Dierendonck et al. (2014) provided evidence suggesting that SL and TfL both affected the same outcome variable of work engagement in a single model, but the effects were through different mediators.

The sample size in this study of 254 usable responses from what is likely a majority faith-based sample population may suggest limits on the scope of application of the study conclusions, especially in light of the observation from Hale and Fields (2007) of the potential context dependence of SL. The inclusion of a religiosity construct as a control in the analysis balances the limitation, in addition to indication that a study of

religion in the United States by the Pew Research Center (2014) found evidence that more than three-quarters of the U.S. adult population considered religion somewhat important (24%) or very important (53%). For the religiosity construct in the study, the sample mean was 6.2 and median was 6.4 on a 7-point Likert scale, which could be interpreted as suggesting the sample population was "more religious" than the average population. This would generally be a context in which SL is projected to be more effective or accepted, or in which an SL model is more likely to be considered characteristic of an effective leader from an implicit leadership theory perspective. It is interesting to note that while the follower religiosity variable showed a significant correlation with each of the study variables, it did not end up as a significant variable in any of the regressions that included the control variables.

Data collection for this study was cross-sectional, collecting survey responses only from those in the follower role at a single point in time, raising the possibility of common method bias. As described in the methodology section, attempts were made to minimize the bias through the design of the survey and adaptation of some of the instrument items.

In evaluating construct validity, there was indication of minimally acceptable discriminant validity between PP and SL, and apparently insufficient discriminant validity between T and both PP and SL. Additional SEM modeling was done, with removal of selected factors from SL, PP, and AOC constructs, which maintained or improved construct validity, including face validity and discriminant validity. PP was modeled as a second order construct reflecting RP and EP. This SEM resulted in a model with acceptable model fit characteristics. This SEM model confirmed the mediation of

the SL-AOC relationship by PP. Since T did not achieve significance as a mediator in regression analysis, similar SEM efforts were not pursued with T.

Future Research

As discussed in the Limitations section, it seems reasonable to propose that core elements of SL operate as an adjunct or root construct contributing positive effects in a complementary manner with other leadership model dimensions on desirable outcome variables. Given this possibility, additional insight in future research would likely come from adding SL to another leadership model or models to identify the relative contributions from the various construct dimensions.

As previously noted, a recent search identified no other quantitative empirical testing of the SL–PP relationship available in the ProQuest database literature. Evidence of the positive relationship seems especially significant given the common inclusion of influence (and by implication, the potential for influence; that is, social power [French & Raven, 1959]) in various definitions of leadership (Yukl, 2006). It is recommended that future research be completed to confirm this study's results of the relationship between SL and PP, along with PP as part of the mechanism operating between SL and AOC. Further, it is recommended that testing with PP in a mediating role include other complementary leadership model dimensions in addition to the core elements of SL.

The lack of discriminant validity observed in the study constructs based on the survey instruments obtained from the literature warrant further analysis in future applications for leadership study. The survey instruments combined for the PP construct have a relatively long history (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989; Raven et al., 1998) and for the SL construct is fairly recent (Winston & Fields, 2015), suggesting further

development of an instrument is warranted for measurement of essential servant leadership factors. On the other hand, the limited discriminant validity between SL and PP does reinforce one of the key study outcomes of the close association of SL and PP, affirming the general concept of servant leadership appropriately fitting in the leadership category.

The results from the ad hoc analysis suggesting the serial mediation by SL and PP of the relationship between T and AOC could add valuable insight into the leading process. It is recommended that further research be completed to investigate this result.

Conclusion

The results from this study, using social exchange theory as a theoretical foundation, have provided empirical evidence for the presence of the relationship between servant leadership (SL) and personal power (PP). The results have also provided evidence for a mechanism in the leading process of a mediating role for PP in the relationship between SL and affective organizational commitment (AOC). The AOC construct, as previously noted, has been shown to positively relate to other desirable outcomes for organizations.

