

Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction:

The moderating roles of the leader's decision making process and organisational structure.

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A thesis submitted to Monash University in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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November, 2013

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost I would like to thank my supervisors Dr. Sen Sendjaya and Dr. Daniel Prajogo. Thank you to Sen who just kept giving throughout Honours and the PhD. It has been an absolute honour to learn from you over the past 6 years. I have really appreciated you exposing me to leadership research and in particular servant leadership. For this I will be forever grateful. Thank you to Daniel who taught me the ability to think outside the square and to look at problems from all angles. Your wisdom, insight and humour have been appreciated across the journey.

To Dr. Brian Cooper and Dr. Ross Donahue, you both introduced me into the world of research and helped me right until the end, thank you for the support throughout. Thank you to Liza for all of her assistance, knowledge and football talk. Yana, for your encouragement and your unwavering belief in what I can achieve and to Cynthia who was always a bundle of energy and joy.

To my PhD colleagues, the journey was made more enjoyable because you were there. Thank you to Ryan whom I bounced ideas off on a daily basis. Thank you for keeping me on track throughout undergrad, Honours and the PhD and making a great table tennis opponent. Thank you Toby for lunch every day, introducing me to the Academy and Florence, and being a first rate social constructionist. Robin, it was fantastic having another servant leadership scholar along the journey. It was great being able to develop our ideas together.

To Mesba, who helped me navigate through the first couple of years in the PhD. Andy, thank you for the competitive games of office cricket. Thank you Olga for being there for me throughout the journey. Thank you to Kendall for always clearing our minds of the PhD and focusing on the more important things in life. Thanks to Kirti who came in and gave all of us

a renewed excitement and energy for the PhD. Finally to Prue, showing me Prue York whilst at the Academy and Sarah who was always there to help me out on a daily basis.

Thank you to my family who have supported me from the very beginning. Thank you to Mum and Dad who looked over my work, allowed me to bounce ideas off them and always encouraged me to pursue my passion. Thank you to Jemima and Christian who have been forever supportive of my endeavours and always keep me grounded.

Finally, to my darling Alexandra. Without your love, support, care and confidence in me this PhD would not have been possible Thank you for letting me work late hours, taking time away from our holidays to submit articles, and helping me craft my arguments. Your support has meant the world to me.

STATEMENT OF AUTHORSHIP

This thesis contains no material published elsewhere or extract in whole or part from a thesis or report presented by me for another degree or diploma in any university or institution. Except where reference is made in the text, no other person's work has been used in the main text of this thesis. Select findings from this thesis have been presented at conferences and are currently in preparation for journal publication.

.....
Nathan Mark Eva

5 November, 2013

SELECTED PAPERS ARISING FROM THIS THESIS

Below is a list of the conference papers and publications arising during the PhD program.

These publications are based on the information gathered for the purposes of the thesis.

REFEREED CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS

Eva, N., Sendjaya, S. & Projogo, D. (2013). Servant leadership and job satisfaction: The moderating role of decision making style and organizational structure, *Paper presented at the 73rd Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management*, Orlando, FL., 9-13 August 2013.

Eva, N. (2012). The relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction, Paper presented at the *Global Servant-Leadership Research Roundtable*, Caulfield, VIC., 21-22 June, 2012.

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ABSTRACT

The continued erosion of employee job satisfaction at work has become the Achilles' heel of otherwise highly performing organisations. The Gallup organisation estimates the total cost of low job satisfaction in America alone at between US \$450 and \$550 billion annually, most of which is associated with absenteeism, turnover, and lower productivity. An anomaly to this trend, however, are organisations who adopt servant leadership behaviours as represented by some of the Fortune's 100 Best Companies to Work for in America which tend to foster higher levels of employee satisfaction. Corroborating prior studies on leadership and job satisfaction, the current study therefore focuses on the underlying process by which leadership affects job satisfaction. Since leadership does not operate in a vacuum but is constrained by the organisational environment it operates under, the effects of servant leadership are largely determined by the context in which it operates. This study specifically investigates the boundary conditions created by the leader's decision making process (involvement and dominance) and organisational structure (formalisation and centralisation) and their impacts on the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship.

Two independent studies were undertaken to test the hypotheses: A vignette experiment with 1,569 business and economics students from a leading Australian university and a cross-sectional survey among 336 middle managers of small to medium enterprises in Australia. Findings from the studies showed that leader involvement moderated the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship independently. Similarly, the interaction effect of formalisation and centralisation, leader involvement and formalisation and leader dominance and centralisation moderate the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship.

These findings point to the role of the leader's decision making process and organisational structure as boundary conditions for servant leadership to impact employee job satisfaction. The study suggests that when servant leadership behaviours are employed by a leader who is highly involved in the decision making process and operates under a formalised structure, its effects on job satisfaction are augmented. On the contrary, when the leader is dominant and operates under a centralised structure, the servant leadership effects are considerably minimized.

Addressing the recommendation to take into account the leadership context, the current study extends previous research on servant leadership and job satisfaction by explaining how organisational structure affects this relationship. In more practical terms, the study findings highlight the importance of selecting and developing organisational leaders who practice servant leadership behaviours and are highly involved in the decision making process to engender a high level of employee job satisfaction.

Chapter One: Introduction

CHAPTER ONE - INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents an overview of the thesis and establishes the context and rationale for the study. The background, purpose and limitations of the study are addressed. The chapter concludes with an outline of the thesis chapters.

1.1 Background of the Study

The continued erosion of employee job satisfaction at work has become the Achilles' heel of otherwise highly performing organisations. The Gallup organisation (2013) estimates the total cost of low job satisfaction in the United States alone at between US \$450 and \$550 billion annually, most of which is associated with absenteeism, turnover, and lower productivity. Recovering it to the pre-2008 Global Financial Crisis level poses an insurmountable challenge for many businesses (Mendes, 2011; Society for Human Resource Management, 2012). On the other side of the continuum, however, the annual survey of Fortune's 100 Best Companies to Work for in America, which over the years stands as a notable anomaly to the overwhelming majority of organisations, suggests that the pervasive adoption of values associated with servant leadership behaviours within their organisations tend to foster a high level of employee satisfaction (Hunter et al., 2013). Granted that such anecdotal evidence begs a more scientific scrutiny, nevertheless understanding servant leadership as a potential organisational lever that might trigger profound and lasting changes in employee job satisfaction cannot be overstated.

The current study examines the effects of servant leadership on job satisfaction. Since leadership does not operate in a virtual vacuum but is constrained by the organisational environment it operates under, the study specifically seeks to shed some light on the optimum organisational conditions for servant leadership to foster job satisfaction (Osborn, Hunt &

Jauch, 2002; Walter & Bruch, 2010). Drawing from the classical contingency theory and the theory of fit, this study focuses on the boundary conditions underlying the aforementioned relationship (Hanbury, Sapat & Washington, 2004; Shenhar, 2001). Previous studies in this area have shown that certain leadership approaches, operating under different organisational characteristics, are better predictors of job satisfaction (Hu, Yang & Islam, 2010; Walter & Bruch, 2010).

The relationship between leadership and job satisfaction has been continuously researched in different settings (Cerit, 2009; Hu et al., 2010; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010; Miers, 2004). Commonly defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state from the appraisal of one’s job or experiences” (Locke, 1976, p. 1297), job satisfaction reflects employees’ attitude, thoughts and feelings towards their job conditions (actual work, direct leader, fellow employees) and job results (job security, wage) (Cerit, 2009). Leadership has been associated with employee job satisfaction by way of psychological empowerment (Seibert, Wang & Courtright, 2011). If employees feel engaged and empowered within their workplace, they will be likely to produce higher levels of job satisfaction (Gardell, 1982; Williams, 1998). Increasing employee levels of psychological empowerment, and thus increasing employee job satisfaction, has been attributed to leaders who undertake a relational approach to his or her leadership style (Castaneda & Nahavandi, 1991; Hu et al., 2010; Madlock, 2008; Sparks & Schenk, 2001). In the same vein, leaders who display a concern for the well-being of their employees also produce higher levels of job satisfaction amongst their employees (Babakus, Yavas & Ashill, 2011; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010; Rhoades, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001). Hence relational leadership styles such as transformational, servant and authentic leadership are more likely than others to increase employees’ job satisfaction. Further, the relational approach to leadership has also been linked with the leader’s ability to adequately deal with

the ethical and financial pressures of an interdependent global business society (Reed, Vidaver-Cohen & Colwell, 2011).

The global financial crisis of 2008 highlighted the already mounting distrust of the public towards business leaders (George, 2008a, 2008b; Schwab, 2007). Leaders have tended to focus more on short-term benefits and quarterly profits rather than take into account the broader implications of their actions (George, 2008a). Ethical business dilemmas have continued to dominate headlines (Amlie, 2010; De Cremer, van Dick, Tenbrunsel, Pillutla & Murnighan, 2011; Plettinx, 2009), with consumers and analysts swiftly losing faith in the corporate sector (George, 2008a; Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson, 2008; Zogby, 2009). This crisis of confidence has been reflected in leadership research over the last decade, with many scholars calling for more moral and ethical leaders within organisations (George, 2003; Liden et al., 2008; Peterson, Galvin & Lange, 2012). In response to this growing unrest, relational-based leadership styles which incorporate ethical behaviours have started to emerge, such as servant leadership. However, servant leadership is only in its infancy, focusing on the dimensions and the organisational outcomes (Van Dierendonck, 2011). There is still a substantial gap in knowledge as to how the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction is affected by other elements within the organisation.

Servant leadership is defined as a holistic and altruistic approach to leadership that is characterised by the leader's central focus on the needs and aspirations of his or her followers (Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora, 2008). In organisational terms, the servant leader focuses on the individuals of the organisation, committing to their personal and professional growth above the financial gains of the organisation (Laub, 1999). As servant leaders focus on the personal and professional growth of the employee, they in turn encourage and fulfil the psychological needs of the employee (Mayer, Bardes & Piccolo, 2008). Drawing upon Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman's (1959) job satisfaction theory, if the leader is fulfilling the needs of

employees, job satisfaction will occur. Accordingly, servant leadership has been linked to job satisfaction (Cerit, 2009; Ding, Lu, Song & Lu, 2012; Mayer et al., 2008; Miers, 2004; West, Bocarnea & Maranon, 2009), along with other contributors of job satisfaction such as high levels of employee motivation (De Cremer, 2006; Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko & Roberts, 2009b), power sharing in the decision making process (Bocarnea & Dimitrova, 2010), and a strong ethical base (Graham, 1991, 1995; Neubert, Carlson, Kacmar, Roberts & Chonko, 2009; Sendjaya, 2005). Although there is an already established link between servant leadership and job satisfaction, past studies do not focus on the elements of the organisation. If servant leadership is to continue to be adopted by the world's best companies, there needs to be an understanding of the conditions under which servant leadership is most effective in increasing employees' job satisfaction.

In order for the true effects of servant leadership to be felt by employees within the organisation, and thus producing the highest levels of job satisfaction, the leadership style must achieve internal fit with the already existing organisational elements (Zatzick, Moliterno & Fang, 2012). Drawing from the theory of fit, an organisation's structure, policies, strategies and resources create interdependent and interacting sub-systems (Olson, Slater & Hult, 2005; Siggelkow, 2002). When these subsystems work together to reinforce each other, internal fit occurs. How well the organisation achieves a particular outcome, such as job satisfaction, is dependent on the level of fit between these subsystems (Pleshko & Heiens, 2012). In order to examine the fit, this study draws from the contingency paradigm (Shenhar, 2001) and explores complementarities between leadership style and the organisational elements that are shown to affect job satisfaction.

In the selection of organisational elements, this study has chosen to address elements that have been shown to increase job satisfaction through the theory of empowerment. Tymon's (1988) empowerment theory classifies empowerment into three distinct sections: leadership,

motivation, and structural. The leadership approach to empowerment is built on the works of Bennis and Nanus (1985), Block (1987) and Burke (1986) that leaders engage and empower their employees through the creation of a shared vision of the future, transforming the organisation and fostering employee growth. These themes are mirrored by servant leadership. As previously stated, the need to understand how servant leadership operates within the existing organisational elements is of great importance. Therefore servant leadership was used to represent the leadership approach to empowerment in this study.

The motivational approach empowers employees through their ability to impact and influence work outcomes (impact), their autonomy of work processes (self-determination), their feeling of competence (self-efficacy) and how they value the work they complete (meaning) (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Through the leader being involved in the decision making process, the leader is able to give employees the feeling that their work is meaningful and that their decisions affect the direction of the organisation, thus reflecting the themes of motivation (Black & Gregersen, 1997). Drawing from this idea, the motivational approach is represented by leader involvement and leader dominance in the decision making process.

The structural approach empowers employees through the granting of power through structural processes such as decentralisation and flexibility of work practices (Kanter, 1977; London, 1993; Menon, 2001). The structural approach is represented by the two structural variables of formalisation and centralisation.

Independently, each of these empowerment categories has been previously shown to increase the job satisfaction of employees, however they have not been mutually researched to understand their impact and interaction effects on employee job satisfaction (Jiang, Li-Yun & Law, 2011; Menon, 2001). When implemented together as an interdependent subsystem to

increase the empowerment felt by employees, the fit between these three elements should result in the highest levels of employee job satisfaction. In so doing, it will create an understanding of the organisations in which servant leadership is most effective in increasing employee job satisfaction.

1.2 Justification for the Study

Research into organisational characteristics using servant leadership theory is limited, as are empirical studies on job satisfaction and servant leadership within an Australian business setting. In this light, the current study has the following significance.

First, this study looks at the empowerment theory as a whole, incorporating leadership empowerment, motivational empowerment and structural empowerment to predict employee job satisfaction. These three areas of empowerment have all been shown to individually impact employee job satisfaction; however, commonly they are measured as standalone organisational constructs (Cheng, Lai & Wu, 2010; Hu et al., 2010; Katsikea, Theodosiou, Perdakis & Kehagias, 2011; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010; Madlock, 2008; West et al., 2009), ignoring the interaction between these variables. Since organisations are complex, these constructs interact on a daily basis, creating fit and misfit between the constructs (Olson et al., 2005). Therefore this research contributes to empowerment theory by combining the three forms of empowerment in one empirical model in order to understand how these elements interact to impact employee job satisfaction.

Second, more specifically this study contributes to the understanding of the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction by examining the moderating factors that may impact this relationship. Previous research on servant leadership and job satisfaction has relied too heavily on analysing the dyadic relationship between the variables (see Cerit, 2009;

Ding et al., 2012; Jenkins & Stewart, 2008; Mayer et al., 2008) without understanding the contextual factors that may impact this relationship (Hunter, Bedell-Avers & Mumford, 2007). These studies do not take into account the extraneous variables that the leader is operating within (Yukl, 2006), assuming that the situation is of no notable relevance in the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. Although there is theory to suggest that organisational characteristics do affect the outcomes of leadership styles (Shamir & Howell, 1999; Walter & Bruch, 2010), “there is a lack of empirical information on the moderating effect of the organizational context on leadership effectiveness” (Koene, Vogelaar & Soeters, 2002, p. 194). These assumptions have been called into question in the broader leadership literature with a number of studies starting to look at the context as a moderator of the leadership outcome relationship. For example, Walter and Bruch (2010) found that organisational structure impacted on the relationship between transformational leadership climate and organisational energy. Further, de Hoogh, den Hartog and Koopman (2004) found that the relationship between charismatic leadership and performance was moderated by environmental dynamism, illustrating the important role the context plays in examining leadership. Therefore this study continues this trend and seeks to understand the context of the leader-outcome relationship. Specifically, this study creates a context for the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship, exploring the impact of the leader’s decision making process and organisational structure on this relationship.

By understanding the context of this relationship, boundary conditions are established. In so doing we will be able to understand under which levels of the leader’s decision making process and organisational structure servant leadership is having the greatest impact on employee job satisfaction. By understanding these boundary conditions, a holistic view of the optimal organisational characteristics under which servant leadership behaviour can best maximise employee job satisfaction will be created. This in essence creates a template of how

an organisation can best operationalize its practices to reap the benefits of servant leadership previously discussed in this study.

Finally, there remain discrepancies in findings regarding the impact of formalisation over the leader-follower relationship. Previously formalisation has been used as a substitute for leadership (Shamir & Howell, 1999) and has been shown to reduce the interaction leaders have with their employees (Wright & Pandey, 2010). However, recent evidence has suggested that having some levels of formalisation can assist in strengthening the transformational leadership climate of an organisation (Walter & Bruch, 2010). Due to the similarities of servant leadership and transformational leadership (Stone, Russell & Patterson, 2004), understanding how formalisation, among other structural variables, can strengthen or weaken the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction is of the utmost importance.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

Drawing from the empowerment and strategic fit literature, the purpose of the study therefore is to examine the underlying process by which leadership affects employee job satisfaction. Specifically, this study investigates the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction as moderated by the leader's decision making process and organisational structure. In order to understand the fit between the elements, it is recommended to research the fit between the elements in a two-way interaction before combining them in a three-way integrated model (Kedia, Nordtvedt & Pérez, 2002). For the purposes of this study, the fit between servant leadership and the leader's decision making process (see *Chapter Five*) and servant leadership and organisational structure (see *Chapter Six*) are addressed separately before the combined model is tested (see *Chapter Seven*).

To that end, the study offers several theoretical and methodological contributions. First, the study sheds light on the underlying process by which servant leadership affects job satisfaction in an intensive leader-follower relationship. Second, the inclusion of leadership approaches, employee outcome and organisational structure in the model demonstrates the holistic perspective from which the leadership phenomenon is studied. Finally, the use of a multi-method design (e.g., a vignette experiment and a cross-sectional survey) represents a methodological rigor that allows greater confidence in the study findings (Rus, Van Knippenberg & Wisse, 2012) and answers calls from Hunter et al. (2013, p. 1) to implement a “more advanced research design” in researching servant leadership.

1.4 Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations within the current study that should be taken into account. As with any study, both designs employed had weaknesses in terms of causality, manipulation and generalisability. That is why a multi-study approach was undertaken so that the strengths of one research domain may compensate for the weaknesses of another (Rus et al., 2012).

Firstly, the data that was collected for the organisational survey was from a single-source. Single-source, self-report data was appropriate for this study as the outcome was job satisfaction, employees’ individual attitudinal belief (Spector, 2006). When collecting data on individual attitudinal beliefs, it is essential that self-report measures are used as this data is unobtainable from other sources (Hunter et al., 2007). Further, the single-source data collection strategy used in this study is consistent with recent studies on job satisfaction (e.g., Echchakoui & Naji, 2013; Lan & Okechuku, 2013; Prottas, 2013; Seyal & Afzaal, 2013).

However, it is acknowledged that there are reservations using single-source data due to issues of common method variance (Tharenou, Donohue & Cooper, 2007). Although no common

method variance was found using the marker variable technique (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012), and the results were replicated using a different methodology (the vignette experiments), which reduces concern of single-source data (Rosenthal & Rosnow, 2008), the study would be strengthened by using a multi-level data set or through longitudinal data. However, longitudinal data was unable to be realistically collected due to the tight timeframes of an Australian PhD.

Secondly, as the survey data was collected at one point in time, unambiguous causality cannot be inferred (Tse, Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2012). The theoretical arguments put forward in *Chapters Five through Seven*, do indicate that the directions of causality are more likely those presented rather than in reverse, however it is possible to develop alternative explanations for the relationships in the current study. Although the use of the vignette experiment does strengthen the causality claims, further evidence through longitudinal data is needed to bolster the research's claims of causality.

Thirdly, a common perceived limitation of the vignette design is the accurate replication of the complexities of the 'real-life' leader follower relationship into the simplicity of a vignette experiment. It could also be argued that vignette-portrayed leaders are not leaders in the traditional sense as there is no long term relationship or formal authority (Stam, van Knippenberg & Wisse, 2010). In order to compensate for this limitation, both a relationship and formal authority was built into the vignette design. It is acknowledged that the complexity of this relationship is not easily replicated, thus the importance of further testing of the hypotheses using a field survey.

Fourthly, when using more than one independent variable in an experimental design it is probable that each of the independent variables will influence each other (Myers & Wells, 1991). For the purposes of this research, this interaction was favourable as the leadership

process operates with competing interests, such as organisational structure. In order to test if these factors interacted they needed to be tested in a singular design (Garcia-Diaz & Philips, 1995). However, this does mean that the true effect of each of the singular moderators may have been diluted by the other moderators present in the design.

Fifthly, the use of a student sample in the vignette experiments does influence the generalisability of the study (Eckerd & Bendoly, 2011). The student population was preferred due to the homogeneity of the population and justification for this selection is given in section 3.2.4. The concerns of generalisability from the student population are somewhat elevated due to the replication of the research using an organisational sample (Stam et al., 2010).

Finally, this research focuses on servant leadership, where there are multiple different leadership perspectives that can have a positive influence on organisations (Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber, 2009b). To strengthen the implications of the results, other leadership styles such as ethical leadership (Brown & Mitchell, 2010) and authentic leadership (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing & Peterson, 2008) could have been tested during the survey to understand which leadership styles evoke the highest levels of employee job satisfaction under any given condition and to what extent servant leadership predicts job satisfaction above and beyond these other leadership styles. However, transformational leadership was controlled for in the organisational survey in accordance with past recommendations to understand the unique predictive power of servant leadership over alternate leadership designs (Avolio, 2007; Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman & Humphrey, 2011; Hunter et al., 2013; Hunter et al., 2007).

1.5 Definition of Key Terms

Servant Leadership is defined as a holistic and altruistic approach to leadership with a central focus on the needs and aspirations of those served by the leader (Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora, 2008).

Leader Involvement in the decision making process refers to the extent to which the leader is actively involved with employees in the strategic decisions made by the organisation (Black & Gregersen, 1997).

Leader Dominance in the decision making process refers to the extent to which the leader dominates the strategic decision making process, striving to have his or her views implemented (Parnell & Menefee, 1995).

Formalisation refers to the rules and regulations set out by the organisation. This includes what decisions employees should make when confronted with different circumstances (Wright & Pandey, 2010).

Centralisation refers to focusing the decision making on one central point in an organisation. A more centralised organisation will have decision making power originating from one or a few individuals (Dalton, Todor, Spendolini, Fielding & Porter, 1980).

Job Satisfaction is defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state from the appraisal of one’s job or experiences” (Locke, 1976, p. 1297).

1.6 Thesis Overview

This thesis consists of the following chapters:

Chapter One introduces the thesis with a discussion of the background, purpose and limitations of the study, the definition of key terms and an overview of the thesis.

Chapter Two gives an overview of leadership as a concept before focusing on servant leadership and juxtaposing it to transformational and authentic leadership. The leader's decision making process is then reviewed, examining the variables of involvement and dominance. Organisational structure is assessed in terms of formalisation and centralisation and job satisfaction are analysed as the dependent variable. The research directions of this thesis are then discussed.

Chapter Three outlines the methodological research design of the study, both in its description and justification. The research achieves triangulation by using two distinct forms of quantitative data, namely vignette experiments and organisational surveys. The methodology discusses the rationale for both data collection methods, the instrumentation, sample, data collection and analysis.

Chapter Four presents the descriptive analysis of the quantitative data obtained from the vignette experiments and the organisational survey. The demographics of the data, data preparation, construct validity and reliability and the validation of the composite scores are discussed.

Chapter Five addresses how the leader's decision making process interacts with the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship. It addresses three hypotheses that examine leader involvement and leader dominance in the decision making process as moderators in this relationship. The relevant literature, procedure, results and discussion are presented.

Chapter Six addresses how organisational structure interacts with the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship. It addresses three hypotheses that examine organisational formalisation and centralisation as moderators in this relationship. The relevant literature, procedure, results and discussion are presented.

Chapter Seven addresses how the leader's decision making process and organisational structure interact with the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship. It addresses two hypotheses that examine leader involvement and formalisation and leader dominance and centralisation as moderators in this relationship. The relevant literature, procedure, results and discussion are presented.

Chapter Eight brings the eight hypotheses together, discussing the extension of both theory and practice through this study. In particular, it focuses on furthering servant leadership theory based upon the variables discussed above. The chapter goes on to suggest further research and models in this area and provides a conclusion to the research.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

CHAPTER TWO – LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents findings of the literature review on leadership, job satisfaction, the leader's decision making process and organisational structure. The aim of the review is to analyse the findings, rationale, methodology, limitations and gaps of past research. This chapter acts as an overview of the variables in the study, with hypothesis development located within *Chapters Five, Six and Seven*. The literature review begins by broadly defining leadership before exploring and justifying servant leadership and demonstrating the advantages it has over opposing leadership styles. It then proceeds to discuss job satisfaction and the two organisational characteristics used in the study.

2.1 Leadership

The term leadership is generally defined as “an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes” (Rost, 1993, p. 124). What entails good leadership is debated thoroughly throughout the leadership literature (Avolio et al., 2009b). Often the definition of leadership will be manipulated by researchers based upon their own personal paradigms, incorporating the leadership style of most interest to them (Nirenberg, 2003; Yukl, 1989). These claims are justified through Stogdill's (1974) study, which critically examined 4,725 published leadership articles. The research led Stogdill (1974, p. vii) to conclude that “the endless accumulation of empirical data has not produced an integrated understanding of leadership”.

2.2.1 Leadership Approach

As leadership thought has developed, so too has the debate on the effectiveness and relevance of differing styles. These styles differ in nature and produce different outcomes for

organisations and individuals (Avolio et al., 2009b). In selecting servant leadership as the theoretical underpinning for this study, differing styles of leadership were assessed to justify the choice of servant leadership as servant leadership has to date received relatively less attention in the leadership literature (Hu & Liden, 2011). Van Dierendonck (2011) identified that seven leadership styles overlapped with servant leadership. After looking at each of the theories, Van Dierendonck (2011) found that none of these alternative theories cover all the elements of servant leadership. In particular, servant leadership focuses more on the leader-follower relationship and follower growth and is able to incorporate important areas such as ethics and spirituality, often ignored in other leadership theories (Sendjaya et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Furthermore, servant leadership distinguishes itself due to its employee-centred mentality, genuinely caring for their employees' wellbeing above the organisation's bottom line (Greenleaf, 1977; Stone et al., 2004; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Due to the importance of ethics, among other dimensions, as laid out in *Chapter One*, servant leadership was chosen. In justifying this choice, authentic leadership and transformational leadership are assessed in regards to servant leadership. The remaining leadership theories discussed are still too far in their infancy and do not have a substantial literature base to permit useful contrasts (Van Dierendonck, 2011).

2.2 Servant Leadership

2.2.1 Origins

The foundation and origin of servant leadership are well attributed to Robert Greenleaf's book *Servant Leadership*, which was first published in 1977. Greenleaf was inspired to develop the servant leadership concept after reading the Herman Hesse novel, *Journey to the East*. *Journey to the East* depicts the account of a fictional spiritual journey of a group of travellers and their servant, Leo. Throughout the journey, Leo performs menial tasks for the

travellers and keeps them going on their journey with his songs and spirit. While Leo is present, the journey is successful and problems are overcome. However, when Leo suddenly disappears, the group plummets into arguments and anxiety and eventually the journey is disbanded. Some years later, the narrator encounters Leo again, this time revealed as a leader of the Order which commissioned the journey. From this story, Greenleaf (1977) realised that it is through service that one is a great leader, not through their position. Therefore, he argued that a better approach to leadership was one where employees, customers and the community are put first and made the leaders' number one priority. Greenleaf (1977) stated that the development of a servant leader starts when one decides they want to serve. From here, there is a conscious choice to aspire to lead, yet still maintaining the values of serving. Leadership, according to Greenleaf (1977), must first and foremost involve serving others and putting their needs above one's own.

2.2.2 Conceptual and Theoretical Development

The conceptual development of servant leadership was driven by Spears throughout the 1990s (see Spears, 1995, 1996, 1998a, 1998b, 2004) and Russell, Stone, Patterson and their associates at the start of the new millennium (see Farling, Stone & Winston, 1999; Patterson, 2003; Russell, 2001; Russell & Stone, 2002; Stone et al., 2004). These conceptual models of servant leadership had commonalities in the dimensions of service to others and a clear vision for the future but differed on dimensions such as honesty, humility and commitment to growth (see Table 2.1). As each of these models was void of any empirical research to support its claims, the conceptual models were open to scrutiny and debate (Russell & Stone, 2002).

The theoretical development of servant leadership has moved swiftly since Laub's (1999) original multi-dimensional measure, with eight multidimensional measures now in existence.

Due to the infancy of the area, and the establishment of four new servant leadership measures in the past five years (see Liden et al., 2008; Reed et al., 2011; Sendjaya et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011), all of them providing strong confirmatory factor analysis, expert validation and internal consistency (see Table 2.2) and a strong theoretical base from the servant leadership literature (see Table 2.3), there is yet to be a decisive study which proves one measure superior to another. The justification for the measures used in this study is discussed in *Chapter Three*.

The research on servant leadership and employee outcomes has continued to grow over the past decade, with numerous cross-sectional studies published in peer-reviewed journals (Van Dierendonck, 2011). The majority of these studies focus on the positive employee outcomes associated with servant leadership due to the servant leader's employee-centred nature. The positive impact of servant leadership on organisational commitment has been shown across cultures with studies being conducted in the US (Jaramillo et al., 2009b; Hunter et al., 2013), the Philippines (West & Bocarnea, 2008) and South Africa (Dannhauser & Boshoff, 2007). Further, servant leadership has also shown to have a positive impact on team performance (de Waal & Sivro, 2012).

In relation to organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), Ehrhart's (2004) multilevel study on servant leadership and OCB found a relationship between a manager's rating of their department's OCB and employee ratings of the manager's level of servant leadership. Thus indicating that servant leadership is a potential antecedent to OCB. Servant leadership as an antecedent of OCB was further confirmed by Ng, Koh and Goh (2008) who showed that leaders who have a focus on service exhibited higher levels of helping OCB and Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko and Roberts (2008) who demonstrated servant leadership's association with helping behaviour and creativity.

The impact servant leadership has on positive job attitudes has spanned employee engagement (Kool & Van Dierendonck, 2012), employee empowerment (Earnhardt, 2008), needs satisfaction (Mayer et al., 2008), leader satisfaction (Sun & Wang, 2009) and job satisfaction (Jaramillo et al., 2009a). In particular, there has been a strong focus in the servant leadership literature on the dyadic relationship of servant leadership and employee job satisfaction (e.g. Cerit, 2009; Ding et al., 2012; Mehta & Pillay, 2011). This relationship will be further discussed in section 2.3.1.

2.2.3 Servant Leadership Dimensions

Based upon empirical research and the conceptual work on servant leadership (see Table 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3), the common dimensions of servant leadership will be discussed, namely service, fostering employee growth, morality, humility, accountability, trust, and vision. These dimensions are briefly discussed below.

Table 2.1
Conceptual models of servant leadership

Conceptualisation of Servant Leadership	Author(s)					
	Spears 1995	Fairling et al. 1999	Russell 2001	Russell and Stone 2002		Patterson 2003
				Functional	Accompanying	
Stewardship	Service	Service	Service	Service	Stewardship	Service
Foresight	Vision	Vision	Vision	Vision	Competence	Vision
Listening	Credibility	Credibility	Credibility	Honesty	Credibility	Humility
Empathy	Trust	Trust	Trust	Trust	Communication	Trust
Healing	Influence	Modelling	Modelling	Modelling	Visibility	Altruism
Conceptualisation		Pioneering	Pioneering	Pioneering	Influence	Love
Persuasion		Empowerment	Empowerment	Empowerment	Persuasion	Empowerment
Building community		Appreciation of others	Appreciation of others	Appreciation of others	Listening	
Awareness				Integrity	Encouragement	
Commitment to the growth of people					Teaching	
					Delegation	

Table 2.2
Measurement of servant leadership

	Author(s)							
	Laub (1999)	Page and Wong (2000)	Dennis & Bocarnea (2005)	Barbuto & Wheeler (2006)	Liden et al. (2008)	Sendjaya et al. (2008)	Van Dierendonck & Nuijten (2011)	Reed et al. (2011)
Sample								
Sample Populations	41	1	3	1	2	1	8	1
Participants	847	1,157	956	388	480	277	1,571	218
Methodology								
Literature Review	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Expert Validation	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Exploratory Factor Analysis	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓
Confirmatory Factor Analysis					✓	✓	✓	✓
Measure								
Number of Items	43	62	23	23	28	35	30	25
Number of Dimensions	6	5	5	5	7	6	8	5
Internal Consistency	.90 to .93	Not reported	.89 to .92	.82 to .92	.76 to .86	.72 to .93	.69 to .91	.74 to .98

Table 2.3
Dimensions of the servant leadership models

Author(s)							
Laub (1999)	Page and Wong (2000)	Dennis & Bocarnea (2005)	Barbuto & Wheeler (2006)	Liden et al. (2008)	Sendjaya et al. (2008)	Van Dierendonck & Nuijten (2011)	Reed et al. (2011)
Values People			Organisational Stewardship	Putting Subordinates First	Voluntary Subordination	Stewardship	Altruism
Builds Community			Altruistic Calling	Behaving Ethically	Responsible Morality		Building Community
Shares Leadership							
Displays Authenticity	Personality	Humility Love	Emotional Healing	Emotional Healing	Authentic Self Transcendental Spirituality	Humility Authenticity	Moral Integrity
		Trust				Standing Back Accountability Courage	
Provides Leadership	Relationship	Vision	Wisdom	Conceptual Skills	Covenantal Relationship	Forgiveness	Interpersonal Support
Develops People	Task	Empowerment	Persuasive Mapping	Empowering	Transforming Influence	Empowerment	Egalitarianism
	Process			Helping subordinates grow and succeed			

2.2.3.1 Service

The key element that every servant leadership scholar agrees upon is the servant leader's unwavering desire to serve others (Russell & Stone, 2002); for service is, and should always remain, the underpinning ingredient of all servant leaders above all else (De Pree, 1997; Dennis & Winston, 2003; Fairholm, 1997; Greenleaf, 1977; Kouzes & Posner, 1993; Russell & Stone, 2002). The notion of a leader serving his or her employees is not one exclusive to servant leadership. Many scholars believe that the sole motivation for leaders should be the desire to serve others (see Baggett, 1997; Block, 1993; Russell, 2001; Snyder, Dowd & Houghton, 1994). What differentiates servant leadership from these previous ideals is that the servant leader serves first, then leads (Greenleaf, 1977; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). Therefore it is not uncommon to see a servant leader not only serving his or her employees, but the wider community as well (Giampetro-Meyer, Brown, Browne & Kubasek, 1998; Liden et al., 2008; Wilson, 1998), since "servant leaders willingly take up opportunities to serve others whenever there is a legitimate need, regardless of the nature of the service, the person served, or the mood of the servant leader" (Sendjaya & Cooper, 2011, p. 417). This differs from "self-serving leaders who serve others only when it is convenient or personally advantageous for them to do so" (Sendjaya & Cooper, 2011, p. 417). It is through this that servant leaders are able to truly distinguish themselves from other leadership styles (Parolini, Patterson & Winston, 2009).

2.2.3.2 Fostering Employee Growth

One of the key questions asked to determine the impact of servant leadership is do those who are served grow (Bocarnea & Dimitrova, 2010)? Leaders act as an essential cog in this development, assisting employees in reaching their full potential (Liden, Wayne & Sparrowe, 2000). Russell and Stone (2002) argue that servant leaders work as agents of employees, not

just ensuring they continue to be employed but also being entrusted with employee wellbeing and development. Therefore the servant leader becomes the marshal of the employee's growth and guide of the employee's own personal leadership journey. In order to extract an employee's full capabilities, a servant leader builds the employee's self-confidence, provides adequate and appropriate feedback, resources and information, fosters trust and provides an authentic role model (Liden et al., 2008; Lord, Brown & Freiberg, 1999). The servant leader acting as a role model can have a profound effect on employees. It is argued that by undertaking servant leadership practices, a manager is able to build self-confidence within the employees and inspire them to become servant leaders themselves (Babakus et al., 2011; Graham, 1991; Liden et al., 2008). Liden et al. (2008) and Bardeh and Shaemi (2011) envisaged that this would create a corporate culture of servanthood, with employees actively seeking opportunities to serve others.

2.2.3.3 Morality

Morality is essential in good leadership (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999), however leadership in its practice and process is entirely amoral; it is the leader who decides if the transactions made are moral or immoral (Kouzes & Posner, 1993). With a higher level of moral thinking and an encouragement for employees to do the same, servant leaders are able to teach their employees to not only communicate their own ethical viewpoints and needs, but to enquire about others', so that they can then serve others' needs to the best of their ability (Graham, 1995). When dealing with employees, servant leaders always seek to attain the highest moral ideals to appeal to their employees. Therefore, "they are more likely to ensure that both the ends they seek and the means they employ can be morally legitimised, thoughtfully reasoned, and ethically justified" (Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010, p. 649). By focusing on moral actions and thoughts, a servant leader fosters the creation of a "positive organisational ethical climate" (Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010, p. 766).

2.2.3.4 Humility

Humility is the ability to see your talents and accomplishments in their proper light and the ability to reject self-glorification (Bocarnea & Dimitrova, 2010; Patterson, 2003; Sandage & Wiens, 2001). This rejection of public adulation should not be seen as a weakness or as being scared of the spotlight, but as a strength, because the servant leader has the ability to focus on others (Bocarnea & Dimitrova, 2010; Patterson, 2003), focus on the organisation as opposed to themselves (Collins, 2001, 2005), and, most importantly, show modesty (Van Dierendonck, 2011). Servant leaders must be able to admit that they can learn from others, even if those people are their employees (Van Dierendonck, 2011). By openly exposing this side of themselves to their employees, servant leaders show they are humble, they are able to be vulnerable and they can open up their weaknesses to others (Sendjaya et al., 2008).

2.2.3.5 Accountability

Accountability is not only being accountable to one's self but the ability to hold others to account for the performances as well (Conger, 1989). This is advantageous because employees are aware of the expectations that are put on them and it shows that the leader has confidence in them (Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). Furthermore, a key element of accountability in servant leadership is being openly accountable to the leader's employees. Servant leaders allow employees to openly question their decisions, and, without becoming defensive, explain their rationale (Sendjaya et al., 2008). Through humility and accountability, servant leaders are able to establish their position in relation to others through a transparent and open relationship (Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010). They develop their leadership as a by-product of knowing who they are (as opposed to their actions) (Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010). By understanding their selves, they are able to lead authentically (Autry, 2001; De Pree, 1989; Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010).

2.2.3.6 *Trust*

Trust resonates from the qualities of being responsible, accountable, reliable and answerable to employees (Abdulkadir, Jayum & Zaid, 2012). Employees must be able to fully rely on the leader in regards to his or her competence and morality (Houser & House, 2004). Without trust, a leader cannot create credibility for him- or herself amongst employees or be able to work in a collaborative environment (Kouzes & Posner, 1993). In order to create trust, servant leaders must have direct interaction with their employees (Russell & Stone, 2002). Without such direct interaction, there is no chance for a mutual bond and a deep conviction of trustworthiness to occur between the parties (Fairholm, 1994). Establishing a strong bond of trust is one of the most essential elements of servant leadership (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Fairholm, 1994, 1997; Greenleaf, 1977; Neuschel, 1998; Russell & Stone, 2002)

2.2.3.7 *Vision*

Graham (1991, p. 105) argues that the ideal leader is “visionary, practical and inspirational, i.e., one who knows where to go, how to get there, and can motivate others to make the trip”. Greenleaf (1977, pp. 21-22) saw vision in terms of conceptualisation and foresight, stating that the servant leader “needs to have a sense for the unknowable and be able to foresee the unforeseeable”. Unsurprisingly then, scholars have identified a strategic vision as one of the key elements of a servant leader (De Pree, 1997; Miller, 1995; Pepper, 2003). In order to create a shared vision for the organisation to follow, the servant leader must be in tune with employees’ values, beliefs and interests (Wilson, 1998). By talking to and understanding the point of view of employees, servant leaders are able to enact a shared vision and enable employees to buy into the vision (Kiechel, 1995; Whetstone, 2002). By providing trust and vision, a leader creates an environment in which employees believe they can achieve the shared vision without fear of rejection (Bocarnea & Dimitrova, 2010; Winston, 2002).

2.2.4 Links to Other Leadership Approaches

Inevitably, servant leadership does have overlap with other leadership styles because it is multi-dimensional in nature (Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). However, this is one of its major strengths, because it takes previously found important elements of leadership and combines them with elements that are critical for the 21st century. This next section analyses authentic leadership and transformational leadership and juxtaposes them with servant leadership.

2.2.4.1 Authentic Leadership

Scholars are yet to settle on a universal definition of authentic leadership. However, the concept has generally revolved around crucible events (Bennis, 2003; Bennis & Thomas, 2002), life experiences (George, Sims, McLean & Mayer, 2007; Shamir, Dayan-Horesh & Adler, 2005; Shamir & Eilam, 2005) or self-awareness (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans & May, 2004; Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May & Walumbwa, 2005; May, Chan, Hodges & Avolio, 2003; Walumbwa et al., 2008). There is a natural overlap in the constructs of servant leadership and authentic leadership. For example, authentic leadership behaviours, such as integrity and humility (Avolio et al., 2004; Shamir & Eilam, 2005), are prominent in many servant leadership designs (e.g. Patterson, 2003; Russell, 2001; Sendjaya et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). The main differentiation between the two leadership theories is their origins. Authentic leadership has its root in self-awareness (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2008) and life experiences (George et al., 2007), whereas servant leadership scholars assert that the root of a servant leader is in his or her values system (Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005; Greenleaf, 1977).

Authentic leaders are a desirable commodity, especially in the growing austerity of ethical business leaders (George, 2008a, 2008b; George et al., 2007). However, what we currently

see in corporate leadership is a mismatch of inner thoughts and outer actions. Although they might be, or state they are, of moral mind, their actions may not reflect their moral conscious due to external pressures (Van Dierendonck, 2011). Further, with the nature of authentic leadership being true to one's self (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Harter, 2002), there is a possibility that being true to one's self is in fact not acting in an ethical or moral manner but potentially displaying authoritarian or negative leadership (Avolio et al., 2004). This is in contrast to servant leadership, which has a sole focus on putting the needs of others first (Sendjaya et al., 2008). There are scholars who question if authenticity of leaders is a positive thing if the individual is inherently narcissistic or has questionable ethical standards (Sparrowe, 2005). Van Dierendonck (2011) argues that the essence of authentic leadership, namely authenticity, should be incorporated into servant leadership and not retained as a standalone theory.

2.2.4.2 Transformational Leadership

Since the publication of Burns' (1978) influential text *Leadership*, transformational leadership has readily become the most common leadership style taught within business schools (Bass, 1999). Bass (1985) defined transformational leadership through three components: supportive behaviour, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. There are two stark differences between transformational leadership and servant leadership. First is the leader's relations with his or her employees and the second is the morality component of the two leadership styles (Van Dierendonck, 2011).

In regards to a leader's relation with his or her employees, the difference lies in the primary concern of the leader (Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010; Van Dierendonck, 2011). The transformational leader has a focus on employees to the extent that it benefits the well-being of the organisation. Acts of empowerment and autonomy are used to achieve the greatest

organisational outcomes, fostering motivation in their employees through these acts to benefit the bottom line (Bass, 1999; George, 2000; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Through this, transformational leaders lead with the interests of the company at heart, not those of employees, so that they inevitably use employees as a means to an ends (e.g., higher organisational profit), not as an ends in themselves (Liden et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Conversely, servant leaders see employees as an ends in themselves, focusing their primary concern on the employees and helping them reach their potential (Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). Instead of focusing on the performance of the organisation, the servant leader focuses on the holistic development of their employees (Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko & Roberts, 2009a; Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010). By focusing on employees, servant leaders look to long-term stability of the organisation as opposed to the short-term, profit-driven motives of the transformational leader (Giampetro-Meyer et al., 1998).

The second point to be raised in the transformational servant leader debate pertains to the morality of the leader. The first conceptions of both transformational leadership (Burns', 1978) and servant leadership (Greenleaf's, 1977) bore strong similarities. The similarities arise in their descriptions of the effects both leadership styles have on employees. Greenleaf (1977) states that, by serving employees, employees will become more autonomous and have higher levels of morality. Similarly, Burns (1978) states that, by using transformational behaviours, employees are elevated to a higher level of motivation and morality. However, over time it is the financial rewards, not the transforming behaviours, which have been seen as the real gain from transformational leadership (Whetstone, 2002). Therefore the moralistic aims which were first discussed by Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) are often undermined by the financial and self-actualisation rewards of transformational leadership (Whetstone, 2002).

Graham (1991) argues that servant leadership is the next step from the transformational leadership debate. She states that there are two major improvements made on leadership by the servant model. First, due to moralistic elements in leadership, a servant leader takes into account the wide range of stakeholders affected by his or her decisions. This also includes the wider society in regards to social and moral issues (Liden et al., 2008). This is not just in the decisions they make but also in actively serving the wider community (Graham, 1991). Secondly, the leader focuses on employees' needs first, not the organisation (Graham, 1991). Therefore we see a more relational-based leadership style, as opposed to an outcome-focused style, adding a sense of social responsibility to transformational leadership (Graham, 1991; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Graham (1991) states that due to the servant leader's moral conscious and the ethically minded decisions they make, they are able to influence others to think and act in accordance with a higher moral code.

Recently, there have been calls from servant leadership scholars to understand what effect servant leadership has above and beyond that of other leadership styles (Derue et al., 2011; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Although there are numerous relational-based leadership styles currently in existence (i.e., servant, transformational, ethical, authentic, empowering), there is little empirical evidence that suggests leadership style *X* provides higher levels of outcome *Z* than leadership style *Y* (Peterson et al., 2012). Therefore, as transformational leadership is the most well-defined and researched leadership style in the leadership literature (Sun & Anderson, 2012), and has been shown to have a significant effect on employee job satisfaction (Judge, Woolf, Hurst & Livingston, 2008), it is controlled for in order to see the unique effect servant leadership has above and beyond transformational leadership in predicting employee job satisfaction.

2.3 Job Satisfaction

The underlying theoretical framework used in this thesis to increase job satisfaction originates from empowerment theory. Empowerment theory has been well established over the past two decades and has been a predictor of a variety of employee outcomes (Liden et al., 2000; Seibert, Silver & Randolph, 2004; Spreitzer, Kizilos & Nason, 1997). The concept of empowerment has generally been referred to as increasing motivation for work through delegating authority to employees (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Seibert et al., 2004; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). The delegation of authority has been seen from both the macro perspective, focusing on organisational structures, policies and practices (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990), and the micro perspective, which looks at empowerment as an intrinsic motivator (Liden & Arad, 1996). Regardless of the form, employee empowerment has constantly been shown to increase job satisfaction amongst employees (Liden et al., 2000; Seibert et al., 2004; Seibert et al., 2011).

The theory behind job satisfaction is consistently referred back to Locke's (1976) definition, that job satisfaction is an affective attachment to the job created by an evaluation of one's job experiences (e.g. Kooij, Jansen, Dikkers & De Lange, 2010; Seibert et al., 2011). Employees, through their own system of expectations, values and norms, will develop an internal rating, comparing job conditions and job results with their own preconceived perceptions of how they believe the job should be (Schneider & Snyder, 1975). When job conditions and job results match or exceed preconceived perceptions, job satisfaction occurs (Burney & Swanson, 2010; Davis, 1981; Gruneberg, 1979). A more contemporary definition is used by Brief (1998) and Whitman, Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2010), who state that job satisfaction is an internal state: a cognitive evaluation of the experienced job with a degree of favour or disfavour. Regardless of the definition, researching employee attitudes (such as job satisfaction) is important in the organisational behaviour field because attitudes affect the

way in which people process information, and shape and draw meaning from their perceptions of events (Katz, 1960; Whitman et al., 2010). Further, job satisfaction still provides “one of the most useful pieces of information an organisation can have about its employees” (Harrison, Newman & Roth, 2006, p. 320). Therefore the variable of job satisfaction is still a vital research topic within the organisational behavioural field (George & Jones, 2008; Whitman et al., 2010).

The study of job satisfaction has been an area of enduring research interest due to its positive links to job-related behaviours such as performance and turnover intentions (Broome, Knight, Edwards & Flynn, 2009; Hulin, 1992; Ricketta, 2008; Smith, 1992). The measure of job satisfaction takes into account numerous dimensions, such as work value and interest, rewards, and appraisals of supervisors and workplaces (Cook, Hepworth, Wall & Warr, 1981). This in turn creates strong links with other attitude-based measures such as organisational commitment and affective commitment (Broome et al., 2009; Cook et al., 1981; Harrison et al., 2006). The relationship between job satisfaction and job performance has been an ongoing debate throughout the literature (Cheng et al., 2010). Meta-analysis research by Ricketta (2008) argued that attitudes such as job satisfaction were more likely to predict performance than the other way around. Generally, it is agreed that the more satisfied an employee, the higher the levels of job performance (Cerit, 2009; Gruneberg, 1979; Madlock, 2008; Saari & Judge, 2004). Job satisfaction has also been linked with increases in productivity, innovation, speed, reduced absenteeism and turnover and fewer work compensation claims (Weisbord, 2004; Wellins, Byham & Dixon, 1994; Williams, 1998).

Job satisfaction can be caused by a number of factors. For example, employees show increased levels of job satisfaction when given increased decision making powers, they engage in varied and higher skilled jobs and they are assigned work that they perceive as meaningful (Gardell, 1982; Williams, 1998). Autonomy and shared decision making has been

a constant predictor of job satisfaction amongst employees. There is a central theme in the literature that employees who are able to influence the decisions of the organisation and are able to work autonomously will exhibit higher levels of job satisfaction than employees who are not given these working conditions (Williams, 1998). Furthermore, research suggests that ethical behaviours by the leader and the creation of an ethical climate have a positive effect on an employee's job satisfaction (Martin & Cullen, 2006; Neubert et al., 2009). This ethical climate is created by the leader having concern for others, being receptive to others' needs, and demonstrating honesty and ethical conduct (Brown & Treviño, 2006), which are characteristics displayed by a servant leader (Reed et al., 2011). Under this ethically-based leader, employees show higher levels of job satisfaction and higher commitment to the organisation (Cullen, Praveen Parboteeah & Victor, 2003; Neubert et al., 2009).

2.3.1 Leadership and Job Satisfaction

The link between leadership style and job satisfaction has been well-established (Hu et al., 2010). This has been attributed to leaders who have the ability to empower their employees, which in turn leads to higher levels of job satisfaction (Seibert et al., 2011). The leadership approach to empowerment states that employees are empowered through the creation of a shared vision (Block, 1987), encouraging them to take on new opportunities (Burke, 1986) and inviting them to participate in the transformation of the organisation (Yukl, 1989). Self-sacrificing leadership behaviours have also been shown to produce employees who are more willing to work together and exhibit high levels of positive emotions (De Cremer, 2006; Van Dierendonck, 2011). Further, employees who have self-sacrificing leaders rate them as more effective than they do leaders who do not exhibit these behaviours (Van Knippenberg & Van Knippenberg, 2005). This complements current research which shows that employees who feel that their leaders show concern for their well-being will display higher levels of job

satisfaction (Babakus et al., 2011; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010; Rhoades et al., 2001). These psychologically empowering behaviours are mirrored in the servant leadership literature, showing the positive links between servant leadership behaviours and employee job satisfaction (Greenleaf, 1977; Liden et al., 2008; Sendjaya et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011).

In relation to the servant leadership job satisfaction literature, the link to increasing job satisfaction draws upon the competencies and characteristics shown by the servant leader (e.g. Cerit, 2009; Ding et al., 2012; Mehta & Pillay, 2011). As behaviours shown by servant leaders such as open communication, empowerment and respect for employees have previously been linked to higher levels of job satisfaction (Ma & MacMillian, 1999), the presence of a servant leader in an organisation should in theory increase job satisfaction (Cerit, 2009). The empirical relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction has been explored in a number of studies (see Table 2.4). These studies have tended to focus on the direct relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction (e.g. Cerit, 2009; Ding et al., 2012; Mehta & Pillay, 2011), without looking at the specific context which may alter this relationship. Only Mayer et al. (2008) look at the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction with a mediating variable, organisational justice. Although the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship has been looked at in a number of cultures (Turkish, American, Chinese, Indian and Spanish), there is a gap in current understanding of the factors that may influence this relationship. To this end, this study seeks to bridge this gap and understand how different organisational characteristics impact the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. In so doing, it examines two organisational characteristics: the leader's decision making process and organisational structure.

Table 2.4
Summary of studies linking servant leadership and job satisfaction

Author	Sample and Context	Servant Leadership Measure	Other Measures	Result
Cerit (2009)	595 primary school teachers across 29 primary schools in Duzce, Turkey.	Laub (1999)	Job Satisfaction.	Servant leadership explained 52.3% of the teachers' job satisfaction. In particular, the dimension of authenticity was the greatest predictor.
Ding, Lu, Song and Lu (2012)	186 MBA students at a Chinese university.	Wang, Ling and Zhang (2009)	Job Satisfaction; and Employee Loyalty.	Servant leadership is significantly related to job satisfaction ($b = 0.79$) and job satisfaction partially mediates the relationship between servant leadership and employee loyalty.
Jaramillo et al. (2009a)	501 full-time salespeople.	Ehrhart (2004)	Job Satisfaction; Customer Orientation; Adaptive Selling; Customer-Directed Extra-Role Performance; Outcome Performance; Organisational Commitment; Job Stress; and Sales Experience.	Servant leadership is significantly related to job satisfaction ($b = 0.51$).
Jaramillo et al. (2009b)	501 full-time salespeople.	Ehrhart (2004)	Job Satisfaction; Person-Organisation Fit; Organisational Commitment; Turnover Intention; Felt Stress; Ethical Levels; and Sales Experience.	Servant leadership is significantly correlated to job satisfaction ($b = 0.52$).
Jenkins and Stewart (2008)	251 nurses across 17 departments working for a large multidivisional health care system.	Barbuto and Wheeler (2006)	Job Satisfaction; Role Inversion Behaviour; and Servant Leadership Orientation (The interaction between Servant Leadership and Role Inversion Behaviour).	High servant leadership orientation was associated with high employee job satisfaction and low servant leadership orientation was associated with low employee job satisfaction.
Mayer et al. (2008)	187 business undergraduates at a south-eastern American university.	Ehrhart (2004)	Job Satisfaction; Organisational Justice; and Needs Satisfaction.	Organisational justice and needs satisfaction partially mediated the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.
Mehta and Pillay (2011)	145 employees across numerous Indian organisations.	Laub (1999)	Job Satisfaction.	There is a significant positive relationship between employee perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction.
Saura, Contri, Taulet and Velazquez (2005)	72 Spanish employees of an undisclosed organisation.	Lytle, Horn and Mokwa's (1998) Service Orientation Scale.	Job Satisfaction; Customer Orientation; Service Orientation (Servant Leadership; Service Encounter Practices; and Human Resources Management Practices).	Servant leadership was found to significantly mediate the relationship between customer orientation and job satisfaction.

2.4 The Leader's Decision Making Process

The interest in leaders as the decision makers of the organisation has had a long history in management research (Barnard, 1938; Ivancevich, Szilagyi & Wallace, 1977; Simon, 1947; Taylor, 1965). Interest in this area has continued over time because decision making is “the fundamental activity for influencing performance” (Ivancevich et al., 1977, p. 382) and an important role played by leader (Mumford, Friedrich, Caughron & Byrne, 2007; Tichy & Bennis, 2007). Leaders are required to make numerous decisions in all areas of the organisation which greatly influence the structure of the workforce, the organisational strategy, the direction of the organisation and the change mechanisms implemented (Eberlin & Tatum, 2008; Westaby, Probst & Lee, 2010). How leaders make these decisions, i.e., their decision making process, is a major factor in determining performance, as well as having a profound motivational effect on their followers (Frohman, 2006; Russ, McNeilly & Comer, 1996). Therefore research on the leaders' decision making process is an important area of organisational behaviour research (Westaby et al., 2010).

The theory around the decision making process of the leader has been studied from multiple different perspectives, however there remains no universal, agreed-upon clarification of decision making processes (Eberlin & Tatum, 2005; Tatum, Eberlin, Kottraba & Bradberry, 2003). Eberlin and Tatum (2005; 2008) criticise the area, stating that current research is too heavily focused on examining the basic concepts of decisions (i.e., information processing), where more work needs to be done on the quantitative patterns or styles in line with the work of Driver and Streufert (1969) and Kedia et al. (2002). The current research develops the leader's decision making process literature based upon Driver and Streufert (1969) and Kedia et al. (2002).

The importance of the leader's decision making process stems from the performance of the organisations. Organisations that undertake higher quality decisions will eventuate higher performance (Black & Gregersen, 1997; Crane, 1976; Solansky, Duchon, Plowman & Martínez, 2008). As leaders play a vital part in how and what decisions are made (Westaby et al., 2010), it is imperative that their role in the decision making process is addressed. Specifically this thesis considers two different decision making processes, leader involvement and leader dominance (Mayer, Dale & Fox, 2011).

2.4.1 Leader Involvement

Leader involvement in the decision making process refers to the extent to which a leader is actively collaborating with employees in the strategic decisions made by the organisation (Mayer et al., 2011; Tatum et al., 2003). Leaders being actively involved in the decision making process is now commonplace in business, with up to 80% of all middle- to large-scale organisations using the leader in this capacity to gain a competitive advantage (Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Mayer et al., 2011). For small to medium enterprises, organisations whose leaders were more involved in the decision making process outperformed those organisations whose leaders did not undertake this style (O'Regan, Sims & Ghobadian, 2005). Leaders work as an integral part of the strategic decision making team, creating a shared understanding of the task at hand (Hackman & Wageman, 2004; Kozlowski, Gully, Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 1996).

Involvement by the leader in department strategic decisions is of the utmost importance for three distinct reasons. First, the leader is able to identify if one department is overlapping or pursuing goals that are best served by another department. Second, the leader is able to bring outside knowledge of the organisation to the decision making meeting. Third, as the leader may not be as close to the project as the other team members, the leader can look at the issue

with less myopic eyes. Therefore the leader may be able to detect alternatives that may not have arisen from the project team's meetings (Schwarber, 2005).

Leaders, especially those who undertake a relational-based leadership style, are now using employees as resources in the decision making process (Carmeli, Sheaffer & Halevi, 2009). The general argument of this position is that, by listening and understanding others' opinions on the strategic decisions of the organisation, the probability of quality decisions is increased (Black & Gregersen, 1997; Carmeli et al., 2009; Crane, 1976; Parnell & Menefee, 1995). By listening and understanding employees' opinions, the leader is able to draw on the different experiences and knowledge of a vast number of employees (Jeffery, Maes & Bratton-Jeffery, 2005). This calls upon differences in gender, age, education, upbringing and background and this enables the leader to make the best decision with all the information at his or her disposal (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010; Van Ginkel & Van Knippenberg, 2012; Zoghi & Mohr, 2011). Furthermore, using employees as a resource during the decision making process remains advantageous, even if there is no demographic spread. Different people process the same information differently, so that, even if employees do have the same knowledge and experiences, their cognitive processing schemes are unique, thereby creating a unique point of view on the same problem (Mohammed, Klimoski & Rentsch, 2000).

2.4.2 Leader Dominance

Leader dominance in the decision making process refers to the extent to which a leader dominates the strategic decision making process, striving to have his or her views implemented (Mayer et al., 2011; Tatum et al., 2003). A leader may want to dominate the decision making process due to expertise, the length of time to make the decision, personal responsibility or strong adherence to a personal moral code (Eisenhardt, 1989; Tatum et al., 2003; Tatum & Eberlin, 2007).

Although there are shifts away from the leader dominating the decision making process, in small to medium enterprises this is often not the case (Hang & Wang, 2012). Many such enterprises are based around an entrepreneurial vision of the leader which gave birth to the organisation. In this situation, leaders have a personal stake in the direction of the organisation because the organisation is “inextricably tied up with their life and identity” (Culkin & Smith, 2000, p. 149). Therefore the leader limits the autonomy given to employees in the decision making process in order to maintain control over the entrepreneurial vision (Gibcus, Vermeulen & Radulova, 2008). The leader may also dominate the decision making process in small to medium enterprises if the organisation is dependent on the leader’s capabilities (Hang & Wang, 2012). This may include technical knowledge, personal background or experience, where these are not possessed by other members of the organisation (Berry, 1998; Gibcus et al., 2008).

Allowing all employees to weigh in on each decision presents issues, because there is an opportunity for negative conflict to occur within the group due to diverse interests and differing backgrounds. Group decisions are often time-consuming since every member has a say and points are debated. Although this can lead to a desirable result, when it does not, it creates a situation where each group member can ‘pass the buck’ and blame the other members of the group or the leader, because the final responsibility lies solely with them. Finally, the member(s) of the group who are most vocal as opposed to most knowledgeable are often those who influence the group, thus swaying the leader to a particular decision (Crane, 1976). Because of these problems, Crane (1976, p. 17) has stated “that it is a good idea to consult with subordinates, but the ultimate responsibility for the decision must rest with the manager”.

2.5 Organisational Structure

Leadership scholars are increasingly acknowledging that the relationship between leadership style and employee outcomes is affected by contextual factors that influence this relationship (Walter & Bruch, 2010). Theoretical evidence is starting to emerge that suggests that how an organisation is structured may affect the impact different leadership styles have on employees (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). Previous research in this area has mainly been confined to organic and mechanistic structures and transformational leadership (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Pawar & Eastman, 1997; Walter & Bruch, 2010). There have been calls for further research to understand how organisational structure affects the relationship between leadership style and employee outcomes, in particular the structural variables of formalisation and centralisation (Walter & Bruch, 2010).

Formalisation and centralisation have been long recognised together as two forms of organisational control (Fry, 1989); however, they have not received equal empirical attention (Lambert, Paoline & Hogan, 2006b). Centralisation has been preferred in the literature in regards to employee attitudes and behaviours because its impact on employees has been clearer than that of formalisation (Lambert et al., 2006b). However, in most organisations centralisation and formalisation are implemented together (Auh & Menguc, 2007). As the implementation of one of these areas may affect the other, the impact of both formalisation and centralisation are in this study analysed together as well as separately (Kirca, Jayachandran & Bearden, 2005).

2.5.1 Formalisation

Formalisation, in general terms, refers to whether the required behaviours of the organisation are illustrated in writing (Price & Mueller, 1986). This may include job descriptions, authority relations, norms, sanctions, procedures, activities, communications or clarification

outlining the responsibilities and the key indicators of the position (Auh & Menguc, 2007; Jaworski & Kohli, 1993; Lambert et al., 2006b). These rules and regulations are often set out in an employee handbook or a standard operating procedures manual (Pandey & Scott, 2002). Formalised procedures lay a specific emphasis on following particular rules, documentation of planning activities and compliance with job descriptions (John & Martin, 1984). They thus create behavioural and process controls that regulate employee actions so that employees do not deviate from organisational goals (Auh & Menguc, 2007). There is a disagreement in the literature regarding the optimal levels of formalisation in an organisation. At one end of the continuum, it is argued that there needs to be some level of formalisation, because, without it, role ambiguity occurs. However, at the other end, too much formalisation can lead to job dissatisfaction, boredom and low output (Dalton et al., 1980).

The classical view argues that complex organisations must have a high level of formalised procedures (Lambert et al., 2006b). Formalisation is an essential part of organisational control because rules and procedures are made to ensure that employees are at their most productive and limit arbitrary procedures by employees and management (Marsden, Cook & Kalleberg, 1994). Having a clear set of rules and regulations creates fewer ambiguities around task and job design, eliminates double standards within the organisation and reduces multiple interpretations of similar tasks (Auh & Menguc, 2007). However, the behavioural school of thought argues that high levels of formalisation within an organisation are superfluous in a modern organisation (Lambert et al., 2006b). High levels of formalisation have been seen negatively in organisations because they breed conformity and stringent adherence to organisational rules and procedures, which has been shown to negatively impact on individual and team creativity and on employees (Auh & Menguc, 2007; Fredrickson, 1986). When formalised procedures are introduced into the organisation, it is natural for there to be resistance from employees. This may relate to the greater complexities of adhering to

specific guidelines or changing their existing work habits (Auh & Menguc, 2007). Therefore it is suggested that a curvilinear relationship exists between too little and too much formalisation, allowing employees greater job scope without high levels of ambiguity (Dalton et al., 1980).