Reiteration of another Greenleaf quote reinforces the service provided to followers by a function common to the process of leading:

> A mark of leaders . . . is that they are better than most at pointing the direction. . . . The leader always knows what [the goal or overarching purpose] is and can articulate it for any who are unsure. By clearly stating and restating the goal the leader gives certainty and purpose to others who may have difficulty in achieving it for themselves. (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 29)

This study has contributed additional insights to the limited research on SL, in general, and its relationship to important organizational variables. It also has contributed additional insights to the even more limited available research on mechanisms associated with a leadership—outcome relationship. The unique contributions of this study include identifying the relationship between SL and social power, specifically PP, along with identifying PP's mediating role in the leadership process.

A better understanding of the process of leading is expected to provide additional foundation for further academic study of an important area of the management field. And, for the practitioner, it is hoped that greater insight into the leadership process will result in improved implementation of leadership's vital role in the accomplishment of organizational purposes. Perhaps improved leadership could give more firms the opportunity to achieve a performance level Collins (2001) would have evaluated as advancing them from *good* to *great*.

Appendix A

Organization Permission for Survey

Inc. – Board of Trustees Resolution

Resolved that George Bingham shall be allowed to use the constituent mailing and/or emailing lists from _____ Inc., for the purpose of conducting academic research.

Approved by the Board of Trustees for _____ Inc., 05 November 2016.

Signed _____

_____ , Chairman

Appendix B

Recruiting Email

Recruiting email:

Would you help?

With the approval and support of the [Organization] Board of Trustees, George Bingham, has been pursuing a Doctor of Business Administration degree. He is in the final stage of completing his dissertation in the area of management studies and requires collection of data for use in testing his hypotheses.

That's where you come in. Would you consider taking about 10 minutes to complete an anonymous survey? (see link below)

The survey is intended for those (a) working in an organization and (b) reporting mainly to one individual manager, supervisor or other leadership position. [If you yourself are in a leadership role, it would be very much appreciated if you would forward this email to your staff members/ direct reports who might be willing to participate.]

No IP addresses, emails or other identifying information will be collected or associated with responses for individuals or their organization. The survey is of course voluntary and you can opt out at any time.

By clicking on this link, you will be taken to the online survey:

      [*SurveyMonkey link*]

It would be even more helpful if after completing the survey yourself, you would consider forwarding this email to other coworkers and associates who might also be willing to complete this relatively short survey.

The survey is designed to gather data on staff member attitudes concerning their employing organizations, work roles and relationships, leadership, and job assignments. It is hoped that the survey data and associated dissertation will provide insights that would result in improved organizational performance and increased job satisfaction among those in the workforce – for those in formal and informal leadership roles in all types of organizations; but especially church and ministry organizations. If you have any questions, you can contact George at his Nova Southeastern University (www.nova.edu) email address: @nova.edu . At the end of the process, the overall study results and conclusions will be made available to anyone interested in receiving them.

Thank you so much for helping out.

[*Organization Founder*]

Appendix C

Survey Introduction

Thank you for your participation in this voluntary, anonymous survey. Completion of the survey takes about 10 minutes.

You are being asked to complete a survey that will provide data for a dissertation for a Doctor of Business Administration degree from Nova Southeastern University (www.nova.edu). The survey is intended for those (a) working in an organization and (b) reporting mainly to one individual manager, supervisor or other leadership position. The survey questions relate primarily to attitudes about one's organization, work roles and relationships, leadership, technology use and job assignments. Participation is voluntary and anonymous, and you may opt out at any time. No identifying information of individuals or organizations will be associated with the survey responses.

There are no right or wrong responses. (* indicates a response is required to proceed)

* 1. I am willing to complete this voluntary, anonymous survey; and I am at least 18 years of age.

○ Yes

○ No

* 2. There is a primary individual to whom I report, in the organization/church where I'm employed, that I consider my direct manager, supervisor or other leadership role.