2.5.2 Centralisation

Centralisation focuses decision making on one central point in an organisation (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001), or as defined by Jaworski and Kohli (1993, p. 56) the “inverse of the amount of delegation of decision-making authority throughout an organisation and the extent of participation by organisation members in decision-making”. Centralisation is seen as a multi-dimensional construct which is comprised of a locus of authority and power (Duncan, 1976; Hage & Aiken, 1967; Tobin, 2001). A more centralised organisation will have decision making power that originates from one or a few individuals, whereas a de-centralised organisation will offer work teams more autonomy (Dalton et al., 1980). The multi-dimensional nature of centralisation is generally represented by two differing ideas. First, centralisation can be represented by the degree of input employees have in creating a shared vision of the future for the organisation (Dewar, Whetten & Boje, 1980; Wright, Salyor, Gilman & Camp, 1997). This is often referred to in the literature as the level of input an employee can have in the decision making process (Lambert et al., 2006b). The second relates to the employee’s job and the degree of autonomy that employees have over their work processes. Low levels of employee input and autonomy are representative of a highly centralised organisation.

The classical school of thought argues that organisations should undertake highly centralised procedures, so that decision making is left to the leaders of the organisation with little to no input from front-line staff (Fry, 1989). Centralisation has often been seen as a positive in

organisations because it creates a streamlined approach, which can hasten the decision making process in markets that are stable and simplistic (Auh & Menguc, 2007; Ruekert, Walker Jr & Roering, 1985). Although centralisation can increase productivity within an organisation, the use of centralisation does create a strong hierarchical structure, where all power and the decision making authority rests with the leader at the top of the organisation (Menon & Varadarajan, 1992). This limits empowerment only to the upper echelon of the organisation, reducing the power of lower-tier employees (Auh & Menguc, 2007). This structure of centralised governance creates an organisational culture of monitoring and controlling the actions of employees (Larson & Callahan, 1990; Ouchi, 1979). This supports the behavioural school of thought arguments, which state that power should be disseminated throughout the organisation, leaving decisions that can be made by front-line staff to front-line staff, with minimal involvement from the leader (Fry, 1989).

2.6 Summary

This chapter reviewed the literature on servant leadership, drawing on previous conceptual and empirical evidence to discuss the common dimensions of servant leadership. Further, it juxtaposed servant leadership with other relational-based leadership styles in authentic leadership and transformational leadership, and thereby demonstrated the strengths of servant leadership over these opposing styles.

The dependent variable of job satisfaction was then discussed, both in its definition and in relation to servant leadership. The moderating variables of the leader's decision making process (leader involvement and leader dominance) and organisational structure (formalisation and centralisation) were then outlined. The next chapter details the methodology employed in conducting the present studies on the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Chapter Three: Methodology

CHAPTER THREE – METHODOLOGY

This chapter addresses the research design and methodologies employed in this study. It comprises the outline of the research design, the use of quantitative methods and a discussion of the procedures used. The chapter is ordered into five parts: (1) Design for the quantitative studies; (2) Design and implementation strategy of the vignette experiments; (3) Design and implementation strategy of the organisational survey; (4) Methodology for quantitative analysis; and (5) Ethical considerations.

3.1 Research Design

The research adopted a quantitative approach to examine the effects of the leader's decision making process and organisational structure on the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction. Quantitative research is used to empirically test hypotheses or theories by analysing the relationships between different variables (Creswell, 2009). Numerical data are the basis of quantitative studies, allowing the researcher to measure and analyse the results using statistical procedures (Ruane, 2005).

There were three different sources of evidence utilised in this study, a comprehensive literature review, a vignette experiment and an organisational survey. There have been reservations in behavioural science research, in areas such as leadership, about using only a single method, and therefore vignette experiments and organisational surveys were included in this study (Dial, 2006; Yukl, 1989). Furthermore, there have been increased calls for experimental designs in leadership research due to growing concerns about self-report limitations (Brutus & Duniewicz, 2012). Multiple sources of evidence were used to triangulate the findings.

The origins of triangulation are deeply seeded in multiple operationism, which states that by utilising more than one method of data collection, the reliability and validity of the research will be enhanced (Bryman, 1995). The original concept was founded on the basis that empirical research which utilises multiple imperfect measures will have higher validity than one that uses a singular imperfect method, as the strengths of one method help counteract the weaknesses of another (Campbell & Overman, 1988; Graziano & Raulin, 2010).

Denzin (1970) states that there are two forms of methodological triangulation that can be used to overcome problems with internal and external validity of research. Within-method triangulation is attained when a researcher employs the same method of data collection to measure the phenomena at different points of time. Preferred by Denzin (1978) is between-method triangulation, which is attained by utilising different methods to measure the same phenomena. This is preferred because the flaws of one method are counteracted by the strengths of another (Campbell & Overman, 1988).

The two sources of evidence used to achieve triangulation in this study, the vignette experiment and the organisational survey, are described below.

3.2 Vignette Experiment

3.2.1 Experiment Design

Experimental design, although prominent in psychological research, has only recently become common in leadership research (Rus, Van Knippenberg & Wisse, 2012; Schaubroeck & Shao, 2012; Stenmark & Mumford, 2011; Van Ginkel & Van Knippenberg, 2012; Van Quaquebeke, Van Knippenberg & Eckloff, 2011). The nature of experimental designs differs greatly, depending on the intentions of the researcher (Tharenou et al., 2007). The researcher can manipulate the study settings from non-contrived, where the participants are in their usual

environment where events occur normally, to highly contrived, where the researcher modifies events (usually in a laboratory) to understand the relationship between two or more variables without the interference of the outside world (Myers & Hansen, 2011; Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002). For the purpose of this study, the settings were contrived so that the variables (leadership style, the leader's decision making process and organisational structure) could be manipulated. There are two major types of experimental designs, true experiments and quasi-experiments (Shadish et al., 2002).

A true experimental design is centralised on manipulation and control, with randomised participants in either the manipulated or controlled group (Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). In order to be considered a true experimental design, the following characteristics must be present: the experimental condition (group) to which the manipulation or intervention is given; the control group where no manipulation or intervention occurs; a randomised allocation of participants to each group, so that all participants have an equal chance of ending up in each group; a controlled environment so that no other event can influence the results; and the dependent variable is measured in both the experimental and the control groups after the manipulation has occurred to assess if the manipulation caused a change in the experimental group (Tharenou et al., 2007).

Quasi-experimental designs are similar to true experiments as they allow the researcher to analyse the effects of manipulations or interventions (Myers & Hansen, 2011). The difference between quasi-experiments and true experiments is that quasi-experiments do not occur in completely controlled environments (Myers & Hansen, 2011; Shadish et al., 2002; Tharenou et al., 2007). Myers and Hansen (2011) argue that the lack of one or more essential elements of the experiment, such as the manipulation of antecedents or participant randomisation, differentiates a quasi-experiment from a true experiment. Tharenou et al. (2007) argue that in quasi-experiments the changes in behaviour are likely to be changed by other elements in

conjunction with the manipulation because the control is weaker than in a true experiment. Furthermore, they also state that quasi-experiments do not have a random allocation of participants, since people are allocated into groups for other reasons, such as the department they work for in their organisation. For these reasons the results from quasi-experiments do not carry the same degree of confidence as those drawn from true experiments (Shadish et al., 2002; Tharenou et al., 2007). Quasi-experiments are administered by researchers when true experiments are unable to be carried out, either for ethical or practical reasons (Tharenou et al., 2007) or when researchers want to run the experiment within organisations (Myers & Hansen, 2011; Shadish et al., 2002).

For the purposes of this research a true experimental design was undertaken. As is described in the procedure, the experiments were undertaken in a quiet classroom where no outside distractions could manipulate the results. Each participant was randomly assigned to one of the various experimental groups and each was required to complete a self-administered questionnaire to gauge their responses to the manipulation.

The between-subjects experimental design used by Van Knippenberg and colleagues was applied (see Rus, Van Knippenberg & Wisse, 2010; Rus et al., 2012; Stam et al., 2010; Van Ginkel & Van Knippenberg, 2012; Van Knippenberg & Van Knippenberg, 2005; Van Quaquebeke et al., 2011). Further, the between-subjects experimental design is also recommended by Myers and Hansen (2011) for hypotheses that include multiple independent variables. The between-subjects experimental design was chosen because the hypotheses called for each of the cells to be exposed to only one treatment. By using this design, causal estimates can be made by comparing the behaviours of participants in one group to the behaviours of participants in others (Charness, Gneezy & Kuhn, 2012). Charness et al. (2012) argue that between-subjects designs are preferable to within-subjects designs as long as the minimum statistical power can be achieved.

Myers and Hansen (2011) recommend that, with a sample of 30 participants per group, medium-effect sizes will be easily detectable. Christensen (2007) argued that the between-subjects design should only be used with a large sample because randomisation of the sample can be difficult with a small sample. Although not specifically nominating the desired sample size, Christensen (2007) recommended ensuring the power level was sufficient in regard to established power tests (i.e., Cohen, 1988, 1992). Therefore the statistical program G*Power was used to determine the required sample size (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner & Lang, 2009; Faul, Erdfelder, Lang & Buchner, 2007). As the between-subjects experimental design is being employed, the hypotheses call for statistical tests of analysis of variance; therefore it belongs to the F family of tests. As prior leadership research has reported, medium-effect sizes (Cohen (1988) recommends $f = 0.25$ for medium effect sizes) and a 95% confidence interval were applied, and $f = 0.25$ and $\alpha = 0.05$ were inserted into the G*Power program. For the experiment, the research considered the servant leadership and job satisfaction relationship using the independent variables of servant leadership and narcissistic leadership, the moderating variables of high and low levels of leader involvement, leader dominance, formalisation and centralisation (a $2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2$ design). 32 cells are required, which resulted in a required sample size of 608 or 19 per cell.

Previous experimental design research in leadership has used different methods to administer the research, including computer-based simulations, video responses, vignettes, and a mixture of computer and written vignettes (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa & Chan, 2009a). Written vignettes were chosen for this research due to their ease of administration and the timely manner in which they can be produced and administered (Myers & Hansen, 2011).

3.2.2 Instrumentation

As the experiment relied on manipulating the moderating variables (leader involvement, leader dominance, formalisation and centralisation), and not measuring them, only the dependent variable, job satisfaction, was measured. To ensure consistency, the Moyes and Redd (2008) job satisfaction scale was used in both the experiment and the survey to measure the dependent variable.

The structure of the experiment was split into three separate parts. The first was an explanatory statement which details the objectives of the research, instructions on how to complete the survey and an assurance of confidentiality of responses. The second section was the manipulated vignette. The third section was the measure of the construct of job satisfaction and the demographics of the respondent, such as age, gender, year and degree of study. A copy of each of the 32 vignettes used in the experiment is in Appendices A5 to A36.

The experiment was designed and created by following methods from previous experimental studies (e.g., De Cremer, 2006; Rus et al., 2010; Stam et al., 2010). Examining previous vignettes, note was taken of the length, how the manipulations were included, how the dependent variables were measured and the context of the vignette. As this study had access to business and economics students, not psychology students as used in other studies, the context was a business scenario. The business scenario reflected employment that the students would have previously had in part-time or internship work and the work that they would be doing once they had finished their degree. A business position was chosen because this area is of particular importance to business and economics students. This was essential, because, in order to accurately gauge job satisfaction, the participants needed to be interested in the job.

The vignette was separated into six paragraphs. The first was an introduction to the organisation and the scenarios, and these did not change across the 32 vignettes. The second paragraph introduced the participant to the induction process, rules and procedures of the organisation (a formalisation manipulation) and an ethical dilemma the participant faced in the job (a leadership manipulation). The third paragraph described the leadership style of the manager (a leadership manipulation). The fourth paragraph set out how meetings were run under the manager (a leader's decision making process manipulation) and how a previous business situation was handled by the manager (a leadership and a centralisation manipulation). The fifth paragraph outlined a simple task that the participant had to undertake and how the organisational structure affected this task (a formalisation and centralisation manipulation). The sixth and final paragraph asked the participant to reflect on their time at the organisation and rate his or her job satisfaction. The wording of this paragraph did not change over the 32 different vignettes.

The manipulations were then discussed and checked with nine experts either in the subject matter field (i.e., servant leadership, organisational structure etc.) or methodological experts in the experimental field. The changes that were made were then rechecked with a panel of five experts (three content and two methodological experts) to ensure that the vignettes had content validity.

3.2.2.1 Leadership Style Manipulation

In each of the scenarios the supervisors were described as portraying servant leader behaviours (based on Sendjaya et al.'s (2008) servant leadership framework) or narcissistic leadership behaviours (based on the Rosenthal and Pittinsky (2006) narcissistic leadership framework).

In the servant leadership vignettes, to display themes of service, mentoring, humility and availability, participants read the following:

“Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.”

In the narcissistic leadership vignettes, to display themes of inflexibility, superiority, arrogance and need for recognition, participants read the following:

“Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.”

The scenario also depicted an ethical dilemma where the supervisor engaged (servant) or disengaged (narcissistic) in the ethics and morals of a situation, employee autonomy and staff meetings.

3.2.2.2 The Leader's Decision Making Process Manipulation

The decision making process of the supervisor was manipulated in the scenarios. In the scenarios depicting leaders who had high levels of involvement and high levels of dominance in the decision making process, the leader was depicted as being actively involved in the decision making process, however this involved focusing narrowly on their own views. An excerpt of this leader is:

“...you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could, however she was quite dominant in every decision. Although she actively sought out different ideas, she was more appreciative of views that were aligned with her own, she always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position.”

In the scenarios depicting leaders who had high levels of involvement and low levels of dominance in the decision making process, the leader was actively involved in the decision making process, suggesting ideas and listening intently to others' opinions. An excerpt of this leader is:

“In these discussions your supervisor was always present and active. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company.”

In the scenarios depicting leaders who had low levels of involvement and were highly dominant in the decision making process, the leader was depicted as dominating meetings and narrowly focused on her own views. An excerpt of this leader is:

“...your supervisor empowered your team to run your own meetings; however she was quite dominant in every decision. From your interactions, you noticed she would only appreciate views that were aligned with her own, always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position.”

In the scenarios depicting leaders who had low levels of involvement and low levels of dominance in the decision making process, the leader was depicted as having a laissez-faire approach to the decision making process. She was neither actively seeking the opinions of others nor pushing her own agenda. An excerpt of this leader is:

“...you noticed that your supervisor did not listen intently, seemed uninformed of any situations inside and outside of the company and seemed unconcerned with any decisions your team was making. Your supervisor was never domineering; she rarely participated or voiced an opinion in any strategic decisions, letting your team decide even if they were counter to her views”

The four differing decision making process manipulations had the same content and were similar in length. The manipulations were based on the decision making literature (Black & Gregersen, 1997; Carmeli et al., 2009) and the leader's decision making measures to be used in the organisational survey (Mayer et al., 2011).

3.2.2.3 Formalisation Manipulation

The level of formalisation of the organisation was manipulated in the scenarios. In the scenarios depicting organisations with low levels of formalisation, the participant was informed of procedures that were reminiscent of those in the formalisation literature. This entailed such elements as formal procedures for tasks, written rules and regulations and company handbooks. An excerpt of the highly formalised organisations is:

“You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose.”

In scenarios depicting low levels of organisational formalisation, the opposite ensued, informing participants of the lack of formal procedures for tasks, written rules and regulations and company handbooks. An excerpt of the low formalised organisations is:

“...your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. .”

The two differing formalisation manipulations had the same content and were similar in length.

3.2.2.4 Centralisation Manipulation

As with the level of formalisation, the level of centralisation of the organisation was also manipulated in the scenarios. Using examples from the centralisation literature, the differing scenarios clearly depicted different levels of centralisation (high and low). This entailed such

elements as getting supervisor approval before decisions were made. An excerpt of the highly centralised organisations is:

“...you were told by one of the workers that “you’ll learn quickly, that in this company you can’t use your own discretion – you do what they tell you”. Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor...”

In the low centralised organisation scenarios, participants were given much more autonomy, being able to pursue projects without formal approval by their supervisor or someone else higher up. An excerpt of the low formalised organisations is:

“...you were told by one of the workers that “you’ll learn quickly, that in this company you can use your own discretion”. Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, weren’t approved by your supervisor...”

The two differing centralisation manipulations had the same content and were similar in length.

Lastly, the vignettes were then tested via a pilot study in order to gain feedback from a representative sample of the intended participants. According to Flynn et al. (1990), research measures should be pilot-tested before being used in the actual research in order to gain feedback on several areas, including the intelligibility of the statements (i.e., the vignettes) and the ease of completion of the questions. An explanation of the pilot study is provided below.

3.2.3 Pilot Study

For the experiment, a pilot test was conducted among 96 undergraduate students to check the manipulations within the vignettes. 96 respondents were needed because there were 32

different vignettes, with three respondents per vignette. All 96 responses were received and no respondent indicated serious difficulty in completing the experiment based on the aforementioned issues. The results of these pilot tests are discussed in *Chapters Five, Six and Seven*. A copy of the pilot study can be found in Appendix A2.

3.2.4 Sample

For the data collection, probability sampling was undertaken. Probability sampling occurs when each constituent of the population has an equal likelihood of being selected to be part of the research (Tharenou et al., 2007). The probability method of sampling gives the results a greater external validity than non-probability sampling (Gable, 1994; Malhotra & Grover, 1998). There are three main types of probability sampling: simple random sampling, where each member of the population is selected by chance; systematic sampling, where the researcher selects every n th case within the sampling frame; and stratified sampling, where the population is divided up into subgroups (e.g., state, organisational type, size) and are then randomly selected from each of the subgroups (Tharenou et al., 2007).

For the purposes of the vignette experiments, simple random sampling was chosen, as recommended by Myers and Hansen (2011). In accordance with other leadership studies (Rus et al., 2012; Stam et al., 2010), the sample was drawn from a student population. Although there has been criticism regarding student samples in research designs due to their lack of business experience (Bello, Kwok, Radebaugh, Tung & Van Witteloostuijn, 2009; James & Sonner, 2001) and issues with external validity (Eckerd & Bendoly, 2011), there are now strong arguments for making student samples the preferred samples when undertaking an experimental design (Thomas, 2011).

Experiments require the sample to be as homogeneous as possible in order to maximise the internal validity in the design (Webster & Sell, 2007). Student samples are appropriate in

these situations because the student population does have relative homogeneity since they have similar backgrounds (age, educational background, experience, university entrance test scores and cognitive abilities) (Thomas, Esper & Stank, 2010). This cannot be said of managerial samples, which differ on all of these categories, reducing their homogeneity, and thus limiting internal validity (Thomas, 2011). Managerial samples are better for field surveys because the sample is heterogeneous in nature thus increasing the external validity of the findings (Webster & Sell, 2007).

Experimental designs are ideally suited to theory testing with samples which come from a homogenous population who are within the boundary scope of the theoretical framework of the study (Webster & Sell, 2007). In the present research, the theoretical framework is drawn from empowerment theory, questioning that if employees feel empowered (through their leader, both in the behaviours and the decision making processes of the leader and through the structure of the organisation) they should have higher levels of job satisfaction. This question can be answered by the student population because they either are in the workforce as employees or will be entering the workforce in the coming years working directly for a manager (leader). Therefore they fall within the boundary scope of the theoretical framework and are variable participants within the experimental study (Thomas, 2011).

Further, the experimental sample must be able to understand and respond to the experimental manipulations and questions (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). For example, as the manipulations are based on structural and leadership variables, some student populations may not have the experience to understand how these manipulations affect their work if they have not been exposed to these variables within their coursework. Therefore business and economics students at a leading Australian university were selected, because their coursework includes material pertaining to organisational structure, decision making and leadership styles. Within the course, these students also analyse business case studies, complete internships with

business firms and complete team-based exercises, all of which make them appropriate candidates for the experimental study (Thomas, 2011). Further, as students of a leading university, they all have strong cognitive skills that are often needed in laboratory experiments (Peterson, 2001). Therefore, for the purposes of this research, a student sample was used in order to test the hypotheses in the experimental design.

Previous relevant leadership experiments have had sample sizes ranging from 74 to 305 (De Cremer, 2006; Rus et al., 2010, 2012; Van Ginkel & Van Knippenberg, 2012; Van Quaquebeke et al., 2011). However, these studies only looked at 2 x 2 or in some cases 2 x 2 x 2 designs. Since the current study involves 32 different scenarios (2 x 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 design), the sample size needs to exceed that of previous studies. It is also argued that each of the cells have 30-40 respondents in order to have significant power, although up to 60 has been previously recommended (Myers & Hansen, 2011). As previously discussed, the results of a G*Power analysis stated that 608 responses were needed for the experiment, or 19 per scenario. Taking into account past studies, recommendations by Myers and Hansen (2011) and the results from the G*Power test, a minimum sample size between 608 and 1280 was aimed for. In order to achieve this target, undergraduate business and economics students were targeted.

Undergraduate response rates have varied across past studies from 14% to as high as 70% (Porter & Umbach, 2006). Recent analyses of the field have shown response rates between 35 and 45% for paper-based responses, but 20% for web-based responses (Kaplowitz, Hadlock & Levine, 2004; Porter & Umbach, 2006). However, in Australia, undergraduate response rates have been as high as 65% (McKenzie & Schweitzer, 2001). Taking this into account, a response rate of just below 50% was expected. Therefore 2,000 experiments were put in the field. 100 tutorials, each containing 20 students, were targeted in order to achieve the required response rate.

3.2.5 Data Collection Method

The following section outlines the data collected from the experiments and the surveys. Primary data collection occurs when data are obtained from first-hand sources, which include interviewing, questionnaires and observation (Kumar, 2005; Tharenou et al., 2007). Each of these techniques has its limitations, but, by using primary methods of data collection, the researcher can access unique data that are relevant to the study (Kumar, 2005).

The experiment was administered in a classroom setting during October 2011. Undergraduate business and economics students were invited to complete the vignette at the end of their class in exchange for chocolate (e.g., small Mars Bars, Kit-Kats, Milky Ways). 1569 responses were returned and all were useable. This exceeds the recommended number of 960 outlined by Myers and Hansen (2011) and the 608 reported by the G*Power statistical test (Faul et al., 2009; Faul et al., 2007). Post hoc analysis of the power of the tests exceeded the 0.80 threshold (Tharenou et al., 2007). The number returned for each scenario is shown in Table 3.1. A copy of the explanatory statement is found in Appendix A1 and a copy of the vignette questionnaire is found in Appendix A3. An explanation of each vignette (i.e., SA) is located in Appendix A4.

Table 3.1
Number of responses for each experimental condition

		Vignette							
		<i>SA</i>	<i>SB</i>	<i>SC</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>SF</i>	<i>SG</i>	<i>SH</i>
<i>N</i> =		61	60	61	59	61	60	62	61
		<i>SI</i>	<i>SJ</i>	<i>SK</i>	<i>SL</i>	<i>SM</i>	<i>SN</i>	<i>SO</i>	<i>SP</i>
		62	63	58	63	63	62	62	57
		<i>NA</i>	<i>NB</i>	<i>NC</i>	<i>ND</i>	<i>NE</i>	<i>NF</i>	<i>NG</i>	<i>NH</i>
		39	38	41	39	35	34	35	34
		<i>NI</i>	<i>NJ</i>	<i>NK</i>	<i>NL</i>	<i>NM</i>	<i>NN</i>	<i>NO</i>	<i>NP</i>
		36	32	34	40	40	40	39	38

S – Servant leadership vignettes

N – Narcissistic leadership vignettes

3.3 Organisational Survey

3.3.1 Survey Design

Through the use of a survey, the research aims to quantify the feelings, thoughts, attitudes, perceptions and behaviours of the desired population (Miller, 1991; Mitchell & Jolley, 2010). Surveys are used in a variety of research settings, including examining the relationship between two or more variables, testing a theoretical framework, research question or hypothesis, understanding the effects of independent variables on dependent variables and sampling large populations (Tharenou et al., 2007). As proposed by Malhotra and Grover (1998), there are three distinct characteristics of a survey design. First, the data collection stage asks respondents to answer in a structured format. Second, the information is standardised, thus allowing the researcher to describe or define the variables as well as exploring the relationship between them. Finally, the data are collected from a sample of the population, thus allowing it to be generalisable to the whole population.

Survey research is advantageous because of the ability of the researcher to collect data from large samples of the population in a short period of time, whilst also being comparatively inexpensive (Miller, 1991; Mitchell & Jolley, 2010). Further, the data obtained are collected in an unobtrusive, naturalistic setting that involves little bias from the researcher (Mitchell, 1985).

The survey design is self-administered in nature. This was chosen due to following recommendations put forward by Miller (1991). Firstly, as survey research is accessible and flexible, based on the restraints of time and distance, a large sample from a wide range of respondents can be obtained. This, in turn, results in the findings having higher generalisability. Secondly, the use of a survey allows the systematic and direct analysis of the data obtained from the survey, and, with the use of technology, a large number of variables

can be measured simultaneously. Thirdly, the applicability of a survey rises when it is used in descriptive, exploratory or explanatory research, which are all driven from a strong literary base. Finally, using surveys assures the anonymity of the participant, thereby reducing the effects of researcher bias.

However, the effectiveness of survey research can be hindered if the researcher uses unreliable measures, poor sampling, data collected at one single point of time or an insufficient sample size (Mitchell, 1985). These problems result in reduced internal, external and construct validity (Mitchell & Jolley, 2010). Further, as it is only a cross-sectional survey, there are limitations in understanding causal relationships in their truest sense (Malhotra & Grover, 1998).

Although disadvantages do exist with survey methods, the advantages do outweigh the disadvantages in this research design. Furthermore, their use in conjunction with other quantitative methods, such as experiments, leads to results from the study having increased external validity (Campbell & Overman, 1988).

3.3.2 Instrumentation

The design of the survey is built from constructs which have played an important role in management research, including that of the field of leadership. Constructs or scales are defined as latent variables which cannot be directly measured (Byrne, 2001). In any behavioural research, to which servant leadership and job satisfaction belong, there is no device that can precisely produce measurement through a single metric unit. Due to such limitations, these latent variables are tested by two or more measures to gauge one particular construct or scale (Byrne, 2001). The constructs are pre-tested constructs taken from past empirical studies, as recommended by Tata, Prasad and Thorn (1999), ensuring validity and reliability. Each construct used within the study is referenced in Table 3.2, below.

The structure of the questionnaire was organised into seven separate parts, each separated by a prominent heading. Included with the survey was an explanatory statement detailing the objectives of the research, instructions on how to complete the survey and an assurance of confidentiality of responses.

The first section of the survey contains information about the sector, size and duration of the organisation. The second section contains constructs of servant leadership and transformational leadership. Sections three to six contain the constructs of the leader's decision making process, organisational structure, business environment and job satisfaction. Finally, the seventh section contains information on the demographics of the respondent, such as position, gender, age and tenure. A copy of the explanatory statement and survey can be found in Appendices B1 and B2.

Table 3.2
Survey construction

Construct	Scale	Dimension(s)
Servant Leadership	Sendjaya et al. (2008)	
Transformational Leadership	Podsakoff et al. (1990)	
Leader's Decision Making Process	Mayer et al. (2011)	Involvement Dominance
Organisational Structure	Provan and Skinner (1989)	Formalisation Centralisation
Business Environment	Wang, Su and Yang (2011)	Environmental Competitiveness
Job Satisfaction	Moyes and Redd (2008)	

3.3.2.1 Questionnaire Scaling

This study adheres to the ongoing trend in the quantitative leadership field in using a Likert scale to measure each construct. A Likert scale was used to measure all the items which

required the respondent to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement with a particular statement.

Albaum (1997) has cited numerous beneficial characteristics of the Likert scale. First, the scale is able to create an understanding of abstract and highly complex conceptual data. Second, due to its simplicity in form, it reduces the effect of respondent fatigue. Third, the scale can measure the strength and direction of the opinions given by respondents. Finally, as the Likert scale is a measure of agreeability, problems in disclosure of information is minimal because no specifics or detail need to be entered into.

With Likert scales there are several issues that must be taken into account in order to ensure the most accurate and reliable results. These issues are bipolar or unipolar scales, scale points and the treatment of the data.

First, there is a need to differentiate bipolar and unipolar scales. Bipolar scales are where the scale represents two polar opposite points of view, such as 'strongly agree' and 'strongly disagree', with a clear conceptual middle ground, i.e., neutral (Hofstee & Berge, 2004). Personality traits are often measured with a bipolar scale, as they can range in extremity from negative to positive (Hofstee & Berge, 2004; Krosnick & Fabrigar, 1997). Unipolar scales do not have a conceptual midpoint and will usually involve a zero point at one end. These are more often used to measure a variable from 'low' to 'high'. In the current research, the sections on personal opinion and ranking of the employees' manager and organisational practices (servant leadership, decision making process, organisational structure and job satisfaction) were rated using a bipolar scale, using recommendations by Krosnick and Fabrigar (1997). A unipolar scale was used to rate the size of the organisation and the tenure and age of the respondent because each of those variables are graded at levels of 'low' to 'high'.

Another key issue in Likert scale measures is the number of scale points used to measure the intensity or strength of the measure. Too few can result in only the direction of the response being known, not providing a strong indication of strength or intensity, whereas too many may result in a reduction of clarity in responses and reduction in consistency both between the individual responses and the responses across the sample. This in turn reduces the validity and reliability of the research (Tharenou et al., 2007). On this basis, the optimum range of a Likert scale is between five and seven points. This study, like past studies on leadership, uses a five-point scale to measure each of the dimensions.

The third and final issue is data treatment. It is debated whether the data collected from the Likert scale are of metric interval or ordinal type. There have been strong arguments in favour of treating Likert scales as ordinal data because the distance between the intervals within in an item is not likely to be equal. This therefore violates a key assumption of interval type data. However, there have been several applied researchers who contend that Likert scales can be treated as metric interval type data, particularly because analyses are done at construct level, not at the item level (Lehman, 1989). When several items (e.g., from a Likert-scale) within a solitary construct are collapsed into a summated scale (with either mean values or factor scores), the range and intervals of the summated scale approach the properties of metric interval data. For this reason, the data in this study are treated as metric interval data.

3.3.3 Pilot Study

For the survey, a pilot survey was conducted among 30 MBA students with a minimum of two years' business experience to ensure the survey was fit for the research. As the constructs were derived from pre-tested constructs, the intention of the pilot survey was not primarily to examine the content validity of the questionnaire; rather it was to obtain feedback regarding

the following potential issues: the time taken to comprehend and respond to the survey; the structure of the content and length of the survey; the clarity of the statements and terminologies used in the survey; and the layout and presentation of the survey. A total of 19 responses were received, and no respondent indicated serious difficulty in completing the survey for the above-listed reasons.

3.3.4 Sample

For the purposes of the survey research, simple random sampling was chosen. The population in question, middle managers of medium to large enterprises, were contacted through mailing list databases such as Dun & Bradstreet. The enterprises were selected at random using this database. The participants were in a survey to rate the leadership and decision making style of their CEO/GM/MD, as well as the structure of the organisation and their own job satisfaction.

As interaction effects are small and difficult to detect, a rather large sample is needed (Maxwell, 2000). The literature on leadership, job satisfaction and organisational characteristics reveals relatively low effect sizes (e.g., Bocarnea & Dimitrova, 2010; Cerit, 2009), from sample sizes ranging from 60 to 400 (e.g., Black & Gregersen, 1997; Bocarnea & Dimitrova, 2010; Carmeli et al., 2009). Finally, because the study wishes to test moderating variables, it is theoretically suggested that the sample size should be between 200 and 250 (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010; Maxwell, 2000). Due to low response rates within Australian firms (20-25%), 1,500 surveys were sent out and follow-ups undertaken.

3.3.5 Data Collection Method

The questionnaire was sent via postal mail during April 2012 to 1,500 companies randomly selected from the database provided by Dun & Bradstreet. Upon selection, each company was sent a questionnaire and asked to pass it to a direct report of the CEO/GM/MD for completion

and return to the researchers. Two major follow-up actions were carried out in accordance with recommendations by Tharenou et al. (2007). The first was a reminder letter during the first week of May 2012. The second was a reminder telephone call during the first week of June 2012. 41 organisations declined to participate in the study.

136 questionnaires were returned to the researcher marked 'Return to Sender' (RTS), typically because the addressee was no longer at the organisation, or, in a few cases, the organisation had been liquidated. Overall, 336 useable questionnaires were returned, delivering a response rate of 22.4%. Although this does not exceed the response rate benchmark recommended by Baruch and Holtom (2008) of 37.2% for surveys administered at an organisational level, it does lie between the expected response rate from an Australian sample of 20-25% whereas Baruch and Holtom's (2008) study derived from predominantly American samples.

Non-response bias was assessed using two separate methods (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). The first method required chi-square tests on two categories (organisational size and industry sector) and did not indicate any significant differences between the early and late responses. The second method coincided with the reminder letters and telephone calls. Through this means, it was identified that 41 organisations declined to participate in the survey, commonly due to a lack of time or resources. These rationales for not wanting to participate in the study were not systematic, thus not creating a major cause for concern. Although there are limitations pertaining to these two tests, the level of non-response bias appears to be insignificant within this survey.

3.4 Data Analysis

This section describes the methodologies employed for analysing the quantitative data and the interpretation of the results. The data analysis followed numerous phases, as outlined by authorities on research methods (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2010; Pallant, 2007; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Tharenou et al., 2007; Thorndike & Thorndike-Christ, 2011), firstly with data screening, the procedure for construct validation, and finally the methods used for analysing the relationships between the variables.

3.4.1 Data Screening

Hair et al. (2010) recommend that quantitative data must be screened before utilisation in further analysis such as relationship testing. They argue that, through a careful analysis of the data, better prediction and more accurate assessment of dimensionality will occur. The fundamental rationale for data screening is to ensure that the data meet the underlying statistical assumptions required by multivariate techniques (mostly based on regression) that are used to test the relationships between two or more variables (Tharenou et al., 2007).

3.4.1.1 Missing Data

Missing data are pieces of information which are absent for a subject or case where other information remains available (Hair et al., 2010). This most often occurs when a respondent does not fully complete the survey or has left answers blank. Due to this issue, Tharenou et al. (2007) state that researchers need to find ways to combat the missing data. Roth (1994) proposes a number of methods to deal with missing data, including listwise deletion, pairwise deletion and mean substitution. Listwise deletion has been observed to be the least accurate estimate of population parameters such as correlations and regression weights (Roth, 1994). Tharenou et al. (2007) suggest that mean substitution should be avoided because it is not an

accurate reflection of how the individual would have scored the item. Both Tharenou et al. (2007) and Roth (1994) agree that pairwise deletion is the best alternative to missing data because it is consistently more accurate (although the differences can sometimes be small). Therefore pairwise deletion was used for preliminary data screening, as along with several other simple, primarily descriptive methods, which are available for use on SPSS version 21.0.

3.4.1.2 Outliers

Outliers are responses which distinctly differ from the greater sample and may have a disproportionate influence on the conclusions drawn from the study (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Usually this involves the responses being uniquely higher or lower than previous observed variables which make the response stand out within the data set. Further, it may be the case that the observations do not conform near the centre of the data (Hair et al., 2010). Outliers can therefore lead to the establishment of both Type 1 and Type 2 errors, which means that the statistics obtained from these data sets (which include the outliers) can be misleading (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In order to combat these errors, univariate outliers were detected using standardised z-scores. It is recommended that, with sample sizes of less than 80, outliers with z-scores of 2.50 or greater can be deleted, whereas for larger samples the z-scores can range from 3 to 4 (Hair et al., 2010). Multivariate outliers were detected using Mahalanobis distance at a significance level of 0.001 (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Tharenou et al., 2007).

3.4.1.3 Normality

Normality is the “assumption that the scores on a continuous variable are normally distributed about the mean” (Tharenou et al., 2007, p. 200). Many statistical analyses are based on the assumption of normality (Pallant, 2007). Normality tests are concentrated on

checking the shape and distribution of the data, especially the skewness and kurtosis (Hair et al., 2010). The skewness of the measure refers to the symmetry of distribution compared to normal distribution, which has a skewness value of zero. Therefore both positive and negative skewness indicates that the distribution of the data tails to the right or left, respectively. Hair et al. (2010) suggest that the skewness value of ± 1 indicates a violation of the assumption of normality, whereas Tharenou et al. (2007) suggest a cut-off point of ± 2 . Kurtosis is a measure of the distribution in terms of peakedness or flatness when compared to a normal distribution (Hair et al., 2010). A positive value indicates the distribution is peaked, whereas a negative value indicates a flat distribution. Tharenou et al. (2007) suggest that the kurtosis value should not approach 5.

3.4.1.4 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is the extent to which one variable can be explained by other variables within the analysis. That is, the presence of multicollinearity creates shared variance between variables, decreasing their ability to predict the dependent measure and clouding each of the independent variables' respective roles. An increase of multicollinearity complicates the interpretation of the analysis because it becomes difficult to determine the effect of a single variable on another (Hair et al., 2010). Multicollinearity can be ascertained through bivariate correlations with correlation coefficients above the 0.9 level (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Furthermore, when analysing data using the multiple regression technique, multicollinearity can be assessed using tolerance and the variance inflation factor (VIF). Tolerance is the amount of variability of one selected independent variable that is not explained by the other independent variables within the study. A high tolerance value indicates a small degree of multicollinearity within the study. VIF is the inverse of the value of tolerance (Hair et al., 2010). Kline (2010) recommends that tolerance values of less than 0.1 and VIF values of greater than 10.0 may indicate multicollinearity within the study. Therefore, during the

multiple regression analysis in this research, Kline's (2010) recommendations were followed. However, during the confirmatory factor analysis some multicollinearity is desirable, since the objective of the confirmatory factor analysis is to determine interrelated sets of variables (Hair et al., 2010).

3.4.1.5 Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity is “the assumption that dependent variable(s) exhibit equal levels of variances across the range of predictor variable(s). Homoscedasticity is desirable because the variance of the dependent variable being explained in the dependent relationship should not be concentrated in only a limited range of independent values” (Hair et al., 2010, p. 74). The most common way to test homoscedasticity is through a series of graphical plots of the residuals of the multiple regression analysis. This is the dispersion of the dependent variables across the values of the independent variable (Hair et al., 2010).

3.4.2 Scale Validity and Reliability

The validity and reliability of the scales need to be assessed in order to have sound confidence in the findings from the data (Mentzer & Flint, 1997). Validity refers to the extent to which a set of measured variables actually represents the theoretical construct they are designed to measure, ensuring that no logical errors can be concluded from the data (Hair et al., 2010; Thorndike & Thorndike-Christ, 2011). If a measure demonstrates validity, confidence in that measure is assured, in that the items measure what they purport to measure. There are four major dimensions for validity analysis for scales used in empirical research: content validity, convergent validity, discriminant validity and criterion validity (Ahire, Golhar & Waller, 1996). Each of these analyses is discussed below.

3.4.2.1 Content Validity

Content validity is explained by Tharenou et al. (2007) as whether or not a scale measures what it purports to measure, as determined in consultation with field experts. Content validity is not determined statistically, but by experts in the area through reference to the literature (Flynn et al., 1990). The development of the content of each construct was discussed in detail in *Chapter Two*, which consequently justified the content validity. Furthermore, as stated previously, the variables contained in this study were based on previous constructs applied in leadership, organisational structure and decision making literature, thus ensuring the validity of the constructs.

3.4.2.2 Convergent Validity

Convergent validity assesses to what extent two measures of the same concept produce the same results (Tharenou et al., 2007). Hair et al. (2010) suggest testing this by using an alternative version of the measure and correlating it with the existing measure, with high correlations suggesting convergent validity. However, due to constraints in both time and resources, this approach was not achievable within the current research. Therefore this research adopted the method suggested by Dunn, Seaker and Waller (1994), which measures convergent validity via a confirmatory factor analysis. During the test for unidimensionality, convergent validity can be assessed by checking the statistical significance and the values of the factor loadings on each item in the construct.

3.4.2.3 Discriminant Validity

In order to achieve discriminant validity, each item should only predict one construct, with every construct being distinct from another (Hair et al., 2010). A confirmatory factor analysis was run on each pair of constructs within the research, as recommended by Venkatraman (1989). The confirmatory factor analysis was run twice for each pair of constructs, with the

first allowing the correlation between the two constructs to be estimated. The second confirmatory factor analysis was run with the correlation between the two constructs fixed to 1.00. The analyses resulted in two differing values of chi-square, with the first coded as χ^2_a and the second χ^2_b . The difference between χ^2_a and χ^2_b is coded as χ^2_{b-a} with the degree of freedom as 1. The value of χ^2_{b-a} ($df = 1$) at $p < 0.01$ is 6.64. Therefore, if the value of χ^2_{b-a} is greater than 6.64, there is discriminant validity between the two constructs.

3.4.2.4 Criterion-related Validity

Criterion-related validity assesses if the measure is predicting the relevant criterion, that is, does the scale truly measure the projected outcome (Flynn et al., 1990). There are two types of criterion-related validity, depending on how it is measured, namely, predictive or concurrent (Tharenou et al., 2007). Predictive validity investigates to what extent a measure predicts the desired outcome, for example, behaviour or performance over a period of time. Concurrent validity assesses this relationship at the same point of time (Tharenou et al., 2007). In the current study, the analysis of concurrent, criterion-related validity is primarily focused on the servant leadership behaviours of the participants' leaders and their overall relationship with employee job satisfaction.

3.4.2.5 Unidimensionality Analysis

In order for validity analysis and construct reliability to be conducted, the unidimensionality of a measure must be assessed (Ahire et al., 1996). If a set of items only estimates a single construct, a measure is said to have unidimensionality (Hair et al., 2010). Therefore the test for unidimensionality is essential because each of the constructs is represented by a single composite value, as opposed to several values of individual items in further analyses. As the constructs within the research were designed *a priori*, a confirmatory factor analysis method was used to analyse the measurement model for these constructs. The confirmatory factor

analysis approach has repeatedly been used in organisational behaviour disciplines, rather than the exploratory factor analysis approach (Ahire et al., 1996). The advantage of using the confirmatory factor analysis approach is that it tests unidimensionality and convergent validity simultaneously (Ahire et al., 1996). The confirmatory factor analysis (measurement model) that was performed in this study was constructed via structural equation modelling.

For measurement models which result in poor fit, improvements can be made by two types of modifications. First, items which do not load significantly onto the construct can be deleted, which is a common practice in research (Hair et al., 2010). Second, error correlations can be created between items in the model (Byrne, 2001). However, it is suggested that this only be used when there is a theoretical justification for linking the two items, i.e., if they are measuring the same construct they are therefore likely to be similar (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

3.4.2.7 Reliability Analysis

Reliability of a scale is defined as the variance in the true scores of latent variables (DeVillis, 2011). In order for a scale to achieve reliability, it must have consistent and stable results over time and across situations (Carmines & Zeller, 1979; Forza, 2002; Zikmund, 2010). Therefore reliability measures the ability to replicate the study (Flynn et al., 1990). Although reliability is necessary for validity, it is not satisfactory on its own (Cooper & Emory, 1994). Although there are numerous methods by which to assess reliability, including the test-retest method, the split halves method and the alternative form method, the internal consistency method was employed within this study because of its applicability to and use in leadership research (Nunnally, 1967; Stam et al., 2010; Tse et al., 2012).

Internal consistency is the homogeneity of the scale items that make up the latent variable (DeVillis, 2011; Hinkin, 1995). In order for the scale to have internal consistency, it must

contain highly inter-correlated items which all measure the same construct (Mentzer & Flint, 1997; Sekaran & Bougie, 2009). The most popular method by which to test the internal consistency of multipoint-scale items has been the Cronbach (1951) coefficient alpha (α) (Nunnally, 1967). Cronbach's alpha works under the assumption that the scale only measures one underlying concept, trait or phenomenon (Hair et al., 2010), although it is argued that it does provide a good estimate of reliability under most conditions (Nunnally, 1967). Nunnally (1967) argues that Cronbach's coefficient alpha should be 0.70 as a minimum to indicate reliability of the scale.

When a scale does not meet the 0.70 threshold value, the items within the scale can be examined to determine their individual correlation with the measure. The item(s) that record the lowest correlation can be removed from the measure to improve the reliability of the scale (Churchill Jr, 1979). This procedure can be continued until internal consistency satisfies the 0.70 threshold. However, care must be taken in the deletion of items to ensure content validity is maintained (Ahire et al., 1996).

3.4.2.8 Assessing Common Method Variance

The survey involves single-source data for two primary reasons. First, the complexity associated with multi-source, multi-level data involving both top management team members and their direct reports typically results in a low response rate (Rabe-Hesketh, Skrondal & Pickles, 2004; Tharenou et al., 2007). Second, given the time constraint within which the doctorate study is undertaken, it is prudent to rely on single-source data to ensure that the main purposes of the study are achieved in time. However, in the use of single-source data there is a distinct possibility of common method variance occurring (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Common method variance is "variance that is attributable to the measurement method rather than to the constructs the measure represents" (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff,

2003, p. 879), which increases or decreases the observed effects within the model (Chang, van Witteloostuijn & Eden, 2010). Although the impact of common method variance is currently being debated in the methodological field (Brannick, Chan, Conway, Lance & Spector, 2010; Podsakoff et al., 2012; Reio, 2010; Spector & Brannick, 2010), it is still argued that method bias should be accounted for both procedurally and statistically in any research design (Podsakoff et al., 2012).

For the purposes of this research, the procedural remedies of using multiple methodologies to converge on one result (Dipboye, 1990; Rosenthal & Rosnow, 2008), assurances of confidentiality and anonymity (Chang et al., 2010) and reducing the ambiguity of the survey items and the response checkboxes (Podsakoff et al., 2012) were undertaken. Further, the research also utilised two statistical remedies to assess common method variance. First, previous research has empirically proven that significant interaction effects cannot be obtained through common method variance; if anything, the presence of common method variance reduces the statistical significance and magnitude of the interaction (Siemsen, Roth & Oliveira, 2010). Therefore, if the interaction effects contained within the models are significant, this demonstrates that common method variance does not present any issues for the current research (Podsakoff et al., 2012; Siemsen et al., 2010). Second, the statistical remedy of the marker variable technique was also utilised (Lindell & Whitney, 2001).

There have been concerns raised with the use of marker variables (Podsakoff et al., 2012), however there is substantial research to suggest that this approach is a powerful diagnostic tool for assessing common method variance (Richardson, Simmering & Sturman, 2009; Williams, Hartman & Cavazotte, 2010). Lindell and Whitney (2001) defined a marker variable as a variable that has zero or close to zero correlation with at least one of the substantive variables of interest and, therefore, is theoretically unrelated or irrelevant to the substantive variables (Richardson et al., 2009). The lowest correlation between a substantive

variable and a marker variable in the dataset indicates the best approximation of common method variance. If a correlation occurs between the marker and the substantive variables, this cannot therefore be due to a true theoretical relationship; the variables must have something else in common, such as common method variance (Williams et al., 2010).

In order for a marker variable to be deemed suitable, it must conform to the following criteria. First, the variable must be measured by a multi-item scale which has a strong coefficient alpha. Second, the variable must be theoretically unrelated to at least one of the variables in the study but not theoretically distinct (Lindell & Whitney, 2001). The variable is theoretically unrelated if it is statistically independent of the study variables and theoretically distinct if it does not measure the exact same thing as the other variables. For best practice, the marker variable should be chosen before the questionnaire design process and placed within the survey (Lindell & Whitney, 2001).

The current study used the Wang et al. (2011) environmental competitiveness measure as the marker variable. As a well-developed measure, the scale conforms to Lindell and Whitney's (2001) first criterion of a strong alpha. Furthermore, environmental competitiveness was used, because this is theoretically unrelated to the items from the servant leadership behavioural scale, to conform to the second criterion. The results of the common method variance tests are discussed in *Chapter Four*.

3.4.3 Methods and Tools for Data Analysis

The quantitative data were analysed using a variety of statistical tools including *t*-tests, analysis of variance (ANOVA), bivariate correlations, multiple regression analysis, confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling.

Prior to the analysis, preliminary univariate statistical analysis was conducted to examine and screen each of the variables that were used in the vignette experiments and the organisational survey. The univariate statistical analysis comprised frequency distributions, measures of central tendency (mean, median and mode), and their standard deviation from the mean.

In order to analyse the data, two statistical packages were used: Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0 and Analysis of Moment Structure (AMOS) version 21.0. SPSS was used for the preliminary data screening, bivariate correlations, multiple regression analysis and variance analysis. AMOS was used to undertake confirmatory factor analysis and the validity and reliability of measures using structural equation modelling. The following sections outline these methods.

3.4.3.1 Bi-variate Correlations

In the current research, the relationship between two variables was examined using the correlation coefficients. The correlation coefficient is an index that indicates the extent to which two variables are related. Although there is a range of correlation coefficients, Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) was used because it is the most common and widely accepted in organisational research (Tharenou et al., 2007). This calculates the strength and the direction of the linear relationship between two variables. The value of Pearson's correlation coefficient can range from $r = -1.0$, which indicates a perfect negative correlation (that is, as one variable increases, the other decreases), to $r = 1.0$, which indicates a perfect positive correlation (that is, as one variable increases, the other increases). A result of $r = 0.0$ indicates that there is no association between the two variables (Tharenou et al., 2007). The magnitude of the correlation coefficient indicates to the researcher the strength of the relationship between the variables. Cohen (1988, 1992) suggests that $r = .10$ indicates a small effect size, $r = .30$ indicates a medium effect size, and $r = .50$ and above indicates a large

effect size. However, it is argued that these numbers are only a rule of thumb and that within the evaluation of effect size, consideration needs to be given to the context of the study (Tharenou et al., 2007). As Pearson's correlation coefficient only assesses the linear relationship between two variables, the assumptions of linearity must be met before correlation analysis can begin (Hinkle, Wiersma & Jurs, 2003). In this study, bivariate correlations were used in the preliminary data analysis for both the vignette experiment and the organisational survey.

3.4.3.2 The t-test

In order to discover if there is a significant difference in the means of two groups, a *t*-test can be used (Tharenou et al., 2007). A *t*-test is conducted between two groups on the continuous, dependent variable. The *t*-test reveals if there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of both independent groups (Tharenou et al., 2007). The *t*-test is computed by calculating the ratio of difference between the sample means ($\mu_1 - \mu_2$) to their standard error (Hair et al., 2010). If the difference between the sample means is significantly larger than that of the standard error, it can be concluded that the difference between the two groups is statistically significant. To determine if the value is significantly larger, Hair et al. (2010) recommend comparing the given *t* statistic to the critical value of the *t* statistic. The critical value of the *t* statistics is 1.96 for $\alpha = 0.05$ and 2.58 for $\alpha = 0.01$.

In the current study, *t*-tests were used within the vignette experiment pilot study to compare the means of the manipulated variables (servant leadership and narcissistic leadership; high and low leader involvement; high and low leader dominance; high and low formalisation; and high and low centralisation) to ensure the manipulations are correct. In conducting these tests, the underlying assumption of equality of variance was checked using the Levene Test (Pallant, 2007).

Although a *t*-test is a useful tool to compare the means of two groups, it only allows the researcher to assess two groups. In order to compare the means of three or more groups, as dictated by the hypotheses, a one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) may be used (Tharenou et al., 2007).

3.4.3.3 Analysis of Variance

The one-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA), like a *t*-test, is used to compare the means of independent groups on one continuous, dependent variable (Tharenou et al., 2007). However, unlike the *t*-test, the one-way ANOVA can be used for more than two groups. The use of multiple *t*-tests for examining the differences between multiple groups is inappropriate because the probability of Type 1 errors increases as the number of *t*-tests increases (Pallant, 2007). In contrast, ANOVA uses the F distribution, testing if there is at least one difference in the means of the selected samples (Hinkle et al., 2003).

In order to conduct one-way between groups ANOVA tests, three primary assumptions must be met, namely randomness of the sample, normality of the sample and homogeneity of variance (i.e., the variances of the distributions of the samples are equal) (Hinkle et al., 2003). The assumption of homogeneity of variance is the most important, as ANOVA is robust in respect to the violations of many assumptions, but it is not so in the case of unequal variances across unequal sample sizes (Hinkle et al., 2003). In order to protect against this assumption, the Levene test was employed to ensure that the assumption is not violated (Coakes, Steed & Ong, 2010). The ANOVA test also allows post hoc multiple comparison tests, which assess the differences between means of selected populations involved in the analysis (Pallant, 2007). In this study, planned comparisons using the one-way analysis of variance were used in the experiment to assess the differences in means of particular samples.

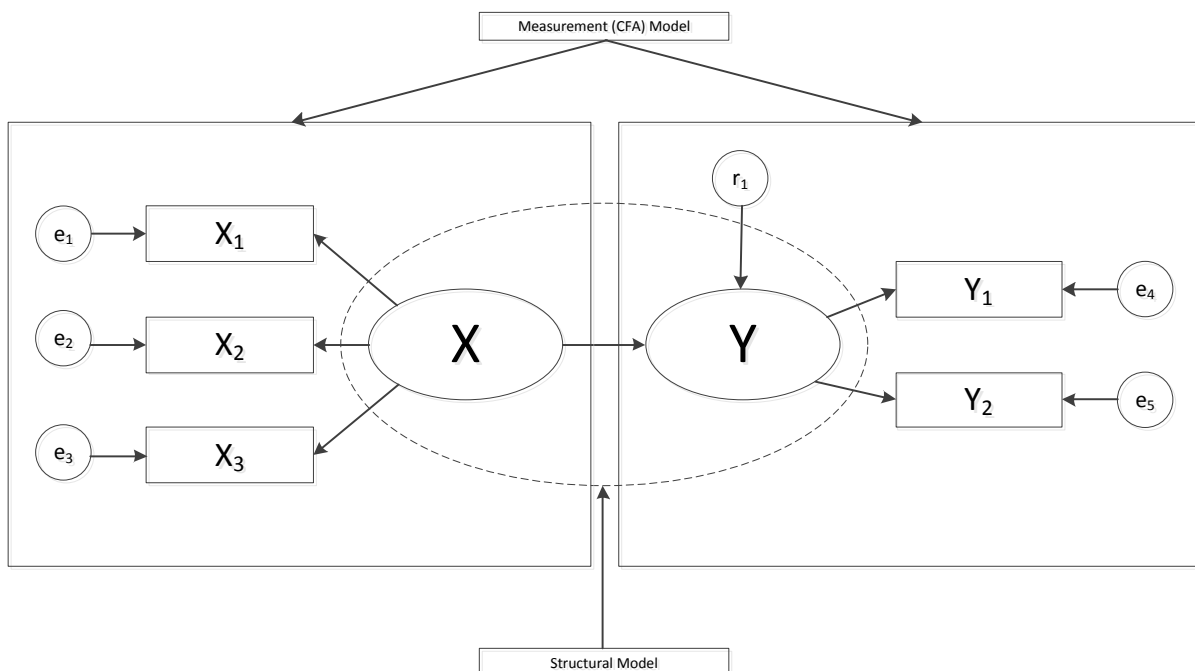
3.4.3.4 Structural Equation Modelling

Structural equation modelling is employed in the analysis to test the validity of the composite variables used in the organisational survey. Structural equation modelling is a combination of both multiple regression and factor analysis used to test complex models which involve one or more independent variables and one or more dependent variables (Byrne, 2001; Tharenou et al., 2007). Fundamentally, the analysis tests the interaction path between the independent variables and the dependent variable(s), with the independent variables being connected via paths that can include mediating variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). This analysis confirms if the independent variables have a direct effect on the dependent variable(s) or indirectly through mediating variables which either strengthen or weaken the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Tharenou et al., 2007).

Structural equation modelling distinguishes itself from other multivariate techniques in four distinct ways (Hair et al., 2010). First and foremost, structural equation modelling is *a priori* because it requires the researcher to have a clear picture of the model and the relationships from theoretical groundings. This is not to say that structural equation modelling is solely used for confirmatory purposes, as many of the functions are a mix of confirmatory and exploratory. Second, whilst testing the fit of the model, structural equation modelling also takes measurement error into account during the estimation process. As stated by Tharenou et al. (2007, p. 238), “structural equation modelling estimates the size of the paths in the model and the general fit of the model to the data, while correcting for measurement error”. Third, there is a clear distinction in the models between observed and unobserved (latent) variables. Finally, by using structural equation modelling, it allows the researcher to estimate numerous separate but interrelated relationships, including relationships between dependent variables (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2010).

A structural equation model generally encompasses two sub-models: a measurement model and a structural model (Byrne, 2001). The measurement model is essentially the link between the scores of items on a measurement scale (the observed indicator variables) and the constructs that they purport to measure (the unobserved latent variables). It represents a confirmatory factor analysis model by specifying how each measure loads onto a particular factor (Byrne, 2001). Contrasting with the measurement model is the structural model, which examines the relationship between the unobserved variables. It specifies how particular latent variables, either directly or indirectly through mediating variables, influence changes in other latent variables within the model (Byrne, 2001). The visual representation of the differences between measurement and structural models is presented in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1
A general structural equation model divided into measurement and structural components



Source: Adapted from Byrne (2001, p.13)

Although Tharenou et al. (2007) argue that the measurement model is best conducted whilst the interaction model is being measured, the two-step approach, reported by Kelloway (1996), is becoming more common. The two-stage approach involves conducting a confirmatory factor analysis first, and establishing the validity of the measurement model and the estimation of the full latent variable structural modelling second. Under the two-step approach, confirmatory factor analysis is used to assess the fit of the measurement model before it is used to test the structural path model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988).

For the purposes of this research, the use of structural equation modelling is confined to confirmatory factor analysis. According to Kelloway (1996), a minimum of three indicators per latent variable is the most accepted throughout the theoretical and empirical literature and Harris and Schaubroeck (1990) state that no more than 20 indicators per latent variable are required. Therefore measures were chosen that had more than three indicators and fewer than 20.

3.4.3.5 Goodness-of-fit Measure

The goodness-of-fit measures the extent to which the theoretical model is supported by the data collected for the study. The model is considered good-fitting if the sample covariance matrix and the estimated population covariance matrix fit (Ullman, 2007). Compared to other multivariate techniques, goodness-of-fit for structural equation modelling is not as simple, since there is no single test which determines the strength of the model's predictions (Hair et al., 2010). The most common method for comparing observed and predicted covariance matrices is the chi-square (χ^2) statistic. If the observed and predicted covariance matrices are in fact equal, the chi-square (χ^2) is non-significant and the model has good-fit. However, the chi-square (χ^2) statistics are significantly influenced by the sample size, with a small sample size with poor fit resulting in a non-significant chi-square (χ^2) and a large sample with good

fit returning a statistically significant chi-square (χ^2) (Hair et al., 2010; Marsh, Balla & McDonald, 1988; Ullman, 2007). For example, in a large sample the strength of the chi-square (χ^2) test will result in the rejection of the null hypothesis, as it will detect inconsequential differences between the observed and predicted samples (Ullman, 2007). As argued by Bentler and Bonett (1980), simply accepting a model with a small χ^2 is questionable at best, because it is possible to produce a small χ^2 by reducing the sample size. Due to this limitation, it is recommended that the fitness of the model be assessed with a combination of measures that are classified into three types: absolute fit measures; incremental fit measures; and parsimonious measures (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Hair et al., 2010; Marsh et al., 1988; Ullman, 2007).

Absolute fit measures provide the most basic assessment of the fit between the predicted theoretical model and the observed model from the sample data (Hair et al., 2010). The absolute fit indices provide an indication of how well the *a priori* model defined by the researcher is reproduced in the observed data (Hu & Bentler, 1995). The following measures were used in this study:

- Goodness-Of-Fit Index (GFI) – The goodness-of-fit index is one of the most common methods used to assess model fit. It assesses how well the model fits compared to no model at all. The measure is non-statistical and ranges from 0 (poor fit) to 1 (perfect fit), with values in excess of 0.90 indicating a good fit (Hair et al., 2010);
- Normed Chi-Square – The normed chi-square is the ratio of χ^2 to the degrees of freedom (*df*) of the model. Indication of fit values of two, three or as high as five have previously been suggested in the literature (Bollen, 1989), but for the purposes of this study a value of less than three, as suggested by Hair et al. (2010), was followed;

- Root Mean Square Residual (RMSR) – The root mean square residual is calculated by taking the square root from the mean of the squared residual (the average of the residuals between the observed and estimated correlation covariance matrices). Models with better fit are indicated with a value of less than 0.05 (Hair et al., 2010); and
- Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) – The root mean square error of approximation endeavours to correct the limitation of the chi-square (χ^2) statistic to reject the null hypothesis of models with large sample sizes. With the RMSR, smaller values indicate better fit, with values between 0.03 and 0.08 deemed acceptable (Hair et al., 2010).

Incremental fit measures are used to evaluate how well the proposed model fits compared to a null model where there are no causal relationships between the variables (Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1995). The null model works on the assumption that there is zero population covariance amongst the observed variables (Kline, 2010). The following incremental fit measures were used in this study:

- Normed Fit Index (NFI) – The normed fit index is calculated by taking the difference in the χ^2 value of the fitted model and the null model and dividing it by the χ^2 value of

$$\text{the null model. e.g. } \text{NFI} = \frac{(\chi^2 \text{ null model} - \chi^2 \text{ proposed model})}{(\chi^2 \text{ null model})}$$

The value represents the percentage of fit improvement over the null model, ranging from 0 (poor fit) to 1 (perfect fit), with a value above 0.90 indicating a good fit (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Hair et al., 2010); and

- Comparative Fit Index (CFI) – The comparative fit index assesses the proportion of improvement of fit of the proposed model compared to the null model. Compared to other incremental measures, the comparative fit index incorporates more realistic

assumptions by utilising a non-central χ^2 distribution, meaning that it assumes a model will not fit perfectly to the sample (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2010). The values of the comparative fit index range from 0 (poor fit) to 1 (perfect fit), with a value of more than 0.90 indicating a good fit (Hair et al., 2010).

Parsimony fit measures are designed to compare competing models to determine which model is best, taking into account its fit relative to its complexity . The measure of parsimony fit can be improved through better fit or by a more simplistic model (Hair et al., 2010). The following parsimony fit measure was used in this study:

- Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) – The normed fit index is modified in the parsimony normed fit index by multiplying it by the parsimony ratio (PR) (Mulaik et al., 1989). The parsimony ratio is calculated by the ratio of the predicted model's degrees of freedom to the total degrees of freedom available (Marsh & Balla, 1994). As with the normed fit index, higher values indicate better fit (Hair et al., 2010). The values of the parsimony normed fit index are used to compare competing models and therefore the model with the highest PNFI value indicates the best fit. Hair et al. (2010) recommend that values in PNFI that differ by 0.06 to 0.09 indicate a substantial difference in the models.

3.4.3.6 Multiple Regression Analysis

Multiple regression analysis is employed to analyse the relationship between two or more independent variables on a single dependent variable, often taking into account other control variables. The intention of multiple regression analysis is to examine how much variance in the dependent variable can be contributed to the independent variables and which of the independent variables predicts the most variance (Tharenou et al., 2007). There are three major types of multiple regression: standard (or simultaneous), hierarchical (or sequential)

and stepwise (Pallant, 2007; Tharenou et al., 2007). For the purposes of this research, the hierarchical method of multiple regression analysis was used.

Hierarchical regression calls for the researcher to choose the order in which the variables are entered *a priori* to the data analysis, based on theoretical grounds. Hierarchical regression can be used to partial out the effects of control variables such as personal demographics (e.g., age and gender) and organisational demographics (e.g. size and tenure) or be used to partial out the effects of another independent variable to understand the unique effect that the predictor variable has (Huck, 2008; Pallant, 2007; Tharenou et al., 2007). This allows researchers the ability to analyse the unique proportion of variance that one independent variable has on the dependent variable above and beyond the independent variables previously entered (Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003).