○ Yes

○ No

Appendix D

Survey Questions and Study Constructs Items

Responses
1–Disagree Strongly
2–Disagree
3–Disagree Slightly
4–Undecided
5–Agree Slightly
6–Agree
7–Agree Strongly   R – reverse scored.   * wording adapted

+ included in SEM model

"Essential servant leadership behaviors"   (Winston & Fields, 2015, p. 424)
1. My leader/manager/supervisor does not practice what he/she advocates for others. (modified to R)*
2. My leader/ manager/ supervisor serves people without bias.
3. **+ My leader/ manager/ supervisor sees serving as a mission of responsibility to others**
4. My manager/ leader/supervisor is genuinely interested in employees as people.
5. **+ My leader/ manager/ supervisor understands that serving others is most important**
6. My supervisor / manager/ leader is not willing to make sacrifices to help others. (modified to R)*
7. My supervisor / manager/ leader seeks to instill trust rather than fear or insecurity
8. My leader/ manager/ supervisor is often deceptive or dishonest (modified to R)*
9. **+ My leader/ manager/ supervisor is driven by a sense of higher calling.**
10. **+ My leader/ manager/ supervisor promotes values that transcend self-interest and material success.**

Affective Organizational Commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 6)
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career on staff with this organization.*
2. **+ I do not feel a strong sense of belonging as a staff member to my organization.* (R)**
3. **+ As a staff member, I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.***
4. **+ I feel "emotionally attached" as a staff member to this organization.* (modified to non-R)**
5. I really feel as if this particular organization's purposes and problems are my own.*
6. I think I could easily become as attached to another organizations as I am to this one. (R)
7. **+ I do not feel like "part of the family" with the staff at my organization.*(R)**
8. **+As a staff member, this organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.***

Personal Power (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989, p. 567)
(Expert Power)

1. **+ My leader/manager/supervisor can give useful, insightful suggestions about issues related to my work in the organization.***
2. **+ My leader/manager/supervisor has considerable experience and/or training that is relevant to the work of the organization.***
3. My supervisor/manager/leader is not knowledgeable enough to provide me with sound job-related advice. * (modified to R)
4. **+ My leader/manager/supervisor can provide me with needed knowledge about issues related to my work in the organization.***

(Referent Power - affirmation)

5. **+ My leader/manager/supervisor can make me feel valued.***
6. **+ I do not feel that my supervisor/manager/leader approves of me.* (modified to R)**
7. **+ My leader/manager/supervisor makes me feel personally accepted.**
8. **+ My manager/leader/supervisor can make me feel important.***

(Referent Power – identification) (Raven et al., 1998, p. 330)

9. **+ I see my leader/manager/supervisor as someone with whom I can identify.***
10. I look up to my leader/manager/supervisor and generally model my work accordingly.

Trust (Mayer & Gavin, 2005, pp. 887-888)

1. If I had my way, I would not let my supervisor/manager/leader have any influence over work related issues that are important to me.* (R)
2. I would be comfortable with my supervisor/manager/leader having complete control over my future as a staff member in this organization.*
3. I really wish I had a good way to keep an eye on my supervisor/manager/leader.* (R)
4. I would be comfortable giving my manager/leader/supervisor a task or problem which was critical to me as a staff member, even if I could not monitor his/her actions.*
5. I would feel safe telling my manager/leader/supervisor about mistakes I've made on the job, even if they could damage my reputation.
6. I would share my opinion about sensitive issues with my manager/leader/ supervisor, even if my opinion were unpopular.*
7. I am afraid of how my supervisor/manager/ leader might use his/her authority against me as a staff member.* (R)
8. If my leader/manager/supervisor asked why a problem happened at work, I would speak freely even if I were partly to blame.*
9. If someone questioned my manager/leader/supervisor's motives, I would give my manager/leader/ supervisor the benefit of the doubt.*
10. If my supervisor/manager/leader asked me for input or information, I could respond without thinking about whether it might be held against me.*

Demographic items

Religiosity (follower) – Intrinsic items (Gorsuch & McPherson, 1989, p. 353)

    1. My whole approach to life is based on my faith/religious beliefs.*

    2. It is important to me to spend time in private thought and prayer.

    3. Although I am a person of faith, I generally don't let it affect my daily life. (R)*

    4. I have often had a strong sense of God's presence.

    5. It doesn't much matter what I believe so long as I am good. (R)

- Follower gender, age range, education, position status, tenure, work role
- Leader gender, age range, education, tenure, work role
- Organization type, region location, staff size

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