In this research, hierarchical regression was used to analyse the moderating effects of the moderator variables on the independent variable (servant leadership) and the dependent variable (job satisfaction). Within this form of regression, the researcher examines if the interaction variable (moderator) influences the direction and/or strength of the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable (Tharenou et al., 2007).

The procedure for hierarchical regression was taken from Zhang and Peterson (2011). First, as recommended by Dawson and Richter (2006), all variables were z-standardised to avoid issues with multicollinearity. The independent variable and each of the moderator variables were multiplied together to create a product term (the interaction effect of the two variables), or, in the case of three-way interaction, the independent variable was multiplied by two moderating variables. These product terms were based on theoretical grounding outlined in *Chapters Five to Seven*. The control variables were entered in step one; the independent and the moderator variable(s) were entered in step two; the product term was entered in step three;

and, in the case of three-way interactions, the three-way product term was entered in the fourth and final step. Moderation exists if the product term is statistically significant above and beyond that of a model containing the independent and moderating variables (Tharenou et al., 2007). Following a statistically significant interaction, it is recommended to plot the interactions in order to interpret the moderation effect (Tharenou et al., 2007). Plotting of the interaction effects was performed via methods outlined by Dawson and Richter (2006).

3.5 Ethical Considerations

Any studies that involve human participants have many potential ethical issues that may arise during the research process. Therefore great lengths were taken during the research to ensure there were no risks to the participants.

In order to carry out the research, permission was sought from the Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC). A copy of the ethics approval letter appears in Appendix C-1. The foremost ethical concern of the research was the issues of confidentiality and anonymity. Therefore respondents were informed that they were not to disclose their name or the identity of their company, except for those wishing to obtain the findings of the research. Further, the explanatory statement clearly stated that all information obtained from the experiment and the survey are strictly confidential and no findings would identify any individual participant or organisation, as only the combined results would be published.

3.6 Summary

This chapter outlined the research design undertaken in the current study to investigate the hypotheses and the rationale for undertaking quantitative methods was discussed. The use of the experimental and survey designs were justified on the basis of their ability to acquire rich

insights into the phenomena that would not be possible from one solitary method. The development of the survey instrument and the experiment vignettes was discussed in detail.

The procedures for randomised sampling and collecting the data were outlined, explaining the two steps in the data collection procedure, the vignette experiment ($N = 1569$) and the organisational survey ($N = 336$). The techniques for analysing the quantitative data were examined, starting with data screening and univariate analysis to describe the sample. Bivariate and multivariate techniques to investigate the relationships between the variables were assessed, and these included bi-variate correlations, t -tests, ANOVA, multiple regression and structural equation modelling. Finally, the ethical considerations undertaken within this study were also discussed.

Subsequent chapters present the descriptive data analysis from the three rounds of data collection, focusing on univariate statistics and confirming the assumptions of validity and reliability. The next three chapters present the findings and discussion of the data collection methods described in this Chapter. *Chapter Five* addresses Servant Leadership and the Leader's Decision Making Process, *Chapter Six* addresses Servant Leadership and Organisational Structure and *Chapter Seven* addresses Servant Leadership, the Leader's Decision Making Process and Organisational Structure.

Chapter Four: Descriptive Data Analysis

CHAPTER FOUR – DESCRIPTIVE DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter presents the analysis of the data obtained through the vignette experiment and the organisational survey. The vignette experiment was run with an undergraduate sample and received 1569 responses; the organisational survey was mailed to 1,500 potential participants, with 336 valid responses, resulting in a response rate of 22.4%.

The chapter will consist of three major sections:

1. Data preparation and reduction including the screening of missing data, outliers and normality of the raw data set;
2. The construct validity and reliability of the vignette experiment and the organisational survey. This section will present the content of the constructs which will be followed by an analysis of the validity and reliability using confirmatory factor analysis; and
3. The composite variables of the data. This will include the composite scores from the validated constructs. These composite scores were tested against major underlying assumptions of multivariate statistics for multiple regression analysis.

4.1 Data Screening

In order to ensure that the data meet the underlying statistical assumptions required for relationship testing between variables, Hair et al. (2010) recommend that the data be examined before any tests are undertaken. A thorough examination of the data sets will lead to a more accurate assessment of dimensionality and better prediction of the desired results. The following section describes the data screening process in several stages: missing values, outliers and normality tests.

4.1.1 Missing Values

The issue of missing values or incomplete responses is a common occurrence in empirical research. Problems can occur in the analysis stage if the missing data are not adequately dealt with. The objective of the missing values analysis is to ensure that the data that are absent do not produce any significant distortions or problems within the relationship analysis and the interpretation of the subsequent results (Hair et al., 2010).

For the vignette experiment, analysis of the missing variables on the 1569 sets of data indicated that there were only four cases of missing values located in the variable of job satisfaction. Table 4.1 presents the missing values based on individual variables; Table 4.2 presents the missing values based on the missing values per case for the experiment.

Table 4.1
Analysis of missing values based on variables (experiment)

Variables	Missing cases (<i>N</i>)	Percentage of total responses
Job1	1	0.1
Job2	3	0.2
Job3	3	0.2
Job4	6	0.4

Table 4.2
Analysis of missing values per case (experiment)

Number of missing data per case	Number of cases (<i>N</i>)	Percentage of the total cases with missing data	Percentage of total responses
1	2	50.0	0.2
2	0	0.0	0.0
3	1	25.0	0.1
4	1	25.0	0.1
Total	4	100.0	

For the survey, an analysis of the missing variables of the 336 sets of data and 42 items indicated the majority of missing values were located in questions regarding servant

leadership (10 cases) and leader involvement in the decision making process (4 cases). Table 4.3 presents the missing values (above 3 cases) based on the individual variables and Table 4.4 presents the missing values based on the missing data per case. For the full missing values analysis, please refer to Appendix D1.

Table 4.3
Analysis of missing values based on variables $N \geq 3$ (survey)

Variables	Missing cases (<i>N</i>)	Percentage of total responses
SL1	3	0.89
SL3	3	0.89
Inv2	3	0.89
Inv4	3	0.89
Inv5	3	0.89

Table 4.4
Analysis of missing values per case (survey)

Number of missing data per case	Number of cases (<i>N</i>)	Percentage of the total cases with missing data	Percentage of total responses
1	10	55.6	3.0
2	1	5.6	0.3
3	4	22.2	1.2
5	1	5.6	0.3
11	1	5.6	0.3
39	1	5.6	0.3
Total	18	100.0	

The problem with the missing values on the servant leadership dimensions (SL1 and SL3) can be attributed to the nature of the questions. These questions refer to the service and responsibilities of the leader which are not commonplace in the standard employee/employer relationship. It can be argued that the employees may not have been sure how to answer the question, thus leaving it blank. This argument is strengthened by leader involvement being the other main source of missing values (Inv2, Inv4 and Inv5). It is based on a relational style

of leadership that some employees may not have experienced and were therefore unsure how to answer the question. Of interest, the structural and self-analysis variables recorded the lowest missing values. This can be attributed to the straightforward nature of the questions, since they were based on solid concepts for structure and personal opinion for job satisfaction. Both Tharenou et al. (2007) and Hair et al. (2010) state that missing data over 10% of the sample can result in significant problems in how to deal with the data. As the missing data for this study were under 10%, Tharenou et al. (2007) suggest five main techniques for dealing with the missing data: pairwise deletion, listwise deletion, maximum likelihood, multiple imputation and mean substitution. As discussed in *Chapter Three*, pairwise deletion was chosen due to its numerous advantages. In particular, as the majority of the missing data for the survey lay within one construct, the rationale for pairwise deletion was further strengthened, because the other constructs can be used for analysis (Hair et al., 2010). By undertaking the pairwise method of deletion the maximum valid data are still retained for analysis (Tharenou et al., 2007).

4.1.2 Outliers and Normality

Hair et al. (2010) recommend the use of z-scores in order to check univariate outliers. As the two sample sizes exceeded 80, it is recommended that the z-scores should not exceed ± 4 . As no value exceeded ± 4 , the sample did not have any significant problems with outliers. Pallant (2007) suggests that to test normality of the data set, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic should be used. However, as she identified, large samples will commonly not pass this test. Therefore, as proposed by Coakes and Steed (2010), normality is checked at a later stage, subjecting the data to a confirmatory factor analysis. This is seen as a more robust response against the violation of normality (Coakes et al., 2010). In the later stage of analysis, the composite scores were subjected to further tests on outliers and normality.

4.2 Manipulation Checks

In order to test if the manipulations in the vignette experiments were effective, a pilot study was conducted with 77 business students (40 male, 27 female, 10 missing; Mean age = 19.38, $SD = 1.49$). After reading the scenarios, the participants filled out a questionnaire with the leadership and leader involvement and dominance measures to be used in the organisational survey.

The group with a servant leader recorded a mean score of 3.86 ($SD = .72$) for the leader's servant leadership behaviours, whereas the group who had the narcissistic leader recorded a mean score of 1.64 ($SD = .69$) for servant leadership behaviours. A t -test revealed that the participants in the servant leadership condition felt their leader displayed more servant leadership behaviours ($t(71) = 13.49, p < .001$), thus confirming the manipulation. The group with narcissistic leaders recorded a mean score of 4.33 ($SD = .72$) for the leader's narcissistic leadership behaviours, whereas the group who had the servant leader recorded a mean score of 2.39 ($SD = .92$) for narcissistic leadership behaviours. A t -test revealed that the participants in the narcissistic leadership condition felt their leader displayed more narcissistic leadership behaviours ($t(71) = 10.11, p < .001$), thus confirming the manipulation.

The group with highly involved leaders recorded a mean score of 4.28 ($SD = .63$) for leader involvement in the decision making process, whereas the group who had the leader who displayed low levels of involvement in the decision making process recorded a mean score of 2.06 ($SD = 1.14$) for leader involvement. A t -test revealed that the participants in the highly involved condition felt their leader was more involved in the decision making process ($t(52) = 10.09, p < .001$), thus confirming the manipulation. The group with highly dominant leaders recorded a mean score of 4.69 ($SD = .53$) for leader dominance in the decision making process, whereas the group who had the leader who displayed low levels of

dominance in the decision making process recorded a mean score of 1.92 ($SD = 1.00$) for leader dominance. A t -test revealed that the participants in the highly dominant condition felt their leader was more dominant in the decision making process ($t(56) = 14.78, p < .001$), thus confirming the manipulation.

The group with high levels of formalisation received a mean score of 4.22 ($SD = .85$) for the level of organisational formalisation compared to the group with low levels of formalisation, which received a mean of 1.94 ($SD = 1.16$). A t -test revealed that the participants in the highly formalised condition felt their organisation had higher levels of formalisation than those in the low formalised condition ($t(58) = 9.29, p < .001$), thus conforming the formalisation manipulation. In regards to the centralisation manipulation, the participants in the highly centralised scenarios reported a mean score of 4.42 ($SD = .80$) for the level of organisational centralisation, as opposed to the participants in the low centralised scenarios, which reported a mean of 2.04 ($SD = 1.14$). A t -test revealed that the participants in the highly centralised condition felt their organisation had higher levels of centralisation than those in the low centralised condition ($t(68) = 10.13, p < .001$), thus conforming the centralisation manipulation. The differences in means are shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5
Mean ratings for the independent variables portrayed in the vignettes

Judgement of	Type of Vignette		t	p
	High	Low		
Leader Involvement	4.28	2.06	10.09	< .001
Leader Dominance	4.69	1.92	14.79	< .001
Formalisation	4.22	1.94	9.29	< .001
Centralisation	4.42	2.04	10.13	< .001
	SL	NL		
Servant Leadership	3.86	1.64	13.49	< .001
Narcissistic Leadership	2.39	4.33	-10.11	< .001

4.3 Scale Validity and Reliability

This section presents the validation of each construct that will be used in the analysis of variance (vignette experiment) and the regression analysis (organisational survey). For the vignette experiment, the four items will be reduced to the one job satisfaction latent variable, and for the survey the 69 items will be reduced to eight latent variables (servant leadership, transformational leadership, leader involvement, leader dominance, formalisation, centralisation, environmental competitiveness and job satisfaction).

4.3.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Reliability Analysis

There are two major phases of construct analysis: validity and reliability analysis (Tharenou et al., 2007). In order to test construct validity, reference was taken from techniques employed by Ahire, Golhar and Waller (1996), which encompass content validity, criterion validity, unidimensionality, convergent validity, and discriminant validity.

Content validity, i.e., if the scale items cover the domain of interest, was established within *Chapter Two* and *Chapter Three*, where the justification for the scales was presented. The criterion validity is examined in *Chapters Five to Seven*, where the hypotheses are tested. Therefore unidimensionality, convergent and discriminant validity and reliability of the one latent variable for the experiment and the eight latent variables for the survey are illustrated in the following sections. A confirmatory factor analysis was used to test the unidimensionality and convergent validity. Kim & Mueller (1978) state that the loading onto a specified factor should be 0.30/0.40 or greater, but 0.40 has been the most commonly used criterion (Tharenou et al., 2007).

4.3.1.1 *The Measure of Servant Leadership*

To test the unidimensionality and convergent validity of the 18-item servant leadership measure, a confirmatory factor analysis was used. These items were combined to create the latent variable of servant leadership. The servant leadership variable is a shortened measure of the Sendjaya et al. (2008) 35-item scale. The initial result of the confirmatory factor analysis was that all of the items loaded strongly onto the factors above the 0.40 level. The first item of the servant leadership dimension, *'Is more conscious of his or her responsibilities than their rights'*, loaded at 0.41, slightly above the recommended criterion of 0.40. The Cronbach's alpha was then checked to see if the measure was more valid with the item removed. As the Cronbach's alpha only increased by 0.01 ($\alpha = 0.89$), and the item was crucial for content validity, the item was included for the analysis.

The measure of servant leadership was robust and the results are presented in Table 4.6. The absolute fit indices of normed chi-squared (χ^2) and RMSEA values were below 3 and 0.08, respectively, which indicates the robustness of the scales (Hair et al., 2010). Furthermore, as suggested by Hair et al. (2010), the CFI is also above the threshold of 0.90.

Table 4.6
Validity and reliability of the measures of servant leadership

Items	Loading paths	t-value	Cronbach's alpha
SL1: Is more conscious of his or her responsibilities than their rights.	0.41	-	0.88
SL2: Takes a resolute stand on moral principles.	0.63	6.462	
SL3: Uses power in service to other, not of his or her own ambition.	0.64	6.421	
SL4: Leads by personal example.	0.82	7.045	
SL5: Emphasises on doing what is right rather than looking good.	0.77	6.947	
SL6: Practises what he or she preaches.	0.86	7.139	
SL7: Considers others' needs and interest above his or her own.	0.76	6.836	
SL8: Accepts me as I am, irrespective of my failures.	0.59	-	
SL9: Gives me the right to question his or her actions and decisions.	0.77	10.846	
SL10: Is not defensive when confronted.	0.76	10.485	
SL11: Respects me for who I am, not as he or she wants me to be.	0.80	13.998	
SL12: Listens to me with intent to understand.	0.84	11.145	
SL13: Encourages me to engage in moral reasoning.	0.69	-	
SL14: Helps me to generate a sense of meaning out of everyday life at work.	0.83	13.920	
SL15: Contributes to my personal and professional growth.	0.82	13.672	
SL16: Helps me to find clarity of purpose and direction.	0.87	14.414	
SL17: Articulates a shared vision to give inspiration and meaning to work.	0.79	13.297	
SL18: Enhances my capacity for moral actions.	0.78	15.525	
$\chi^2 (df = 126) = 297.45, \chi^2/df = 2.36, RMSEA = 0.064, CFI = 0.957$			

4.3.1.2 The Measure of Transformational Leadership

To test the unidimensionality and convergent validity of the 23-item transformational leadership measure, a confirmatory factor analysis was used. Transformational leadership was used in this study as a control variable to understand the unique predicative power of servant leadership above and beyond that of transformational leadership. The items were combined create the latent variable of transformational leadership. The initial result of the confirmatory factor analysis was that all of the items loaded strongly onto the factors above the 0.40 level.

The measure of transformational leadership was robust and the results are presented in Table 4.7. The reliability analysis provided a good Cronbach's alpha for the construct and the results also indicated that the deletion of any item would not significantly improve the reliability of the measure. The absolute fit indices of normed chi-squared (χ^2) and RMSEA values were below 3 and 0.08 respectively, which indicates the robustness of the scales (Hair et al., 2010). Furthermore, as suggested by Hair et al. (2010), the CFI is also above the threshold of 0.90.

Table 4.7
Validity and reliability of the measures of transformational leadership

Items	Loading paths	t-value	Cronbach's alpha
TL1: Has a clear understanding of where we are going.	0.79	-	0.95
TL2: Paints an interesting picture of the future of our group.	0.80	16.215	
TL3: Is always seeking new opportunities for the organisation.	0.72	14.275	
TL4: Inspires others with his/her plans for the future.	0.93	19.649	
TL5: Is able to get other committed to his/her dream.	0.87	18.126	
TL6: Leads by 'doing' rather than simply by 'telling'.	0.86	-	
TL7: Provides a good model for me to follow.	0.91	24.099	
TL8: Leads by example.	0.94	25.863	
TL9: Fosters collaboration among work groups.	0.89	-	
TL10: Encourages employees to be 'team players'.	0.91	25.529	
TL11: Gets the group to work together for the same goal.	0.89	24.237	
TL12: Develops a team attitude and spirit among employees.	0.90	24.609	
TL13: Shows us that he/she expects a lot from us.	0.76	-	
TL14: Insists on only the best performance.	0.94	17.753	
TL15: Will not settle for second best.	0.88	17.212	
TL16: Never acts without considering my feelings.	0.86		
TL17: Shows respect for my personal feelings.	0.91	23.572	
TL18: Behaves in a manner thoughtful of my personal needs.	0.91	23.152	
TL19: Never treats me without considering my personal feelings.	0.92	23.901	
TL20: Challenges me to think about old problems in new ways.	0.86	-	
TL21: Asks questions that prompt me to think.	0.87	20.696	
TL22: Has stimulated me to rethink the way I do things.	0.90	21.859	
TL23: Has ideas that have challenged me to re-examine some of the basic assumptions about my work.	0.83	19.266	
$\chi^2 (df = 224) = 580.43, \chi^2/df = 2.59, RMSEA = 0.069, CFI = 0.951$			

4.3.1.3 The Measure of the Leader's Decision Making Process

To test the unidimensionality and convergent validity of the two measures of the leader's decision making process (involvement and dominance), a confirmatory factor analysis was used. Both leader involvement and leader dominance were represented by five items. The initial result of the confirmatory factor analysis was that all items loaded strongly onto the factors above the 0.40 level. The leader's decision making process measures of involvement and dominance were robust and the results are presented in Table 4.8. The reliability analysis provided a good Cronbach's alpha for each construct and the results also indicated that the deletion of any item would not significantly improve the reliability of the measure. The absolute fit indices of normed chi-squared (χ^2) and RMSEA values were below the thresholds advised by Bollen (1989) and the CFI was also above the threshold of 0.90 (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 4.8
Validity and reliability of the measures of the leader's decision making process

Measures	Items	Loading paths	t-value	Cronbach's alpha
Involvement	Inv1: My CEO participates in most strategic meetings.	0.89	-	0.90
	Inv2: My CEO pays good attention in most strategic areas in our company.	0.80	18.088	
	Inv3: My CEO is well informed with the situations inside our company.	0.64	12.829	
	Inv4: My CEO contributes in most strategic decision making processes.	0.91	22.301	
	Inv5: My CEO has a great concern on most strategic decisions made in our company.	0.85	17.353	
Dominance	Dom1: My CEO appreciates other' opinions as long as they are aligned with his or hers.	0.69	-	0.87
	Dom2: My CEO is reluctant to compromise his or her decisions with others' views.	0.75	14.798	
	Dom3: My CEO strives to have his or her views implemented.	0.77	11.254	
	Dom4: My CEO tends to be dominant in the decision making processes.	0.80	11.174	
	Dom5: Most of the strategic decisions made in our company are voiced by the CEO.	0.66	9.433	
$\chi^2 (df = 30) = 116.28, \chi^2/df = 3.88, RMSEA = 0.093, CFI = 0.957$				

4.3.1.4 The Measure of Organisational Structure

To test the unidimensionality and convergent validity of the two measures of the organisational structure (formalisation and centralisation), a confirmatory factor analysis was used. Both formalisation and centralisation were represented by five separate items. The initial result of the confirmatory factor analysis was that all items loaded strongly onto the factors above the 0.40 level. Both of the organisational structure measures were robust and the results are presented in Table 4.9. The reliability analysis provided a good Cronbach's alpha for each construct and the results also indicated that the deletion of any item would not improve the reliability of the measure. The absolute fit indices of normed chi-squared (χ^2) and RMSEA values were below 3 and 0.08, respectively, which indicates the robustness of the scales (Hair et al., 2010). Furthermore, as suggested by Hair et al. (2010), the CFI is also above the threshold of 0.90.

4.3.1.5 The Measure of Environmental Competitiveness

To test the unidimensionality and convergent validity of the environmental competitiveness measure, a confirmatory factor analysis was used. The initial results of the confirmatory factor analysis was that all items loaded strongly onto the factors well above the 0.40 level. The environmental competitiveness measure was robust and the results for the survey are presented in Table 4.10. The reliability analysis provided a good Cronbach's alpha for the construct and the results also indicated that the deletion of any item would not improve the reliability of the measures. The absolute fit indices of normed chi-squared (χ^2) and RMSEA values were below 3 and 0.08, respectively, which indicates the robustness of the scales (Hair et al., 2010). Furthermore, as suggested by Hair et al. (2010), the CFI is also above the threshold of 0.90.

Table 4.9
Validity and reliability of the measures of organisational structure

Measures	Items	Loading paths	t-value	Cronbach's alpha
Formalisation	Form1: The company has a large number of written rules and policies.	0.62	-	0.82
	Form2: A "rules and procedures" manual exists and is readily available within this company.	0.61	11.393	
	Form3: There is a complete written job description for most jobs in this company.	0.79	10.295	
	Form4: The company keeps a written record of nearly everyone's job performance.	0.67	8.774	
	Form5: There is a formal orientation program for most new members of this company.	0.66	8.760	
Centralisation	Cent1: There can be little action here until a supervisor approves a decision.	0.76	-	0.89
	Cent2: A person who wants to make their own decisions would be quickly discouraged.	0.59	10.656	
	Cent3: Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer.	0.84	15.177	
	Cent4: Unit members have to ask their supervisor before they do almost anything.	0.91	14.819	
	Cent5: Most decisions made here have to have the supervisor's approval.	0.86	16.096	
$\chi^2 (df = 32) = 91.181, \chi^2/df = 2.85, RMSEA = 0.074, CFI = 0.962$				

Table 4.10
Validity and reliability of the measure of environmental competitiveness

Measures	Items	Loading paths	t-value	Cronbach's alpha
Environmental Competitiveness	Env1: Competition in our industry is cut-throat.	0.79		0.77
	Env2: There are many 'promotion wars' in our industry.	0.62	10.411	
	Env3: Anything that one competitor can offer, others can match readily.	0.64	10.742	
	Env4: Price competition is a hallmark of our industry.	0.79	12.527	
$\chi^2 (df = 2) = 5.62, \chi^2/df = 2.81, RMSEA = 0.074, CFI = 0.991$				

4.3.1.6 The Measure of Job Satisfaction

To test the unidimensionality and convergent validity of the job satisfaction measures, confirmatory factor analyses were used. The initial results of the confirmatory factor analyses were that all items loaded strongly onto the factors well above the 0.40 level. The job satisfaction measures were robust and the results for the survey are presented in Table 4.11 and in Table 4.12 for the experiment. The reliability analyses provided a good Cronbach's alpha for the construct and the results also indicated that the deletion of any item would not improve the reliability of the measures. The absolute fit indices of normed chi-squared (χ^2) and RMSEA values were below 3 and 0.08, respectively, which indicates the robustness of the scales (Hair et al., 2010). Furthermore, as suggested by Hair et al. (2010), the CFI is also above the threshold of 0.90.

Table 4.11
Validity and reliability of the measures of job satisfaction (survey)

Measures	Items	Loading paths	t-value	Cronbach's alpha
Job Satisfaction	Job1: I feel my job is meaningful.	0.84	-	0.89
	Job2: I like doing the things I do at work.	0.91	17.421	
	Job3: I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	0.80	15.066	
	Job4: My job is enjoyable.	0.79	15.134	
$\chi^2 (df = 1) = 2.44, \chi^2/df = 2.44, RMSEA = 0.066, CFI = 0.998$				

Table 4.12
Validity and reliability of the measures of job satisfaction (experiment)

Measures	Items	Loading paths	t-value	Cronbach's alpha
Job Satisfaction	Job1: I feel my job is meaningful.	0.74	-	0.89
	Job2: I like doing the things I do at work.	0.74	36.348	
	Job3: I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	0.87	30.465	
	Job4: My job is enjoyable.	0.83	30.185	
$\chi^2 (df = 1) = 2.273, \chi^2/df = 2.27, RMSEA = 0.029, CFI = 1.00$				

4.3.2 Discriminant Validity

In order for an item to have discriminant validity, every construct must be distinct from each other. In order to identify if each of the survey constructs is subject to discriminant validity, Venkatraman's (1989) procedure was followed, conducting three discriminant validity tests. Each of the pairs of constructs in the survey was subject to two confirmatory factor analyses. The first confirmatory factor analysis estimates the correlation between the two constructs, whereas the second fixed the correlation between the two constructs into one, thus creating two Chi-square values. The first Chi-square value is labelled χ^2_a and the second χ^2_b . The difference between the two Chi-square values is labelled χ^2_{a-b} with the degree of freedom equalling 1. The value of χ^2_{b-a} (df = 1) at $p < 0.01$ is 6.64. Therefore, if χ^2_{b-a} surpasses the value of 6.64, it can be established that there is discriminant validity between the paired constructs. Table 4.13 presents the results of the discriminant validity test of the organisational survey and indicates that all pass the criterion for discriminant validity, yielding a chi-square difference which is statistically significant at the $p < 0.01$ level. As the vignette experiment only measured one construct, job satisfaction, the discriminant validity test was not needed for this data collection method (Venkatraman, 1989).

Table 4.13
Discriminant validity test of the measures used in the survey

Test #	Constructs	Chi _b	Chi _a	Chi _{b-a} (df=1)
	<i>Servant Leadership with</i>			
1	Transformational Leadership	1805.5	1694.3	111.2
2	Involvement	692.2	524.8	167.4
3	Dominance	994.4	548.7	445.7
4	Formalisation	659.7	461.9	197.8
5	Centralisation	821.2	463.5	357.7
6	Job Satisfaction	622.2	436.9	185.3
7	Environmental Competitiveness	610.3	381.9	228.4
	<i>Transformational Leadership with</i>			
8	Involvement	944.8	859.2	85.6
9	Dominance	1337.5	810.7	526.8
10	Formalisation	889.6	755.8	133.8
11	Centralisation	1278.4	732.7	545.7
12	Job Satisfaction	857.3	732.9	124.4
13	Environmental Competitiveness	917.8	738.2	179.6
	<i>Involvement with</i>			
14	Dominance	1136.0	264.8	871.2
15	Formalisation	745.6	163.2	582.4
16	Centralisation	1244.1	160.8	1083.3
17	Job Satisfaction	896.3	161.2	735.1
18	Environmental Competitiveness	259.1	94.3	164.8
	<i>Dominance with</i>			
19	Formalisation	827.1	191.6	635.5
20	Centralisation	853.3	204.1	649.2
21	Job Satisfaction	1086.1	185.6	900.5
22	Environmental Competitiveness	283.7	113.5	170.2
	<i>Formalisation with</i>			
23	Centralisation	767.9	177.8	590.1
24	Job Satisfaction	700.5	159.5	541.0
25	Environmental Competitiveness	249.6	92.1	157.5
	<i>Centralisation with</i>			
26	Job Satisfaction	1208.1	176.4	1031.7
27	Environmental Competitiveness	197.4	75.9	121.5
	<i>Job Satisfaction with</i>			
28	Environmental Competitiveness	206.0	99.1	106.9

4.3.3 Assessing Common Method Variance

As outlined in *Chapter Three*, research which is conducted using solely self-report methods (albeit common in leadership research) may be subject to common method variance. In order to overcome any issues relating to common method variance, the marker variable of environmental competitiveness was applied (Lindell & Whitney, 2001).

Lindell and Whitney (2001) argue that effect of common method variance can be determined by examining the correlation matrix between the study variables and a theoretically unrelated marker variable, in this case environmental competitiveness. As displayed in Table 4.14, the smallest correlation with environmental competitiveness was leader dominance in the decision making process ($r = -.007, p = .905$). As this correlation is non-significant and weak, this test indicates that there is not a substantial amount of common method variance present in this study (Podsakoff et al., 2012).

Further, the influence of common method variance was tested through regression analysis. In each of the eight models (hypotheses) used in this research the marker variable did not change either the magnitude or the statistical significance of the relationship (Table 4.15). These results indicate that there is no evidence of a common method variance effect on the models because the statistical significance of all of the effects of interest remained the same and the differences within the magnitudes were minor (Lindell & Whitney, 2001; Williams et al., 2010). This further strengthens the existing procedural and empirical methods used in this study to reduce common method variable. From this, it can be seen that common method variance is unlikely to be an issue within the present research.

Table 4.14
Correlation test for common method variance

Study Variable	Marker Variable	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Servant Leadership	Environmental Competitiveness	.024	.671
Transformational Leadership	Environmental Competitiveness	.010	.850
Involvement	Environmental Competitiveness	-.058	.295
Dominance	Environmental Competitiveness	-.007	.905
Formalisation	Environmental Competitiveness	.017	.753
Centralisation	Environmental Competitiveness	.129	.019
Job Satisfaction	Environmental Competitiveness	.089	.104

Table 4.15
Regression test for common method variance

Study Variable on Job Satisfaction	Marker Variable	Original Model		Marker Model		Change	
		<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>
Servant Leadership x Involvement	Environmental Competitiveness	.086	.035	.081	.047	-.005	.012
Servant Leadership x Dominance	Environmental Competitiveness	-.072	.125	-.068	.150	.004	.025
Servant Leadership x Involvement x Dominance	Environmental Competitiveness	.001	.983	.003	.936	.002	-.047
Servant Leadership x Formalisation	Environmental Competitiveness	.011	.813	.001	.980	-.010	.167
Servant Leadership x Centralisation	Environmental Competitiveness	.006	.883	.014	.725	.008	-.158
Servant Leadership x Formalisation x Centralisation	Environmental Competitiveness	.123	.002	.127	.001	-.004	-.006
Servant Leadership x Involvement x Formalisation	Environmental Competitiveness	.075	.072	.072	.084	-.003	.012
Servant Leadership x Dominance x Centralisation	Environmental Competitiveness	-.140	.002	-.141	.002	-.001	0

4.3.4 Composite Variables

As multiple regression was used in the analysis of the organisational survey data, the number of variables needed to be manageable. Therefore the relationship analysis was carried out at the first-order construct level. After ensuring that each of the measured variables passed tests of reliability and validity, the composite (latent) variables could be composed. A composite (latent) variable is composed by calculating several individual items into a single composite measure (Hair et al., 2010). Hair et al.'s (2010) suggestions were followed, with the composite variable being represented by the mean value. This enables the method to be simplified without sacrificing accuracy.

The four job satisfaction items from the experiment were combined to create a job satisfaction composite variable. The 42 items in the survey (all of which were retained during the confirmatory factor analysis stage) were combined into their six composite variables. The means of each of the composite variables are presented in Table 4.16 for the organisational survey and Table 4.17 for the vignette experiment.

4.3.4.1 Missing Values

As discussed in section 4.1.1 (missing values), the pairwise deletion method was used to deal with missing values so that the maximum amount of data were able to be retained (Tharenou et al., 2007). As shown in Table 4.18, all missing values from the composite variables were below 10%. Therefore the missing values did not have a significant effect on the descriptive data analysis (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 4.16
Composite variables for the multiple regression analysis (survey)

Composite Variable	Number of		Mean	Std Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
	Items	(Final)				
SL (Servant Leadership)	18		3.62	0.750	-0.766	-0.327
Inv (Involvement)	5		4.32	0.737	-1.483	3.229
Dom (Dominance)	5		3.35	0.898	-0.271	-0.237
Form (Formalisation)	5		3.79	0.860	-0.584	-0.115
Cent (Centralisation)	5		2.58	0.919	0.433	-0.298
JobS (Job Satisfaction)	4		4.27	0.657	-1.017	2.229

Table 4.17
Composite variables for the analysis of variance (experiment)

Composite Variable	Number of		Mean	Std Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
	Items	(Final)				
JobS (Job Satisfaction)	4		3.00	0.906	0.029	0.124

Table 4.18
Missing value analysis for the composite variables

Variables	Sample size (N =)	Missing Values	
		Count	Percentage
SL (Servant Leadership)	326	10	2.97
Inv (Involvement)	333	3	0.89
Dom (Dominance)	334	2	0.60
Form (Formalisation)	335	1	0.30
Cent (Centralisation)	335	1	0.30
JobS (Job Satisfaction)	335	1	0.30

4.3.4.2 Outliers

As explained in section 4.1.2 (data screening), the tests used for identifying outliers and normality were used for the composite variables. A test for both univariate and multivariate outliers was conducted on the sample. In regard to the univariate outliers, z-scores with a threshold values of ± 4 were used (Hair et al., 2010). As the results from the vignette experiment and the organisational survey indicated that there were no outliers beyond this range, all composite scores were retained.

Since the survey used multiple composite variables, in addition to univariate outliers multivariate outliers were examined to measure the multidimensional position of each of the observations relative to a common point (Hair et al., 2010). Mahalanobis Distance (D^2) and a conservative statistical test of 0.001 was used to test the multivariate outliers (Hair et al., 2010). The measures of Mahalanobis Distance (D^2) were acquired by subjecting the variables to multiple regression analyses. These regressions were run on SPSS 21.0 and the Mahalanobis Distance (D^2) value was checked to ensure it did not exceed the recommended critical value in regard to its respective degrees of freedom. As no variable exceeded the recommended critical value, no multivariate outliers were present in this study.

4.3.4.3 Normality

The normality test for composite variables is important due to the composite scores being more continuous in their scaling than the raw data; therefore they are expected to reflect normality. Furthermore, as the composite scores were used in the multiple regression analysis, their normality is critical to determining the robustness of the result (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In order to assess normality, the skewness and kurtosis values were used to indicate if the composite scores violated these assumptions.

As presented in Table 4.16 and 4.17, none of the variables present a significant problem in regard to skewness or kurtosis. However, on inspection of the graphical Q-Q plots (see Appendix D2 for the survey Q-Q plots and Appendix D3 for the experiment Q-Q plot) of the variables of involvement and job satisfaction (organisational survey), they reveal a negative skewness in the data. However, it was decided to retain both variables for the following reasons. First, according to Kendall and Stuart (1969), skewness lower than 2 and kurtosis no greater than 5 can be considered as meeting normality criteria. Second, deleting values on the left tail to improve normality produces negative effects on the quality of data in terms of variance reduction. Third, the use of data transformation failed to improve the degree of normality. Finally, if the transformed data were used, subsequent problems would occur from using the transformed data. Although there are minor problems arising from normality, all variables were retained for the subsequent analysis.

4.3.4.4 Linearity

As suggested by Hair et al. (2010) and Pallant (2007), linearity was checked using graphical plots of the variables. The results are presented in Appendix D4. The graphical plots of linearity are able to provide qualitative assessment on the strength of the correlations amongst the constructs involved in multiple regression analysis in *Chapters Five to Seven*. The graphs presented no indication of other than linear forms of relationships. However, the relationship between servant leadership and transformational leadership was strong. This was not surprising as a correlation between transformational leadership and servant leadership is shown across a number of studies (e.g., Liden et al., 2008; Peterson et al., 2012; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). For example, the correlation between transformational leadership and Liden et al.'s (2008) seven servant leadership dimensions was 0.43, 0.53, 0.75, 0.76, 0.77, 0.77 and 0.79. The correlation in the current study between servant leadership and

transformational leadership is 0.88, although since it is below the 0.9 correlation coefficient threshold (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), it is cause for concern (Pallant, 2007).

In order to assess the effect of transformational leadership in the model, two analyses were run for each hypothesis with and without transformational leadership looking at the change in the magnitude, significance, tolerance and VIF for servant leadership, transformational leadership and the interaction effect (see Table 4.19). In each of the interaction hypotheses, the magnitude, significance, tolerance and VIF did not change dramatically. There was a substantial change in the tolerance and VIF of servant leadership when transformational leadership was removed, although these were within the limits advised by Kline (2010) and Pallant (2007).

As the tolerance values were above 0.1 and VIF values were below 10.0, as recommended by Kline (2010), and the bivariate correlation was below 0.9 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), the magnitude and significance of the hypotheses were not greatly affected and tests for discriminate validity (section 4.3.2) demonstrated that the two measures were distinct from each other. Following the recommendations to control for transformational leadership when analysing servant leadership (Liden et al., 2008; Peterson et al., 2012; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011), transformational leadership was retained for the analysis.

Table 4.19
Regression models with and without transformational leadership

Study Variable on Job Satisfaction	With TL				Without TL			
	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Tol</i>	<i>VIF</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>Tol</i>	<i>VIF</i>
Servant Leadership (Hypotheses 1-3)	.346	.004	.175	5.707	.402	.000	.418	2.393
Transformational Leadership (Hypotheses 1-3)	.070	.537	.190	5.263				
Servant Leadership x Involvement	.095	.031	.610	1.640	.096	.010	.611	1.636
Servant Leadership x Dominance	-.083	.137	.653	1.532	-.083	.193	.653	1.532
Servant Leadership x Involvement x Dominance	.002	.964	.571	1.751	.001	.983	.572	1.748
Servant Leadership (Hypotheses 4-6)	.250	.016	.211	4.744	.405	.000	.833	1.201
Transformational Leadership (Hypotheses 4-6)	.178	.082	.216	4.639				
Servant Leadership x Formalisation	-.002	.964	.874	1.144	.001	.982	.875	1.143
Servant Leadership x Centralisation	.007	.862	.838	1.193	.004	.934	.841	1.189
Servant Leadership x Formalisation x Centralisation	.130	.001	.807	1.239	.123	.002	.814	1.228
Servant Leadership (Hypothesis 7)	.371	.000	.191	5.232	.398	.000	.694	1.441
Transformational Leadership (Hypothesis 7)	.035	.749	.220	4.536				
Servant Leadership x Involvement x Formalisation	.075	.072	.349	2.866	.075	.071	.349	2.865
Servant Leadership (Hypothesis 8)	.419	.000	.171	5.838	.503	.000	.651	1.536
Transformational Leadership (Hypothesis 8)	.088	.393	.210	4.754				
Servant Leadership x Dominance x Centralisation	-.140	.002	.402	2.487	-.145	.002	.408	2.449

4.3.4.5 Homoscedasticity

For the organisational survey, homoscedasticity was tested using graphical plots between the standard residuals and standard predicted values of the seven regression models. The seven graphical plots are presented in Appendix D5. Upon inspection, the graphs do not perfectly centralise around zero values, thus they do not have random and symmetrical distribution. This is caused by the minor skewness in the data mentioned previously. However, none of these show the triangular shape which indicates substantial heteroscedasticity (Hair et al., 2010). Further, as presented in Table 4.16, the standard deviation values of the composite scores indicate relatively equal variances amongst the eight variables used within the organisational survey. Therefore it can be concluded that the homoscedasticity criterion is adhered to in the organisational survey.

4.4 Summary

This chapter has presented descriptive statistics of the data drawn from the vignette experiment and the organisational survey. For the experiment, the construct of job satisfaction has been validated from the confirmatory factor analysis with all items being retained due to strong factor loadings. Furthermore, the construct was subjected to missing values analysis and normality and outlier tests. In regard to the organisational survey, eight constructs have been validated from the 69 items, using confirmatory factor analysis, with all items being retained due to strong loading factors. Further, each of the constructs show strong reliability, with Cronbach's alpha exceeding the threshold value of 0.7. Composite (mean) scores were calculated for each of the constructs, and were subjected to outliers, normality, linearity and homoscedasticity tests to examine the underlying assumptions of multivariate analysis. The following chapters present the relationship analysis of the variables based on the research questions derived in *Chapter Two*.

Chapter Five:
Servant Leadership and
the Leader's Decision
Making Process

CHAPTER FIVE – SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND THE LEADER’S DECISION MAKING PROCESS

This chapter addresses how the leader’s decision making process affects the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. The leadership and the decision making process literature states that employees are more satisfied with leaders who are actively involved in the decision making process (Black & Gregersen, 1997; Carmeli et al., 2009; Parnell & Menefee, 1995). However, these studies do not focus on a particular leadership style, preferring to study the general relationship between the two variables (Kedia et al., 2002). From a similar perspective, research has shown that leaders who do not dominate the decision making process, i.e., they engage and listen to their employees ideas, will produce higher levels of employee satisfaction (Solansky et al., 2008). Although there is no theoretically established decision making process for different leadership styles, Tatum et al. (2003) state that each leader will gravitate towards the decision making process which best fits their leadership style and the organisation. For instance, servant leaders are naturally more inclined to be highly involved with their employees, and therefore they would be more inclined to choose a more involved form of decision making style to fit with their leadership style (Russell, 2001). With this in mind, the current study empirically addresses the way the leader’s decision making process affects the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

In analysing this relationship, this study analyses the effects of leader involvement and leader dominance in the decision making process on the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. This is done in two distinct settings, the first a simulated experiment and the second in an organisational setting. As servant leadership focuses on the personal and professional growth of their employees (Russell, 2001), it is argued that the effects of servant

leadership are stronger when coupled with a highly involved and low dominant style in the decision making process.

5.1 Servant Leadership and the Leader's Decision Making Process

Drawing from the upper echelon theory, the operationalisation of an organisation reflects the characteristics of the leader (Hambrick, 2007; Hambrick & Mason, 1982). In regards to the leader's decision making process, this entails a leader undertaking a decision making style which reflects his or her leadership philosophy. This mirrors the theory of fit, which states that there needs to be a level of congruency between the type of leader and the decision making process that they undertake within the organisation (Hanbury et al., 2004). In looking at servant leadership, it is still unknown which decision making process achieves internal fit with this leadership philosophy. Historically, there have been numerous perspectives according to which the leader's decision making process has been classified (Eberlin & Tatum, 2008). However, these perspectives focus too narrowly on basic elements such as information processing, as opposed to more quantifiable styles (Eberlin & Tatum, 2005). Therefore this study undertakes a quantifiable approach by looking at two distinct forms of leader decision making in an organisation: the leader's level of involvement and level of dominance.

Underpinning this analysis is Tymon's (1988) empowerment theory, with the level of leader involvement or dominance in the decision making process reflecting the motivational approach to empowerment. The motivational approach to empowerment was established by Conger and Kanungo (1988), who conceptualised empowerment as psychological enabling. This was achieved through employee feelings of self-efficacy and competence, the meaning and value of their work, the autonomy of their work processes and the employees' ability to impact and influence tasks and organisational outcomes (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas &

Velthouse, 1990). When the leader is helping maximise employees' feelings of empowerment, higher levels of job satisfaction among employees are obtained.

5.1.1 Leader Involvement

A leader who is highly involved in the decision making process allows greater interactions between him- or herself and the employee, which may strengthen the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship. First, employees who are engaged in the organisation report higher levels of job satisfaction (Gardell, 1977; Kearney & Hays, 1994; Parnell & Menefee, 1995; Weisbord, 2004). By being involved in the decision making process, the leader is able to engage employees by communicating the meaning and value of the tasks the employees are completing (Crane, 1976; Williams, 1998) and show employees firsthand how the decisions being made affect the outcomes of the organisation (Tatum et al., 2003). As servant leadership has been shown have a positive impact on employee engagement (Dannhauser & Boshoff, 2007; Kool & Van Dierendonck, 2012), when servant leaders then involve themselves in the decision making process, this should increase the positive impact servant leadership has on employee job satisfaction.

Second, the general belief is that, by having leaders involved in the decision making process with a group of employees, the probability of quality decisions increases (Black & Gregersen, 1997). As higher quality decisions are made, organisations generate higher performance (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010; Solansky et al., 2008). The effectiveness of the leader's involvement largely depends on the extent to which the leader is actively collaborating with employees in the strategic decisions made by the organisation (Tatum et al., 2003). Since servant leaders seek to prioritise leader-follower relationships (Liden et al., 2008), they are able to communicate to employees why decisions are being made, develop the enthusiasm and interest of the employees, and bring more expertise to the decisions being made (Williams,

1998). Employees who feel their leader is collaborating with them have been shown to demonstrate higher levels of job satisfaction (Tatum et al., 2003).

Third, drawing from the theory of fit, there needs to be a level of congruency between the type of leader and the decision making process that he or she undertakes in the organisation (Hanbury et al., 2004). Conceptual models of servant leadership have proposed that servant leadership is more effective when coupled with an involved approach to the decision making process (Hannay, 2009; Russell, 2001). Accordingly, servant leadership will achieve a greater level of internal fit, thus increasing employee job satisfaction, when the leader is involved in the decision making process. Under this condition, employees should react more positively to the creation of a shared vision, they should have the opportunity to express and debate their ideas with the leader, and they should be in a better position to be mentored by the servant leader, strengthening the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship.

***Hypothesis 1:** The positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be moderated by leader involvement in the decision making process, such that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be stronger when leader involvement is higher.*

5.1.2 Leader Dominance

A leader who is highly dominant in the decision making process may decrease employees' receptivity to their leader's servant leadership behaviours, weakening the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship. First, servant leaders may find it hard to stimulate their employees' positive emotions if leaders are dominant in the decision making process. When leaders undertake a more dominant approach to the decision making process, employees lose the feeling of self-efficacy because decisions are being made for them (Sorenson & Savage, 1989). Further, employee autonomy is reduced as the leader makes all decisions

without input from employees (Black & Gregersen, 1997). When feelings of self-efficacy are reduced, job satisfaction is also reduced.

Second, as servant leaders are very steadfast in their values and their own moral code (Reed et al., 2011), servant leaders are quite likely to have their views accepted and implemented, even if they consult with others while doing so. Although servant leaders are seen as a moral beacon in ethical decisions, with employees often using them as a sounding board, this adherence to a higher-level moral code could in turn be perceived to dominate the decision making process. This in turn causes employees to elicit high levels of acceptance of the leaders' direction (Sorenson & Savage, 1989). When leaders make their intentions clear via this dominant style, previous studies have shown that employees follow directives without question or discussion, disengaging with the leader and the organisation, thus reducing job satisfaction (Black & Gregersen, 1997; Parnell & Menefee, 1995; Sorenson & Savage, 1989).

Third, drawing from the theory of fit, there needs to be a level of congruency between the type of leader and the decision making process that he or she undertakes in the organisation (Hanbury et al., 2004). If a servant leader is displaying dominance in the decision making process, when the servant leader engages in servant behaviour such as serving or mentoring, employees may perceive these actions as possessing little authenticity. This creates a mismatch in behaviours on behalf of the servant leader, resulting in the employee being likely to approach servant behaviours with caution rather than enthusiasm. Thus, even if the leader is displaying servant characteristics, high levels of job satisfaction may not be generated when the leader is using high levels of dominance. By not dominating the decision making process, the servant leader is able to create a more collaborative environment, giving employees a greater sense of empowerment. As a consequence, the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be stronger when the leader is less dominant.

***Hypothesis 2:** The positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be moderated by leader dominance in the decision making process, such that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be stronger when leader dominance is lower.*

5.1.3 Leader Involvement and Leader Dominance

Employees feel a greater level of psychological enablement (motivational empowerment) when they are able to work with a highly involved leader in the decision making process who is non-dominant (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). This has been demonstrated in previous studies showing high levels of employee job satisfaction in organisations where the leader works with employees to produce high quality decisions, rather than dictating the decisions from the top office (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Jeffery et al., 2005; Schwarber, 2005). The shift in thinking has moved leaders away from a dominant approach to the decision making process to a more involved, collaborative approach (Carmeli et al., 2009). If servant leaders foster a collaborative approach, employees have a greater direct impact on the organisation, increasing their empowerment, thus strengthening the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship (Menon, 2001).

Employee engagement, shown to increase employee job satisfaction, is increased when a leader is actively involved in the strategic decisions made by the organisation, yet does not dominate this conversation (Kearney & Hays, 1994; Parnell & Menefee, 1995; Weisbord, 2004). Proponents of a leader-employee based decision making style state that employees want a greater role within the organisation and, more importantly, in the decisions of that organisation (Parnell & Menefee, 1995). If an employee feels engaged and invested in their workplace or a particular goal they will be motivated in their employment and display higher levels of satisfaction with their job (Black & Gregersen, 1997; Parnell & Menefee, 1995). By

working with employees on strategic decisions, the servant leader is able to display servant behaviours of collaboration, mentoring and building trust between him- or herself and employees. If employees feel empowered through the tasks they are undertaking and through the servant behaviours of the leader, their job satisfaction will be increased.

When looking at the theory of fit, and examining both leader involvement and leader dominance concurrently, internal fit must occur between servant leadership, the level of leader involvement and the level of leader dominance (Hanbury et al., 2004). Although leaders are able to be involved in the decision making process whilst being dominant, greater fit should occur when the leader involves themselves in the decision making process holistically, listening to the opinions of others and drawing from their ideas rather than dominating the conversation (Tatum et al., 2003). Further, as conceptual models of servant leadership have purported that servant leadership should be more effective when used in conjunction with involvement in the decision making process (Neuschel, 1998; Russell, 2001), servant leadership should achieve a greater level of internal fit, thus increasing employee job satisfaction, when the servant leader is involved in the decision making process, yet not dominant in this process.

***Hypothesis 3:** The positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be moderated by both leader involvement and leader dominance, such that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be stronger when the degree of leader involvement is higher and the degree of leader dominance is lower.*

5.2 Study One

The study sets out to draw conclusions about the hypotheses before the organisational survey was undertaken, therefore the hypotheses were first tested in a laboratory experiment which was high in internal validity (Mook, 1983). This method has previously been employed in leadership research by Van Knippenberg and associates (Rus et al., 2010, 2012; Van Ginkel & Van Knippenberg, 2012; Van Knippenberg & Van Knippenberg, 2005; Van Quaquebeke et al., 2011).

In the present study, participants believed that they were participating in a study from a leading Australian consultancy firm to assist them in improving their graduate program. The leadership style and the level of leader involvement and leader dominance in the decision making process were manipulated within the study. The dependent measure was the participants' self-rating on a job satisfaction scale.

5.2.1 Method

5.2.1.1 Participants and Design

1569 Australian business and economics students (656 male, 811 female, 102 undisclosed), with a mean age of 19.54 years ($SD = 1.79$), voluntarily participated in the study. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the 2 (servant or narcissistic leadership) x 2 (high or low leader involvement in the decision making process) x 2 (high or low leader dominance in the decision making process) conditions.

5.2.1.2 Procedure and Measures

Participants were randomly assigned one of the eight different decision making process manipulated case studies (servant leadership high involvement high dominance; servant leadership high involvement low dominance; servant leadership low involvement high

dominance; servant leadership low involvement low dominance; narcissistic leadership high involvement high dominance; narcissistic leadership high involvement low dominance; narcissistic leadership low involvement high dominance; and narcissistic leadership low involvement low dominance). They were given instructions on how to complete the case study and were informed that they were participating in a study from a leading Australian consultancy firm, assisting them in improving their graduate program. A consultancy graduate position was chosen because this area is of particular importance to the participants (business and economics students). This was essential because in order to accurately gauge job satisfaction, the participants needed to be interested in the job.

Participants were asked to put themselves in the scenario that they had just completed a three-year graduate program for a leading Australian consultancy firm, working with the same supervisor (leader) for their entire tenure. After reading the case study, participants answered questions regarding their perceived job satisfaction in the preceding scenario. After the experiment, participants were debriefed and thanked for their participation.

Dependent measures

The dependent measure for the experiment was employee job satisfaction. As with the organisational survey, four items were used to measure job satisfaction. The items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The alpha reliability is .89.

5.2.2 Results

For Hypothesis 1, the data were divided into four groups based upon the independent variables of leadership style and leader involvement in the decision making process as the moderator. These were divided into the conditions of servant leadership high leader

involvement, servant leadership low leader involvement, narcissistic leadership high leader involvement, and narcissistic leadership low leader involvement. The analysis was conducted using a one-way between groups ANOVA to examine if respondents with servant leaders who use high levels of involvement in the decision making process have a significantly higher mean in job satisfaction than those in the other conditions. The analysis indicated that there was a significant difference between the condition of servant leadership and high leader involvement and the other aforementioned conditions, $F(3, 1559) = 179.76, p < .001$. The effect size, calculated using eta square, was large at 0.26. Therefore Hypothesis 1 was supported.

In line with Hypothesis 1, planned comparison analysis revealed that a servant leader who is highly involved in the decision making process will elicit higher levels of job satisfaction from their employees ($M = 3.47, SD = .85$), than the other depicted environments (servant leadership low involvement $M = 3.23, SD = .76$; narcissistic leadership high involvement $M = 2.47, SD = .74$; and narcissistic leadership low involvement $M = 2.39, SD = .75$). Further, the lowest levels of job satisfaction were recorded in the narcissistic manipulation with low leader involvement. An illustration of the analysis is presented in Figure 5.1 and the means and standard deviations are presented in Table 5.1.

For Hypothesis 2, the data were divided into four groups based upon the independent variables of leadership style and leader dominance in the decision making process. These were divided into the conditions of servant leadership high leader dominance, servant leadership low leader dominance, narcissistic leadership high leader dominance, and narcissistic leadership low leader dominance. The analysis was conducted using a one-way between groups ANOVA to examine if respondents with servant leaders who use low levels of dominance in the decision making process have a significantly higher mean in job satisfaction than the other conditions. The analysis indicated there was a significant

difference between the condition of servant leadership and low leader dominance and the other conditions, $F(3, 1559) = 174.18, p < .001$. The effect size, calculated using eta square, was strong at 0.25. Therefore Hypothesis 2 was supported.

In line with Hypothesis 2, planned comparison analysis revealed that a servant leader who displays low levels of dominance in the decision making process will elicit higher levels of job satisfaction from employees ($M = 3.42, SD = .79$) than the other depicted environments (servant leadership high dominance $M = 3.29, SD = .83$; narcissistic leadership high leader dominance $M = 2.39, SD = .76$; and narcissistic leadership low leader dominance $M = 2.46, SD = .67$). Further, the lowest levels of job satisfaction were recorded in the narcissistic manipulation with high leader dominance. An illustration of the analysis is displayed in Figure 5.2 and the means and standard deviations are presented in Table 5.2.

Table 5.1
Descriptive statistics for leader involvement in the decision making process

Leadership Style	Decision Making Process	<i>N</i>	Job Satisfaction	
			<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Servant Leadership	High Involvement	486	3.47	.85
	Low Involvement	485	3.23	.76
Narcissistic Leadership	High Involvement	297	2.47	.74
	Low Involvement	295	2.40	.75

Table 5.2
Descriptive statistics for leader dominance in the decision making process

Leadership Style	Decision Making Process	<i>N</i>	Job Satisfaction	
			<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Servant Leadership	High Dominance	489	3.29	.83
	Low Dominance	482	3.42	.79
Narcissistic Leadership	High Dominance	279	2.39	.76
	Low Dominance	313	2.46	.67

Figure 5.1
Job satisfaction as a function of leadership style and leader involvement

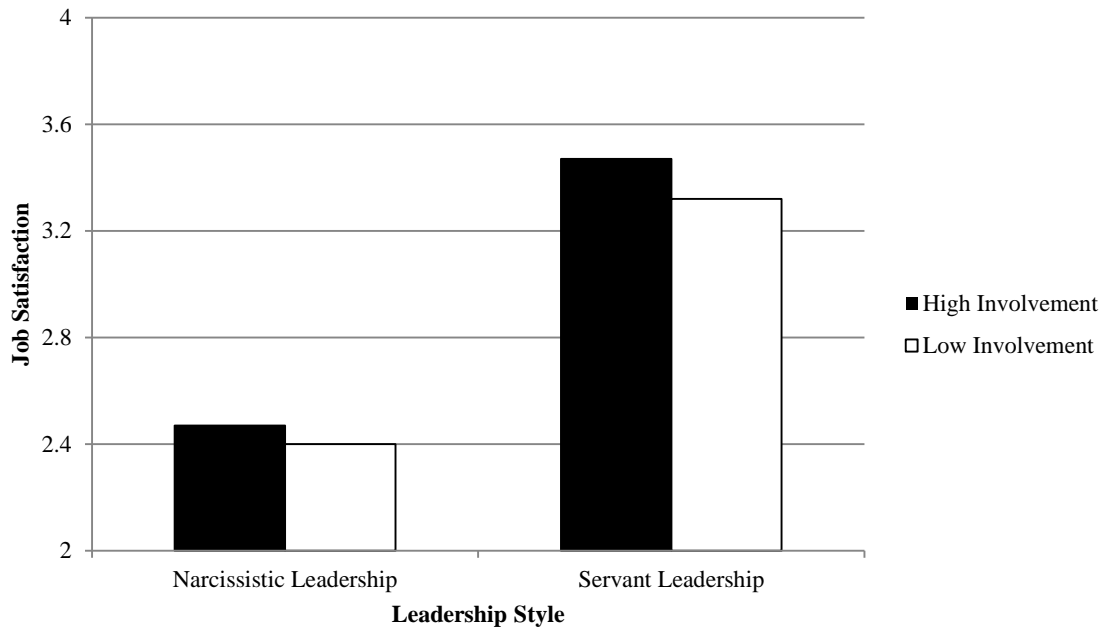
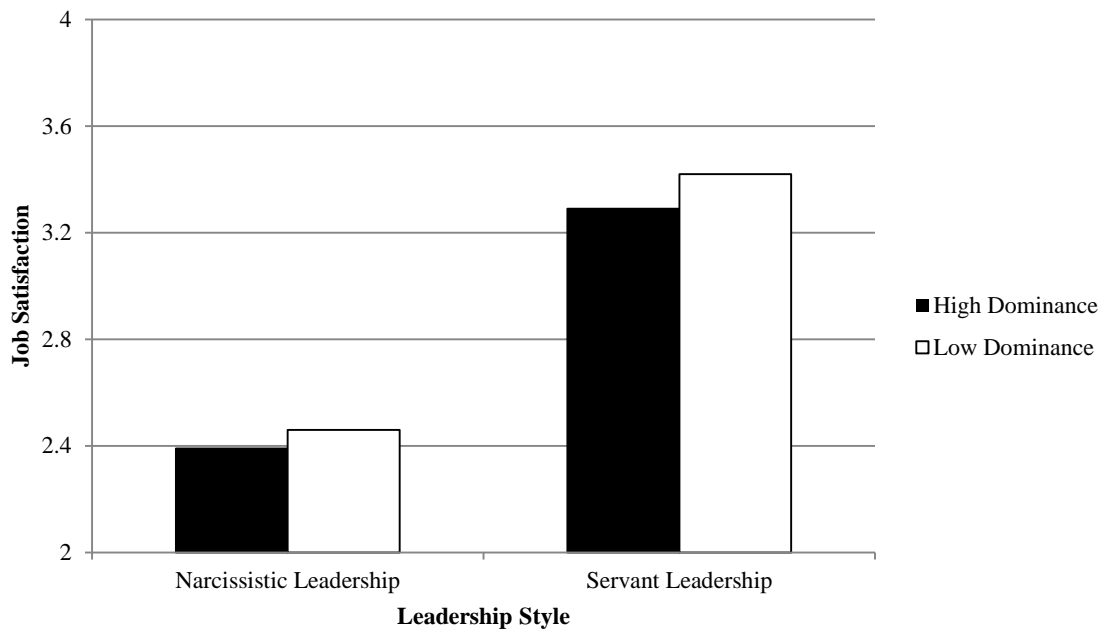


Figure 5.2
Job satisfaction as a function of leadership style and leader dominance



For Hypothesis 3, the data were divided into eight groups based upon the independent variables of leadership style, leader involvement and leader dominance in the decision making process. These were divided into the conditions of servant leadership high involvement high dominance, servant leadership high involvement low dominance, servant leadership low involvement high dominance, servant leadership low involvement low dominance, narcissistic leadership high involvement high dominance, narcissistic leadership high involvement low dominance, narcissistic leadership low involvement high dominance, and narcissistic leadership low involvement low dominance. The analysis was conducted using a one-way between groups ANOVA to examine if servant leaders who use high levels of involvement and low levels of dominance in the decision making process had a significantly higher mean in job satisfaction than those in other conditions. The analysis indicated there was a significant difference between the condition of high involvement and low dominance and the other seven aforementioned conditions, $F(7, 1555) = 80.94, p < .001$. The effect size, calculated using eta square, was a large effect at 0.27. Therefore Hypothesis 3 was supported.

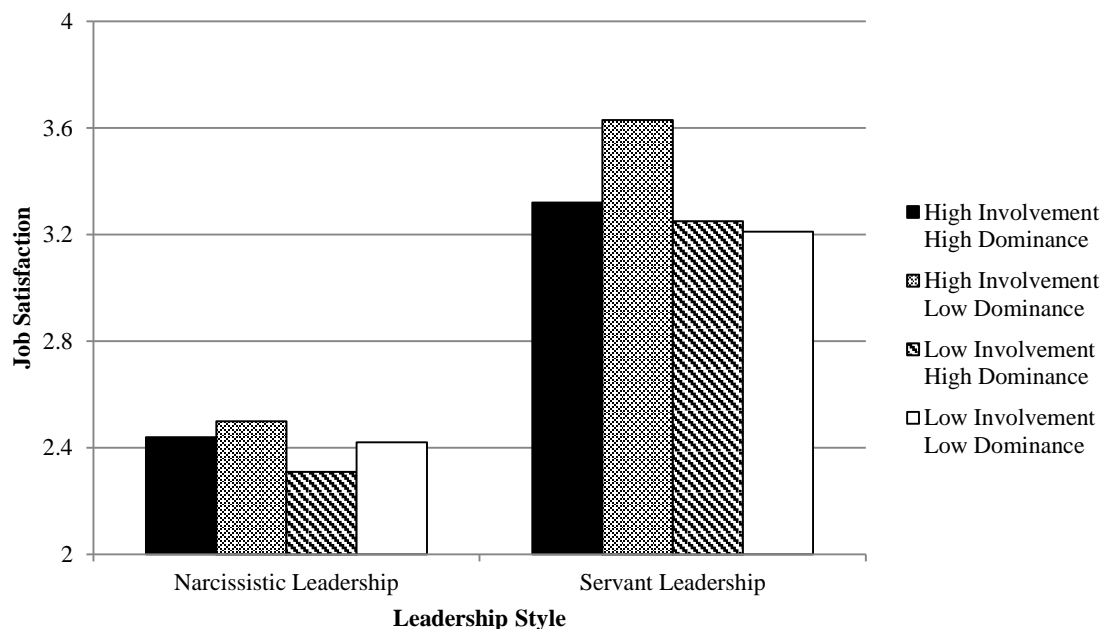
In line with Hypothesis 3, planned comparison analysis revealed that a servant leader who displays high levels of leader involvement and low levels of leader dominance in the decision making process will elicit higher levels of job satisfaction from employees ($M = 3.63, SD = .82$) than the other depicted leaders (servant leadership high involvement high dominance $M = 3.32, SD = .85$; servant leadership low involvement high dominance $M = 3.25, SD = .80$; servant leadership low involvement low dominance $M = 3.21, SD = .71$; narcissistic leadership high involvement high dominance $M = 2.44, SD = .76$; narcissistic leadership high involvement low dominance $M = 2.50, SD = .73$; narcissistic leadership low involvement high dominance $M = 2.34, SD = .77$; and narcissistic leadership low involvement low dominance $M = 2.42, SD = .72$). Further, the lowest levels of job satisfaction were recorded

in the narcissistic manipulation with low leader involvement and high leader dominance. An illustration of the analysis is displayed in Figure 5.3 and the means and standard deviation are presented in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3
Descriptive statistics for the leader's decision making process

Leadership Style	Decision Making Process	<i>N</i>	Job Satisfaction	
			<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Servant Leadership	High Involvement High Dominance	246	3.32	.82
	High Involvement Low Dominance	240	3.63	.82
	Low Involvement High Dominance	243	3.25	.80
	Low Involvement Low Dominance	242	3.21	.71
Narcissistic Leadership	High Involvement High Dominance	141	2.44	.76
	High Involvement Low Dominance	156	2.50	.73
	Low Involvement High Dominance	138	2.34	.77
	Low Involvement Low Dominance	157	2.42	.72

Figure 5.3
Job satisfaction as a function of leadership style and the decision making process



5.2.3 Discussion

In line with the hypotheses, the data from Study 1 suggested that the leader's decision making process (involvement and/or dominance) does have an effect on the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. From these findings it can be seen that servant leadership achieves internal fit with involvement in the decision making process to enhance employees' job satisfaction. Further, internal fit is also seen with servant leadership under the low dominance condition to enhance employees' job satisfaction.

When looking at these three variables (servant leadership, involvement and dominance in the decision making process), it can be seen that the greatest level of internal fit occurs when the servant leader is involved and not dominant in the decision making process. The impact that servant leadership has on employee job satisfaction was shown by testing it against the narcissistic condition. In particular, the lowest reported mean of job satisfaction was under the narcissistic condition with low involvement and high dominance. This is in direct contrast to the servant leader condition with high involvement and low dominance, which recorded the highest job satisfaction mean. This stark contrast in findings demonstrates the superior outcomes that can be achieved by achieving internal fit with a relational leadership style. Although these findings do justify the hypotheses, they do not offer support for the theoretical framework in an organisational setting (external validity). Therefore there is great value in testing the generalisability of the experimental findings of servant leadership in the field. In order to further validate the hypotheses, they must be run in an organisational setting.

5.3 Study Two

In the second study, the leader's servant and transformational leadership behaviours and decision making process and employees' job satisfaction were measured in an organisational context. Following the method established by Rus et al. (2012, pp. 18-19), the organisational survey was undertaken "to further bolster the confidence in our conclusions by a replication via a different method, the use of a different research population", as well as provide a broader conceptualisation of leader involvement and leader dominance and differing levels of servant leadership behaviours than was able to be achieved with the laboratory experiments. Further, this increases confidence in the findings by establishing that they are not limited to a specific methodological design (Denzin, 1989).

As servant leadership is being measured on a continuum in Study 2, low servant leadership behaviours can be quantifiably measured within the same scale using Aiken and West's (1991) simple slopes technique. This statistical technique was not suited to the experimental design because leadership was manipulated, not measured. Therefore narcissistic leadership was used as a substitute for low servant leadership behaviours in the planned comparison ANOVAs but not in the organisational survey. Therefore the narcissistic leadership scale is not needed to juxtapose high to low servant behaviours in this study.

5.3.1 Method

5.3.1.1 Participants and Procedure

The participants are direct reports of their respective organisations' CEO/GM/MD and were recruited from a mailing database of small to medium enterprises within Australia. The questionnaire was sent via postal mail to 1,500 randomly selected companies from the database. A cover letter accompanied the questionnaire explaining the objectives of the study

and asking participants to return the completed questionnaire to the researchers in the reply-paid envelope. Small to medium enterprises were chosen to ensure that those surveyed have direct contact with the CEO/GM/MD so they could accurately report on their leadership style and their level of involvement and dominance in the decision making process.

Of the 1,500 participants that were contacted, 336 questionnaires were returned, yielding a response rate of 22.4%. 336 responses was well above the recommended sample size of 200-250 for a survey design (Hair et al., 2010; Maxwell, 2000); 68% of the respondents were male and 60% were aged below 50. The respondents had worked for their respective leader for an average of 7.5 years.

5.3.1.2 Measures

Servant Leadership

The servant leadership behavioural scale by Sendjaya et al. (2008) was adapted to measure the servant leadership behaviours of the participants' respective leaders. The 18-item measure rates a leader's concepts, competencies and characteristics of servant leadership. All items administered in the survey used a 5-point Likert scale. An example item is: "My CEO/GM/MD contributes to my personal and professional growth". The Cronbach's (1951) alpha reliability of the scale is .88.

Leader Involvement

Involvement was measured using a 5-item scale based on measures from Mayer et al. (2011). This scale captures to what extent leaders actively participate in the decision making process. An example item from this measure is "My CEO contributes in most strategic decision making processes". The Cronbach's alpha reliability is .90.

Leader Dominance

A 5-item scale of dominance in the decision making process based upon work by Mayer et al. (2011) was used to measure the level of leader dominance. An example item from this measure is “My CEO is reluctant to compromise on his or her decisions with others’ views”. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability is .87.

Job Satisfaction

A 4-item scale adapted from Moyes and Redd (2008) was used to measure employees’ job satisfaction. An example item from this measure is “I like the things I do at work”. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability is .89.

Control Variables

The age and gender of employees and length of time working for the leader were included as control variables. These controls are necessary as they have been shown to influence the variables in previous research (Hu & Liden, 2011; Ng & Sears, 2012; Schaubroeck, Lam & Peng, 2011). The coding schemata for the control variables are presented in Table 5.4.

Furthermore, transformational leadership was included as a control variable to determine the true effect of servant leadership on job satisfaction above that of transformational leadership. By including transformational leadership in the analysis, we can be more certain that the effects of servant leadership are unique and do not become redundant when other leadership measures are introduced (Schaubroeck et al., 2011).

The Podsakoff et al. (1990) transformational leadership scale was used to measure the transformational leadership behaviours of the participants’ respective leaders. The 23-item measure rates the leader’s behaviours in regards to the dimensions of vision, role model, teamwork, high performance, individualised support and intellectual stimulation. All items

administered in the survey used a 5-point Likert scale. An example item is: “My CEO/GM/MD challenges me to think about old problems in new ways”. The alpha reliability of the scale is .95.

5.3.2 Results

Table 5.4 presents the descriptive statistics, reliabilities and inter-correlations for the variables used in the study. As predicted, servant leadership was significantly related to leader involvement, leader dominance and job satisfaction.

A hierarchical regression analysis was performed by entering the control variables, servant leadership and the study variables into different steps of the equation (variables were z-standardised prior to analyses). In relation to Hypothesis 1 (Table 5.5), the interaction term of servant leadership and involvement had a significant positive impact on job satisfaction, and the explained variance of the interaction term was also significant ($\Delta R^2 = .01, p < .05$). In accordance with recommendations by Aiken and West (1991), the interaction effect was illustrated using one standard deviation above and below the mean of involvement to represent high and low involvement in the decision making process (Table 5.6). As shown in Figure 5.4, the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction is stronger under the condition of high leader involvement in the decision making process (slope: $\beta = .45, t = 3.47, p < .001$) than that of low leader involvement in the decision making process (slope: $\beta = .25, t = 2.03, p < .05$). The regression and simple effects results provide support for Hypothesis 1, indicating that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction is stronger under the condition of a leader’s high involvement in the decision making process.

In relation to Hypothesis 2, the interaction term of servant leadership and dominance did not have a significant negative impact on job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .02, p = .14$). Thus Study 2 did

not provide support for Hypothesis 2, that leader dominance in the decision making process negatively moderates the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

In relation to Hypothesis 3, the three-way interaction effect of servant leadership, involvement and dominance in the decision making process did not have a significant impact on job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 < .00, p = .96$). Thus Study 2 did not provide support for Hypothesis 3, that leader involvement and leader dominance interact to moderate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Table 5.4
Descriptive statistics and correlations amongst the study variables

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age ^a	3.27	.98	-							
2. Gender ^b	1.25	.45	-.23**	-						
3. Tenure ^c	7.45	6.40	-.29**	.03	-					
4. Transformational Leadership	3.62	.77	-.07	.01	-.05	(.95)				
5. Servant Leadership	3.61	.77	.08	-.03	-.04	.88**	(.88)			
6. Leader Involvement	4.32	.74	.01	.04	-.02	.60**	.52**	(.90)		
7. Leader Dominance	3.35	.90	-.01	.14*	.04	-.36**	-.47**	-.02	(.87)	
8. Job Satisfaction	4.27	.66	.12*	-.05	.14*	.45**	.48**	.35**	-.28**	(.89)

Note, *N* = 335; Cronbach's *a* is indicated in brackets; Two-tailed tests; **p* < .05, ***p* < .01.

^a Age of employees was coded: 1 = <30 years, 2 = 30-39 years, 3 = 40-49 years, 4 = 50-59 years, 5 = >60 yrs.

^b Gender of employees was coded: 1 = Male, 2 = Female.

^c Tenure = length of time in years that the employee has worked for their current leader.

Table 5.5
Results of multiple regression analysis of job satisfaction onto servant leadership and leader involvement.

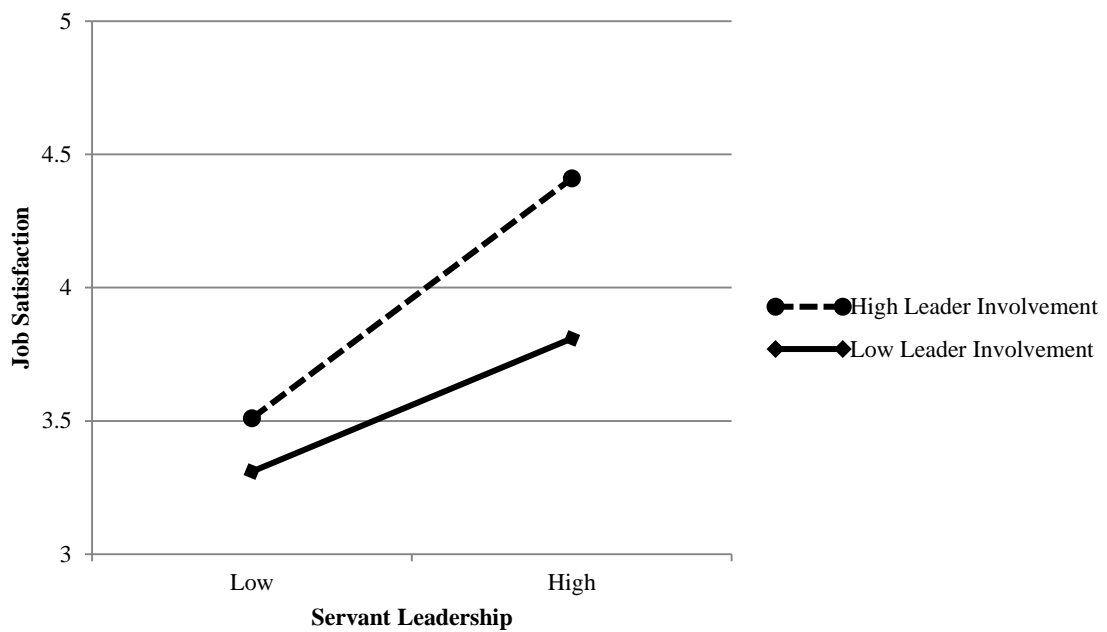
	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3			Step 4		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>
Control variables												
Age	.10 [†]	.06	1.83	.10 [†]	.05	1.84	.09 [†]	.05	1.69	.09 [†]	.05	1.69
Gender	-.04	.05	-0.81	-.02	.05	-.46	-.03	.05	-0.54	-.03	.05	-.54
Tenure	.14 ^{**}	.05	2.60	.14 ^{**}	.05	2.64	.14 ^{**}	.05	2.59	.14 [*]	.05	2.57
Transformational Leadership	.47 ^{***}	.05	9.12	.08	.11	0.73	.07	.11	.62	.07	.11	0.62
Main effects												
Servant Leadership				.29 [*]	.11	2.53	.35 ^{**}	.12	2.95	.35 ^{**}	.12	2.92
Involvement				.15 [*]	.07	2.31	.20 ^{**}	.07	2.75	.20 ^{**}	.08	2.61
Dominance				-.11 [†]	.06	-1.89	-.09	.06	-1.43	-.09	.07	-1.33
2-way interaction												
Servant Leadership x Involvement							.10 [*]	.04	2.25	.10 [*]	.04	2.17
Servant Leadership x Dominance							-.08	.06	-1.50	-.08	.06	-1.49
Involvement x Dominance							.08	.06	1.24	.08	.07	1.10
3-way interaction												
Servant Leadership x Involvement x Dominance										.00	.04	0.05
ΔR^2	.25			.05			.02			.00		
ΔF	23.45 ^{***}			6.16 ^{***}			2.11 [†]			0.00		
R^2	.25			.29			.31			.31		
Adjusted R^2	.24			.27			.28			.28		

Note, $N = 335$; [†] $p < .10$, ^{*} $p < .05$, ^{**} $p < .01$, ^{***} $p < .001$.

Table 5.6
Simple slopes for job satisfaction at +1 and -1 of the mean of leader involvement

Simple slopes for	Job Satisfaction			
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
High Involvement	0.45	0.13	3.47	< .001
Low Involvement	0.25	0.12	2.03	< .001

Figure 5.4
Moderating effect of involvement in the decision making process on the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.



5.3.3 Discussion

In line with Hypothesis 1, the results from Study 2 suggested that involvement in the decision making process does positively moderate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction, such that the more a leader is involved in the decision making process, the stronger the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction, thereby confirming the findings from Study 1 that servant leadership achieves internal fit with involvement in the decision making process to enhance employees' job satisfaction.

However, the second hypothesis was not confirmed. Table 5.4 showed that there was a negative relationship between leader dominance and servant leadership, but there was no evidence to suggest that the level of leader dominance in the decision making process moderates the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. Similarly, the third hypothesis was not supported in Study 2, indicating that servant leadership does not achieve internal fit with high involvement and low dominance to enhance employees' job satisfaction.

5.4 General Discussion

The two studies demonstrated that the servant leader's approach to the decision making process does have a significant effect on employees' job satisfaction. The first hypothesis, that leader involvement in the decision making process positively moderates the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction, was found to be supported across the two studies, but the organisational survey did not support the latter two hypotheses.

In regards to Hypothesis 1, leader involvement in the decision making process did positively moderate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. Both studies indicated that when a leader displayed servant behaviours over narcissistic behaviours (or low

servant leadership behaviours) and the leader was involved in the decision making process, higher levels of employee job satisfaction were attained. This research demonstrates the effect servant leadership has on employees above and beyond that of a narcissistic approach (Peterson et al., 2012). Further, this research creates context for the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship. Previously the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship had only been looked at without moderating factors. This research has started to bridge this gap, demonstrating that the way in which leaders approach the decision making process does have a significant effect on their employees' job satisfaction. Previous research has demonstrated that employees' job satisfaction is increased when the leader delegates decision making authority to employees (Carmeli et al., 2009; Pollock & Colwill, 1987; Scott-Ladd & Marshall, 2004; Scott-Ladd, Travaglione & Marshall, 2006). The present study extends this theory because it provides empirical evidence that the leader needs to go further than just delegating decision making authority to employees. In order to increase levels of job satisfaction, it is better for the servant leader to be involved in the decision making meetings, working with the employees, not just delegating orders from their ivory tower. By this means employees are able to contribute to the organisation's direction and understand how their contribution benefits the organisation (Crane, 1976). This remains true regardless of the leadership style used, because both servant and narcissistic leaders elicited higher levels of job satisfaction amongst employees when they were involved in the decision making process.

In regards to Hypothesis 2, leader dominance in the decision making process negatively moderated the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction in Study 1, but this was not confirmed by Study 2. Of note was a strong negative correlation reported between leadership dominance in the decision making process and servant leadership ($\beta = -.47, p < .01$) and leadership dominance in the decision making process and job satisfaction ($\beta = -.28, p < .01$). This significant negative relationship, however, did not translate into moderating the

servant leadership job satisfaction relationship independently, or through a three-way interaction with leader involvement. Although this finding was non-significant, the strong negative correlation does provide empirical evidence for the interactions between servant leader and his or her employees. As servant leaders look to enhance the capacity of their employees through meaningful interactions (Bocarnea & Dimitrova, 2010; Liden et al., 2008), a dominant decision making process will reduce the servant leader's ability to empower employees and increase their self-efficacy because decisions are being dictated from the top (Sorenson & Savage, 1989; Tatum & Eberlin, 2007).

In regards to Hypothesis 3, servant leadership did not achieve internal fit with high leader involvement and low leader dominance in the decision making to enhance employees' job satisfaction in Study 2, but it was confirmed in Study 1. Looking at the results from Study 2, the correlation matrix showed a strong positive correlation between servant leadership and leader involvement ($\beta = .52, p < .01$), servant leadership and job satisfaction ($\beta = .48, p < .01$), and leader involvement and job satisfaction ($\beta = .35, p < .01$). Furthermore, there was a strong negative correlation between servant leadership and leader dominance ($\beta = -.47, p < .01$) and leader dominance and job satisfaction ($\beta = -.28, p < .01$). Although the three-way interaction was non-significant in Study 2, there are implications in these findings for servant leaders. First, as leaders are able to choose which decision making style they undertake (Eberlin & Tatum, 2008), the correlation matrix indicates that servant leaders are more likely to choose an involved decision making style. Further, they are less likely to choose a dominant decision making style due to the strong negative relationship between servant leadership and leader dominance. Conversely, this can also be seen as servant leaders are more likely to choose to be less dominant in the decision making process. Second, leader involvement showed a strong positive correlation with job satisfaction, reflecting the literature that states leaders who are involved in the decision making process will elicit higher

levels of job satisfaction amongst their employees (Parnell & Menefee, 1995; Weisbord, 2004). Further, leader dominance reported a strong negative correlation with job satisfaction, mirroring the leader dominance literature (Black & Gregersen, 1997; Parnell & Menefee, 1995). Conversely, this can also be seen as leaders who are less dominant in the decision making process will elicit higher levels of job satisfaction amongst their employees. Third, servant leadership showed a strong positive relationship with job satisfaction, which is in line with other servant leadership job satisfaction studies (e.g., Ding et al., 2012; Jaramillo et al., 2009a), showing that undertaking a servant leadership style correlates with higher employee job satisfaction. Looking at these results, although Hypothesis 3 was not supported, the correlation matrix does suggest a natural fit between servant leadership, high levels of leader involvement and low levels of leader dominance in the decision making process and high levels of employee job satisfaction.

From these results, the research has laid the foundations for the creation of a full model of situational applicability of servant leadership in future research. However, as this research only discusses one particular facet of the organisation, there is still a considerable gap in knowledge of other organisational characteristics such as organisational structure. The results from Study 1 and Study 2, however, do create an important first step in maximising employee job satisfaction. As shown across the two studies, servant leaders elicit higher levels of employee job satisfaction when the leader is highly involved in the decision making process. Furthermore, in regards to organisational structure, it has been argued that organisations with low organisation structure will assist relationship-based leaders (such as servant leaders) and leaders who are involved in the decision making process (Davis, Eisenhardt & Bingham, 2009; Shamir & Howell, 1999). Future research could explore a fuller model of moderating factors of the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship, as well as potential mediating variables.

5.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, the current research adds to the ever-growing body of research that demonstrates the advantages of servant leadership for employee outcomes (Barbuto Jr & Wheeler, 2006; Liden et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011). It also confirms that leader involvement in the decision making process strengthens the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. As such, the present research hopes to open new avenues of research in regards to organisational characteristics and their relationship with servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Chapter Six: Servant Leadership and Organisational Structure

CHAPTER SIX – SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

This chapter addresses how organisational structure affects the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. Researchers concur that leadership does not operate in a virtual vacuum, but is subject to the constraints of the organisation's structure (Osborn et al., 2002; Walter & Bruch, 2010). The role played by organisational structure on the effectiveness of leadership has largely been ignored by scholars (Katsikea et al., 2011; Porter & McLaughlin, 2006; Shamir & Howell, 1999; Wright & Pandey, 2010); therefore further research is needed to understand the boundaries and restrictions put upon servant leadership, and under which structural condition(s) organisations can reap the full benefits of this leadership style (Walter & Bruch, 2010). Research into transformational leadership has revealed that the impact of the leadership style diminished when it was confronted with a highly structured organisation (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Pawar & Eastman, 1997). As transformational leadership shares many traits with servant leadership (Stone et al., 2004), it can be argued that similar results should follow for servant leadership.

In considering this relationship, this study analyses the effects of the organisational structure characteristics of formalisation and centralisation on the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. This is done in two settings: first as a simulated experiment and second in an organisational setting. As servant leadership is a relational-based leadership style, it can be argued that the effects of servant leadership are better felt in an organisation which allows interactions between the leader and their subordinates (Russell, 2001). Therefore the overarching ideal is that an organisation which has low levels of structure will be better equipped to have its leader exhibit servant behaviours.

6.1 Servant Leadership and Structure

Organisational research has consistently concluded that empowered employees are more satisfied with their employment (Menon, 2001; Ugboro & Obeng, 2000) and that leaders who employ a relational-based leadership style, such as servant leadership, exhibit higher levels of job satisfaction amongst their employees as they do actively engage with their employees and empower them on a day-to-day basis (Castaneda & Nahavandi, 1991; Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010). The previous chapter considered the motivational (psychological enabling) form of empowerment by drawing upon leader involvement and dominance in the decision making process and how this enhanced the effects of servant leadership on employee job satisfaction (Menon, 2001). This chapter focuses on the structural approach to empowerment and how it enhances or reduces the effect of servant leadership on employees' job satisfaction.

The structural approach to empowerment looks at how the make-up of the organisation enables the servant leader to empower employees (Tymon, 1988). The structural approach has been described in numerous guises. Kanter (1977) wrote about the need for decentralisation and a flatter organisational hierarchy in order for empowerment to flow from the leader to the employees. London (1993) saw the dimension of structural empowerment differently, stating that regardless of the organisational structure, the empowerment of an employee is created only when he or she has complete authority to perform the job; this includes the ability to make decisions and not seek constant approval from supervisors. Menon (2001, p. 156) argues that the structural approach is the most common form of empowerment, because it can be simplified as "transfer[ing] some power to the less powerful".

In considering the fit between servant leadership and structural empowerment, it can be argued that higher levels of structure in the organisation will lower a servant leader's ability

to empower and interact with employees, thus reducing servant leadership fit with the organisation, and thereby lowering employees' job satisfaction (Kim & Jogaratnam, 2010). This relationship is researched here via the two most accepted and researched structural constructs: formalisation and centralisation (Katsikea et al., 2011). It is argued in the empowerment literature that having highly formalised and centralised procedures reduces the feelings of empowerment amongst employees, thus reducing their levels of job satisfaction (Auh & Menguc, 2007; Kanter, 1977; Menon, 2001).

6.1.1 Formalisation

Formalisation may decrease the interactions between leaders and employees, weakening the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship. First, leaders in a highly formalised environment may find it harder to interact with employees on a day-to-day basis due to the level of formalisation within the organisation, because tasks of the leader are often established in formalised procedures (Wright & Pandey, 2010). Therefore the leader is unable to engage in empowering behaviours to benefit his or her employees (Shamir & Howell, 1999; Wright & Pandey, 2010). Formalisation has been shown to weaken the relationship between various leader characteristics and subordinates' outcomes such as job satisfaction, attitudes and performance (Kerr, 1977), however leadership structure research has focused too narrowly on leadership as a construct, without looking at a particular leadership style (e.g. Howell, Bowen, Dorfman, Kerr & Podsakoff, 1990; Howell & Dorfman, 1981; Kerr, 1977). This means there is still a substantive knowledge gap in understanding how formalisation affects relational leadership styles, such as servant leadership, and the employee outcome of job satisfaction.

Second, adhering to highly formalised procedures can be a source of demotivation, lowering employee empowerment, engagement and morale, thus reducing employees' job satisfaction

(Auh & Menguc, 2007). Furthermore, previous studies have shown that the control mechanisms created by formalisation result in employees feeling constrained in their work, thus creating dissatisfaction and lowering employees' work commitment (Organ & Greene, 1981; Walton, 1985). Instead, it has been argued, leaders should seek to capitalise on their human capital, allowing employees to innovate, show self-initiative and have latitude in their day-to-day tasks (Fry, 1989; Lambert et al., 2006b). As a servant leader has belief in the abilities of each employee and seeks to empower them within their role, employees in turn should respond positively to these behaviours if this empowerment is not hampered by the level of formalisation within the organisation.

Third, the classical contingency theory states that organisational and individual outcomes are dependent on the goodness of fit between the structural variables, such as formalisation, and the environmental variables, such as the leader (Shenhar, 2001). Drawing on this theory, different leadership styles will be more effective under different levels of formalisation. In terms of servant leadership, a highly formalised environment should limit a servant leader's natural ability to empower employees due to restricted employee interactions, because formalised procedures have become a substitute for the leader. On the other hand, a less formalised organisation should allow the servant leader to engage in servant practices such as mentoring, developing a shared vision and collaboration with the employees (Sendjaya et al., 2008), thus increasing the leader follower interactions and, in turn, increasing employee job satisfaction (Rhoades et al., 2001).

***Hypothesis 4:** The positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be moderated by formalisation, such that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be stronger when formalisation is lower.*

6.1.2 Centralisation

Centralisation may decrease the receptivity of employees to their leader's servant behaviours, weakening the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship. First, a more centralised organisation will have decision making power originating from one or a few individuals, whereas a decentralised organisation will offer work teams more autonomy over the decisions that are made and the processes that are used (Dalton et al., 1980). Katsikea et al. (2011) argued that centralisation can be used by leaders and organisations as a control mechanism over their employees, guaranteeing to some extent a reduction of errors by employees who do not have the technical or informational skills to complete the set task. This can be appropriate for a manager who lacks the leadership ability to inspire and direct their workforce, but more often it causes employees to become disengaged in their workplace, thus reducing their job satisfaction (Aiken & Hage, 1966; Hage & Aiken, 1967; Lambert, Hogan & Allen, 2006a; Walter & Bruch, 2010). Wright and Pandey (2010) argue that having highly centralised procedures reduces the leader's potential to exercise leadership behaviours because he or she is inhibited by the constraints of the organisational structure. This means leaders are unable to draw upon their own strengths as leaders to advance employee morale or "provide an appealing vision by reinterpreting organisational objectives in ways that are more congruent with employee values" (Wright & Pandey, 2010, p. 78). As servant leaders have the ability to inspire and motivate their workforce, the level of centralisation reduces the ability of servant leaders to exercise their leadership behaviours, thereby weakening the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship.

Second, highly centralised processes have been shown to increase employee dissatisfaction with their work and reduce commitment to their workplace (Fry, 1989; Organ & Greene, 1981). Employees who are given job autonomy, i.e., some flexibility and control over their work processes and tasks, will produce higher levels of job satisfaction than those who have

less professional autonomy (Finlay, Martin, Roman & Blum, 1995; Katsikea et al., 2011; Poulin, 1994; Wycoff & Skogan, 1994). Employees who are enabled, through a decentralised organisational structure, to engage and provide input into the decision making of the organisation show higher levels of job satisfaction than those under a more centralised organisational structure (Jermier & Berkes, 1979; Kakabadse & Worrall, 1978; Locke & Schweiger, 1979). Therefore, scholars argue, employee job satisfaction will be higher when an organisation undertakes decentralised procedures (Auh & Menguc, 2007; Fry, 1989).

Third, drawing upon the classical contingency theory, servant leadership and centralisation should create a misfit, since under high levels of centralisation, the receptivity of employees to their leader's servant leadership behaviours may decrease, weakening the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction. By reducing employee autonomy, centralisation has previously been shown to trigger work alienation (Sarros, Tanewski, Winter, Santora & Densten, 2002) and weaken the emotional stimulation of transformational leadership behaviours (Walter & Bruch, 2010). Similarly, it is argued that centralisation should have the same effect on servant leadership. Due to the negative attitudes felt by employees, employees may perceive the visionary and empowering nature of the servant leader as unauthentic due to the lack of empowerment felt through the structural constraints. Therefore, even if the leader is displaying servant characteristics, positive employee emotions may not be felt in a centralised organisation, reducing the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship. Alternatively, in decentralised organisations, servant leaders will be able to empower employees through their actions, employees will experience greater autonomy over work processes, and employees should react more positively to the leader's servant behaviours, preserving the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship.

***Hypothesis 5:** The positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be moderated by centralisation, such that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be stronger when centralisation is lower.*

6.1.3 Formalisation and Centralisation

The preceding hypotheses examined the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction, with formalisation and centralisation used as independent moderators. However, in organisations it is common to find that they have differing levels of centralisation and formalisation, i.e., some organisations may have high levels of centralisation but low levels of formalisation (Katsikea et al., 2011). Under a highly centralised and formalised environment, leaders face reduced interactions with employees due to highly formalised procedures and are unable to empower employees due to high levels of centralisation (Auh & Menguc, 2007). As servant leaders are at their most effective when they are working with and empowering employees, high levels of organisational structure should diminish the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship.

It is argued in the empowerment literature that having highly formalised and centralised procedures will reduce the feelings of empowerment amongst employees, thus reducing their levels of job satisfaction (Auh & Menguc, 2007; Kanter, 1977; Menon, 2001). Previous studies have shown that employees are more engaged, thus more satisfied with their employment, when they have autonomy within their role to make decisions, instead of those decisions being dictated by a hierarchy (Katsikea et al., 2011), and they have freedom within their role over work practices (Lambert et al., 2006a). Employees have the ability to engage in such actions when the level of organisational structure is low (Auh & Menguc, 2007). Allowing employees to engage in these actions increases their job satisfaction and increases

their interactions with the servant leader, strengthening the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship.

Drawing upon the classical contingency theory, in order for servant leadership to have the greatest impact on job satisfaction, the servant leader must fit with the levels of formalisation and centralisation within the organisation (Shenhar, 2001). Under the conditions of high formalisation or high centralisation, the ability of servant leaders to have a significant impact on employee job satisfaction would be reduced, thus creating a misfit between leadership style and organisational structure, reducing employee job satisfaction (Shenhar, 2001). As argued above, in an organisation with low levels of organisational structure, employees will have greater interaction with the servant leader, enabling employees to benefit from the mentoring, visionary and collaborative servant behaviours. Further, employees will be empowered in their job through the autonomy given to them by the organisational structure and the trust in their decisions given to them by the servant leader, thus strengthening the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship. Therefore it is argued that servant leadership will achieve a greater level of internal fit, thus increasing employee job satisfaction, with low formalisation and centralisation.

***Hypothesis 6:** The positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be moderated by both formalisation and centralisation, such that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be stronger when the levels of formalisation and centralisation are lower.*

6.2 Study One

The study sets out to draw conclusions about the hypotheses before the organisational survey was undertaken, therefore the hypotheses were first tested in a laboratory experiment which was high in internal validity (Mook, 1983). This method has previously been employed in leadership research by Van Knippenberg and associates (Rus et al., 2010, 2012; Van Ginkel & Van Knippenberg, 2012; Van Knippenberg & Van Knippenberg, 2005; Van Quaquebeke et al., 2011).

Participants believed that they were participating in a study from a leading Australian consultancy firm to assist them in improving their graduate program. The leadership style and the level of formalisation and centralisation of the organisation were manipulated within the study. The dependent measure was the participants' self-rating on a job satisfaction scale.

6.2.1 Method

6.2.1.1 Participants and Design

1569 Australian business and economics students (656 male, 811 female, 102 undisclosed) with a mean age of 19.54 years ($SD = 1.79$) voluntarily participated in the study. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the 2 (servant or narcissistic leadership) x 2 (high or low formalised organisational environment) x 2 (high or low centralised organisational environment) conditions.

6.2.1.2 Procedure and Measures

Participants were randomly assigned one of the eight different manipulated case studies (servant leadership high formalisation high centralisation; servant leadership high formalisation low centralisation; servant leadership low formalisation high centralisation; servant leadership low formalisation low centralisation; narcissistic leadership high

formalisation high centralisation; narcissistic leadership high formalisation low centralisation; narcissistic leadership low formalisation high centralisation; and narcissistic leadership low formalisation low centralisation). They were given instructions on how to complete the case study and were informed that they were participating in a study from a leading consultancy firm, assisting them in improving their graduate program. A consultancy graduate position was chosen because this area is of particular importance to the participants (business and economics students). This was essential, because, in order to accurately gauge job satisfaction, the participants needed to be interested in the job.

Participants were asked to put themselves in the scenario where they had just completed a three-year graduate program for a leading Australian consultancy firm, working with the same supervisor (leader) for their entire tenure. After reading the case study, participants answered questions regarding their perceived job satisfaction in the scenario. After the experiment, participants were debriefed and thanked for their participation.

Dependent measures

The dependent measure for the experiment was employee job satisfaction. As with the organisational survey, four items were used to measure job satisfaction. The items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The alpha reliability is .89.

6.2.2 Results

For Hypothesis 4, the data were divided into four groups based upon the independent variables of leadership style and formalisation. These were divided into the conditions of servant leadership high formalisation, servant leadership low formalisation, narcissistic leadership high formalisation, and narcissistic leadership low formalisation. The analysis was

conducted using a one-way between groups ANOVA to examine if respondents who have servant leaders in low formalised organisations have a significantly higher mean in job satisfaction than those in the other conditions. The analysis indicated there was a significant difference between the condition of servant leadership and low formalisation and the other conditions, $F(3, 1559) = 174.22, p < .001$. The effect size, calculated using eta square, was large at 0.10. Therefore Hypothesis 4 is supported.

In line with Hypothesis 4, planned comparison analysis revealed that a servant leader under low organisational formalisation will elicit higher levels of job satisfaction from employees ($M = 3.44, SD = .79$) than the other depicted environments (servant leadership low formalisation $M = 3.26, SD = .82$; narcissistic leadership high formalisation $M = 2.43, SD = .72$; and narcissistic leadership low formalisation $M = 2.42, SD = .77$). Further, the lowest levels of job satisfaction were recorded in the narcissistic manipulations, with low formalisation slightly lower. An illustration of the analysis is displayed in Figure 6.1 and the means and standard deviations are presented in Table 6.1.

For Hypothesis 5, the data were divided into four groups based upon the independent variables of leadership style and centralisation. These were divided into the conditions of servant leadership high centralisation, servant leadership low centralisation, narcissistic leadership high centralisation, and narcissistic leadership low centralisation. The analysis was conducted using a one-way between groups ANOVA to examine if respondents who have servant leaders in low centralised organisations have a significantly higher mean in job satisfaction than those under the other conditions. The analysis indicated there was a significant difference between the condition of servant leadership and low centralisation and the other aforementioned conditions, $F(3, 1559) = 211.48, p < .001$. The effect size, calculated using eta square, was large at 0.29. Therefore Hypothesis 5 was supported.

In line with Hypothesis 5, planned comparison analysis revealed that a servant leader under low organisational centralisation will elicit higher levels of job satisfaction from employees ($M = 3.58$, $SD = .78$) than the other depicted environments (servant leadership low centralisation $M = 3.13$, $SD = .79$; narcissistic leadership high centralisation $M = 2.31$, $SD = .73$; and narcissistic leadership low centralisation $M = 2.55$, $SD = .74$). Further, the lowest levels of job satisfaction were recorded in the narcissistic manipulation with high centralisation. An illustration of the analysis is displayed in Figure 6.2 and the means and standard deviations are presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.1
Descriptive statistics for organisational formalisation

Leadership Style	Decision Making Process	<i>N</i>	Job Satisfaction	
			<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Servant Leadership	High Formalisation	488	3.26	.82
	Low Formalisation	483	3.44	.79
Narcissistic Leadership	High Formalisation	297	2.43	.72
	Low Formalisation	295	2.42	.77

Table 6.2
Descriptive statistics for organisational centralisation

Leadership Style	Decision Making Process	<i>N</i>	Job Satisfaction	
			<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Servant Leadership	High Centralisation	490	3.13	.79
	Low Centralisation	481	3.58	.78
Narcissistic Leadership	High Centralisation	293	2.31	.73
	Low Centralisation	299	2.55	.74

Figure 6.1
Job satisfaction as a function of leadership style and organisational formalisation

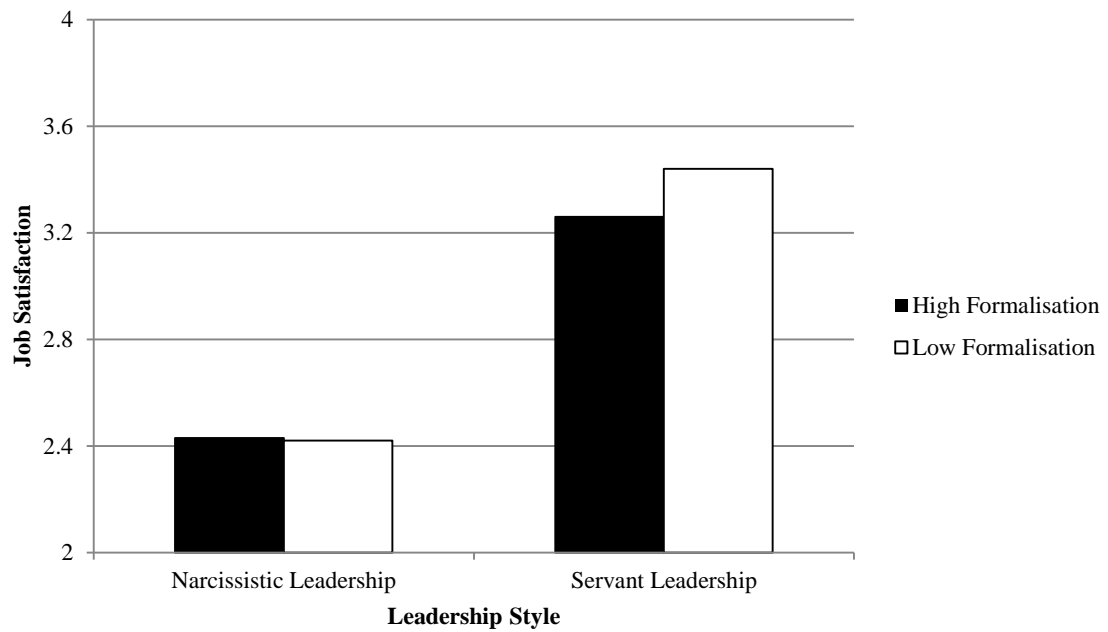
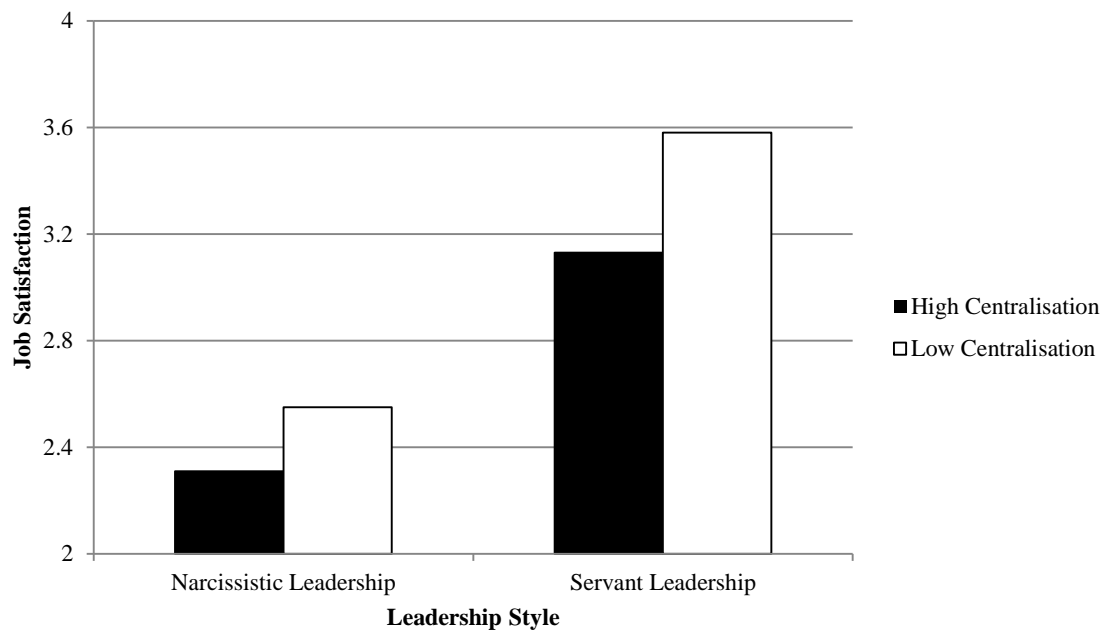


Figure 6.2
Job satisfaction as a function of leadership style and organisational centralisation



For Hypothesis 6, the data were divided into eight groups based upon the independent variables of leadership style, formalisation and centralisation. These were divided into the conditions of servant leadership high formalisation high centralisation, servant leadership high formalisation low centralisation, servant leadership low formalisation high centralisation, servant leadership low formalisation low centralisation, narcissistic leadership high formalisation high centralisation, narcissistic leadership high formalisation low centralisation, narcissistic leadership low formalisation high centralisation, and narcissistic leadership low formalisation low centralisation. The analysis was conducted using a one-way between groups ANOVA to examine if servant leaders who operate under low levels of formalisation and centralisation will elicit significantly higher means in job satisfaction than those under other conditions. The analysis indicated there was a significant difference between the condition of servant leadership low formalisation and low centralisation and the other seven listed conditions, $F(7, 1555) = 93.24, p < .001$. The effect size, calculated using eta square, was large at 0.30.

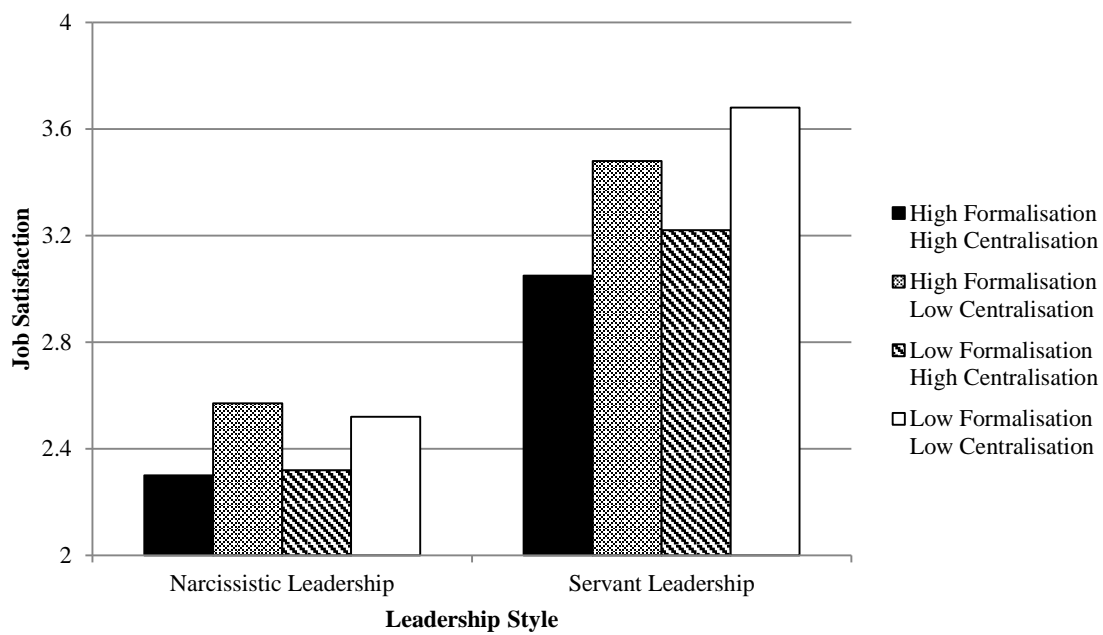
In line with Hypothesis 6, planned comparison analysis revealed that a servant leader who works under a low formalised and low centralised environment will elicit higher levels of job satisfaction from employees ($M = 3.68, SD = .76$) than in other conditions (servant leadership high formalisation high centralisation $M = 3.05, SD = .81$; servant leadership high formalisation low centralisation $M = 3.48, SD = .78$; servant leadership low formalisation high centralisation $M = 3.22, SD = .75$; narcissistic leadership high formalisation high centralisation $M = 2.30, SD = .69$; narcissistic leadership high formalisation low centralisation $M = 2.57, SD = .72$; narcissistic leadership low formalisation high centralisation $M = 2.32, SD = .78$; and narcissistic leadership low formalisation low centralisation $M = 2.5, SD = .76$). Further, the lowest levels of job satisfaction were recorded in the narcissistic manipulation with high formalisation and high centralisation. An

illustration of the analysis is displayed in Figure 6.3 and the means and standard deviation are presented in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3
Descriptive statistics for organisational structure (Study 1)

Leadership Style	Organisational Structure	Job Satisfaction		
		<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Servant Leadership	High Formalisation High Centralisation	245	3.05	.81
	High Formalisation Low Centralisation	243	3.48	.78
	Low Formalisation High Centralisation	245	3.22	.75
	Low Formalisation Low Centralisation	238	3.68	.76
Narcissistic Leadership	High Formalisation High Centralisation	149	2.30	.69
	High Formalisation Low Centralisation	148	2.57	.72
	Low Formalisation High Centralisation	144	2.32	.78
	Low Formalisation Low Centralisation	151	2.52	.76

Figure 6.3
Job satisfaction as a function of leadership style and organisational structure



6.2.3 Discussion

In line with the hypotheses, the data from Study 1 suggested that organisational structure (formalisation and/or centralisation) does have an effect on the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. That is, as the level of organisational structure increases, regardless of whether it is formalisation or centralisation, the lower the levels of job satisfaction that servant leaders will elicit from their employees. From these findings it can be seen that servant leadership achieves internal fit with low levels of formalisation to enhance employees' job satisfaction. Further, internal fit is also seen with servant leadership and low levels of centralisation to enhance employees' job satisfaction.

When looking at the interaction between formalisation, centralisation and servant leadership, it can be seen that the greatest level of internal fit occurs when the servant leader is paired with a low structured environment (both formalisation and centralisation). The impact servant leadership has on employee job satisfaction was shown by juxtaposing it against narcissistic leadership. In particular, the lowest reported mean of job satisfaction was under the narcissistic condition with high centralisation and high formalisation. This is in direct contrast to the servant leader condition with low levels of formalisation and centralisation, which recorded the highest job satisfaction mean. This stark contrast in findings demonstrates the superior outcomes that can be achieved by achieving internal fit with a servant leadership style. Although these findings do justify the hypotheses, they do not offer support for the theoretical framework in an organisational setting (external validity). Therefore there is great value in testing the generalisability of the experimental findings of servant leadership in the field. In order to further validate the hypotheses, they must be run in an organisational setting.

6.3 Study Two

In the second study, the leader's servant and transformational leadership behaviours, employees' job satisfaction and the structure of the organisation were measured in an organisational context. Following the method established by Rus et al. (2012, pp. 18-19), the organisational survey was undertaken "to further bolster the confidence in our conclusions by a replication via a different method, the use of a different research population", as well as provide a broader conceptualisation of formalisation and centralisation and differing levels of servant leadership behaviours than was able to be achieved with the laboratory experiments. Further, it increases confidence in the findings by establishing that they are not limited to a specific methodological design (Denzin, 1989).

As servant leadership is being measured on a continuum in Study 2, low servant leadership behaviours can be quantifiably measured within the same scale, using Aiken and West's (1991) simple slopes technique. This statistical technique was not suited to the experimental design, because leadership was manipulated, not measured. Therefore narcissistic leadership was used as a substitute for low servant leadership behaviours in the planned comparison ANOVAs but not in the organisational survey. Therefore the narcissistic leadership scale is not needed to juxtapose high to low servant behaviours in this study.

6.3.1 Method

6.3.1.1 Participants and Procedure

The participants are direct reports of their respective companies' CEO/GM/MD and were recruited from a mailing database of enterprises within Australia. The questionnaire was sent via postal mail to 1,500 randomly selected companies from the database. A cover letter accompanied the questionnaire explaining the objectives of the study and asking participants

to return the completed questionnaire to the researchers in a reply-paid envelope. Small to medium enterprises were chosen to ensure that those surveyed have direct contact with the CEO/GM/MD so they could accurately report on their leadership style.

Of the 1,500 participants contacted, 336 questionnaires were returned, yielding a response rate of 22.4%; 336 responses was well above the recommended sample size of 200-250 for a survey design (Hair et al., 2010; Maxwell, 2000); 68% of respondents were male and 60% were aged below 50. The respondents had worked for their respective leader for an average of 7.5 years.

6.3.1.2 Measures

Servant Leadership

An adaption of the Sendjaya et al. (2008) servant leadership behavioural scale was used to measure the servant leadership behaviours of the participants' respective leaders. The 18-item measure rates a leader's concepts, competencies and characteristics of servant leadership. All items administered in the survey used a 5-point Likert scale. An example item is: "My CEO/GM/MD contributes to my personal and professional growth". The alpha reliability of the scale is .88.

Formalisation

Formalisation was measured using a 5-item scale adapted from Provan and Skinner (1989). This scale captures the level of formalised procedures within an organisation. An example item from this measure is "There is a formal orientation program for most new members of this company". The alpha reliability is .81.

Centralisation

A 5-item scale of centralisation adapted from Provan and Skinner (1989) was used to measure the levels of centralisation within the organisation. An example item from this measure is “Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final answer”. The alpha reliability is .89.

Job Satisfaction

A 4-item scale adapted from Moyes and Redd (2008) was used to measure employees’ job satisfaction. An example item from this measure is “I like the things I do at work”. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability is .89.

Control Variables

The size of the organisation and length of time working for the leader were included as control variables. These controls are necessary because they have been shown to influence the outcome variable in previous research (Zhang & Peterson, 2011). The coding schemata for the control variables are presented in Table 6.4.

Furthermore, transformational leadership was included as a control variable to determine the true effect of servant leadership on job satisfaction above that of transformational leadership. By including transformational leadership in the analysis, we can be more certain that the effects of servant leadership are unique and do not become redundant when other leadership measures are introduced (Schaubroeck et al., 2011).

The Podsakoff et al. (1990) transformational leadership scale was used to measure the transformational leadership behaviours of the participants’ respective leaders. The 23-item measure rates the leader’s behaviours in regard to the dimensions of visions, role model, teamwork, high performance, individualised support and intellectual stimulation. All items

administered in the survey used a 5-point Likert scale. An example item is “My CEO/GM/MD challenges me to think about old problems in new ways”. The alpha reliability of the scale is .95.

6.3.2 Results

Table 6.4 presents the descriptive statistics, reliabilities and inter-correlations for the variables used in the study. As predicted, servant leadership was significantly related to formalisation, centralisation and job satisfaction.

A hierarchical regression analysis was performed by entering the control variables, servant leadership and the study variables into different steps of the equation (variables were z-standardised prior to analyses). In relation to Hypothesis 4 (Table 6.5), the interaction term of servant leadership and formalisation did not have a significant negative impact on job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .01, p = .985$). Thus Study 2 did not provide support for Hypothesis 4, that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction is stronger under the conditions of low formalisation.

In relation to Hypothesis 5 (Table 6.5), the interaction term of servant leadership and centralisation did not have a significant negative impact on job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .01, p = .632$). Thus Study 2 did not provide support for Hypothesis 5, that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction is stronger under the conditions of low centralisation.

Table 6.4
Descriptive statistics and correlations amongst the study variables

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Size ^a	3.90	1.16	-						
2. Tenure ^b	7.45	6.39	-.19**	-					
3. Transformational Leadership	3.62	.77	.03	-.05	(.95)				
4. Servant Leadership	3.61	.77	.01	-.04	.88**	(.88)			
5. Formalisation	3.79	.86	.14**	-.08	.27**	.24**	(.81)		
6. Centralisation	2.58	.92	-.03	-.04	-.23**	-.28**	.03	(.89)	
7. Job Satisfaction	4.27	.66	.02	.14*	.45**	.48**	.18**	-.27**	(.89)

Note, *N* = 335; Cronbach's *a* is indicated in brackets; Two-tailed tests; **p* < .05, ***p* < .01.

^a Number of employees in the organisation coded: 1 = <20, 2 = 20-49, 3 = 50-99, 4 = 100-249, 5 = 500-999, 6 = >1000.

^b Tenure = length of time in years that the employee has worked for their current leader.

Table 6.5
Results of multiple regression analysis of job satisfaction onto servant leadership, formalisation and centralisation.

	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3			Step 4		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>
Control variables												
Size	.04	.05	0.82	.03	.05	0.65	.03	.05	0.63	.02	.05	0.48
Tenure	.17**	.05	3.45	.17**	.05	3.45	.17**	.05	3.33	.16**	.05	3.27
Transformational Leadership	.46***	.05	9.28	.13	.10	1.31	.15	.10	1.41	.18 [†]	.10	1.74
Main effects												
Servant Leadership				.31**	.10	2.98	.30**	.10	2.90	.25*	.10	2.42
Formalisation				.08	.05	1.59	.08	.05	1.60	.13*	.05	2.41
Centralisation				-.15**	.05	-3.01	-.14*	.05	-2.61	-.20***	.06	-3.65
2-way interaction												
Servant Leadership x Formalisation							-.00	.05	-0.02	-.00	.05	-0.05
Servant Leadership x Centralisation							.02	.04	0.48	.01	.04	0.17
Formalisation x Centralisation							-.06	.05	-1.19	-.03	.05	-0.47
3-way interaction												
Servant Leadership x Formalisation x Centralisation										.13**	.04	3.35
ΔR^2	.24			.05			.01			.03**		
ΔF	31.78***			7.66***			.53			11.25**		
R^2	.24			.29			.29			.32		
Adjusted R^2	.23			.27			.27			.29		

Note, $N = 335$; [†] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

In regards to Hypothesis 6 (Table 6.5), there was a three-way significant effect on job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .03, p < .01$). Proceeding to simple slopes analyses and post hoc tests for slope differences (Dawson & Richter, 2006) (Table 6.6), it was discovered that, as predicted, the interaction shows a difference between the slopes of low formalisation and low centralisation and low formalisation and high centralisation ($t(327) = 2.05, p < .05$; Slope 1 *versus* Slope 3 in Figure 6.3), and of low formalisation and low centralisation and high formalisation and low centralisation formalisation ($t(327) = 2.51, p < .05$; Slope 1 *versus* Slope 2 in Figure 6.4). However, there was no difference shown between low formalisation and low centralisation and high formalisation and high centralisation ($t(327) = 0.08, p = .94$; Slope 1 *versus* Slope 4 in Figure 6.4) (see Table 6.7). The regression and simple effects results provide partial support for Hypothesis 6, indicating that there is a three-way interaction between servant leadership, formalisation and centralisation in regard to impacting employee job satisfaction. However, there was no significant difference between Slope 1 and Slope 4, as expected.

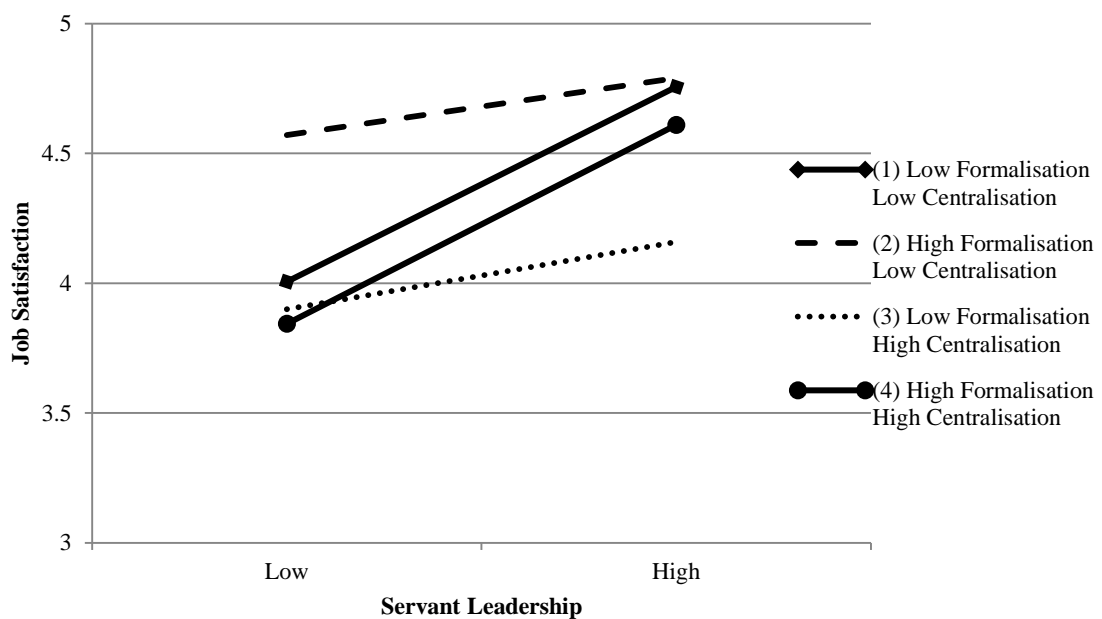
Table 6.6
Simple slopes for job satisfaction at +1 and -1 of the mean of formalisation and centralisation

Simple slopes for	Job Satisfaction			
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(1) Formalisation _{low} , Centralisation _{low}	0.38	0.12	3.05	< .01
(2) Formalisation _{high} , Centralisation _{low}	0.11	0.14	0.81	= .42
(3) Formalisation _{low} , Centralisation _{high}	0.13	0.13	0.99	= .32
(4) Formalisation _{high} , Centralisation _{high}	0.39	0.12	3.27	< .01

Table 6.7
Slope differences for job satisfaction at +1 and -1 of the mean of formalisation and centralisation

Slope differences for	Job Satisfaction			
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(1) and (2)	-0.26	0.11	2.51	< .05
(1) and (3)	-0.25	0.12	2.05	< .05
(1) and (4)	0.01	0.12	0.08	= .94
(2) and (3)	-0.02	0.15	0.12	= .91
(2) and (4)	0.27	0.11	2.44	< .05
(3) and (4)	0.26	0.13	1.90	< .10

Figure 6.4
Formalisation and centralisation as the moderators of the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction



6.3.3 Discussion

In relation to Hypothesis 4, Study 2 did not suggest that formalisation negatively moderates the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. Of note was the positive correlation between formalisation and servant leadership and job satisfaction. Although the literature which links leadership and formalisation does so as a substitute for leadership (reducing a leader's ability to influence), the formalisation and job satisfaction literature does report small positive correlations between the two (Agypt & Rubin, 2012).

Hypothesis 5, that centralisation negatively moderates the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction, was also rejected. However, the correlation matrix suggested that there was a negative relationship between centralisation and between centralisation and job satisfaction.

Although the two preceding variables did not moderate the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship on their own, nonetheless, when combined in a three-way interaction, as hypothesised in Hypothesis 6, they did moderate the relationship. The simple slope analysis showed that servant leadership and employee job satisfaction were positively related across all organisational settings, regardless of their level of formalisation and centralisation, although the hypothesis was only partially supported, because Slope 1 (low formalisation and low centralisation) and Slope 4 (high formalisation and high centralisation) were not significantly distinct. This is further elaborated on in the general discussion.

6.4 General Discussion

Servant leadership in regards to employee outcomes has garnered further attention in recent literature (Hoveida, Salari & Asemi, 2011; Ruiz, Ruiz & Martínez, 2011; Walumbwa, Hartnell & Oke, 2010), but to understand the context in which servant leadership is most

effective is of the utmost importance. In the current set of studies, the research demonstrates the impact of organisational structure on servant leaders and subsequently their impact on their employees. Although Hypotheses 4 and 5 were not supported in the organisational survey, the three-way interaction effect from Hypothesis 6 does offer several theoretical and practical implications.

First and foremost, this research creates context for the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship. In previous research the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction has only been looked at without moderating factors (Cerit, 2009; Jaramillo et al., 2009b; Mehta & Pillay, 2011). The current research has revealed that the levels of formalisation and centralisation in an organisation affect the impact that servant leadership has on employee job satisfaction. The research extends the foundations for the creation of a full model of servant leadership situation applicability. As discussed in *Chapter Five*, servant leadership was found to interact with leader involvement in the decision making process. This extends the situational research on servant leadership by adding structure into the model. The research examines the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship from the structural approach to empowerment, not taking into account the motivation approach to empowerment established in *Chapter Five*. Thus, in *Chapter Seven*, both the structural and the motivational approach to empowerment are assessed simultaneously with the leadership approach to empowerment to identify the internal fit between the differing types of empowerment.

The findings from the vignette experiment and the organisational survey were inconsistent regarding Hypotheses 4 and 5. In Study 1 it was found that individually both formalisation and centralisation moderated the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. However, the organisational survey in Study 2 did not support these findings.

The vignette experiments portrayed a supervisor who was constrained by the structure of the organisation. The organisational survey was based on the CEO/GM/MD who, in small to medium enterprises, have control of how the organisation is structured. Essentially, two different levels of management were looked at and organisational structure was found to have different impacts on job satisfaction across the differing managerial levels.

The vignette experiments demonstrated that a leader who was constrained by the organisation and had no flexibility within the procedures was able to utilise servant leadership abilities, mirroring the theory of formalisation as a substitute for leadership (Kerr, 1977). Further, by looking at the theory of fit (Olson et al., 2005), the vignette with high levels of formalisation created a misfit between the servant leadership behaviours and the formalised procedures in the organisation. Therefore, under the highly formalised vignette, the formalised procedures become a substitute for leadership because the procedures already in place at the organisation map out the direction for the leader to take in any given situation (Shamir & Howell, 1999; Wright & Pandey, 2010). However, under the less formalised vignette, these qualities have a greater ability to be utilised, because the low levels of formalisation are not acting as a substitute for leadership. Across the vignettes, the leader and the levels of formalisation are separate, although they do interact. As they are separate areas, respondents may be highly satisfied with one area of their job (the leader), but highly dissatisfied in another area (the organisation's structure). Therefore, even though the respondent's leader may be servant in nature, and thus should produce high levels of job satisfaction, when high levels of formalisation were present the job satisfaction mean was reduced. Therefore the level of formalisation had a strong effect on the link between leadership style and job satisfaction within the vignette experiments.

On the other hand, the organisational survey measures the CEO/GM/MD who would have perceived control of the formalisation process. As the leaders in SMEs are generally

responsible for the make-up of the organisation, the distinction between the leader and the organisational structure may not be as distinct in the employee's mind as it was for the vignette experiments. Drawing on the upper echelon theory, the operationalisation of the organisation should reflect the characteristics of the leader (Chaganti & Sambharya, 1987; Hambrick & Mason, 1984), and therefore, under a servant-led organisation, one would assume that the formalised procedures would call for employee input and collaboration, open communication between the leader and the employees and an emphasis on ethical behaviour (Reed et al., 2011; Schneider & George, 2011).

The discrepancy in results for centralisation follows the same pattern as formalisation. In the vignette experiments, having to refer to the supervisor for every decision that is made can be seen as a structural requirement of the organisation and not of the leader (Dalton et al., 1980). Employee dissatisfaction with high levels of centralisation that is reported throughout the literature is present in this case, moderating the relationship because the leader and the organisation are seen as not inter-related. In the organisational survey, once again the makeup of the organisational structure may be taken as a reflection of the leader, and therefore there may not be as much discrepancy with satisfaction with the leader and satisfaction with the level of centralisation in the organisational surveys as there would be in the vignette experiments. Unlike formalisation, there was a negative correlation between servant leadership and centralisation. This is not surprising, since servant leaders prefer to engage in collaboration, create a shared vision with employees and grant autonomy to those, employees which is not possible under a highly centralised organisational structure (Farling et al., 1999; Katsikea et al., 2011; Menon & Varadarajan, 1992). Further research is needed in this area to understand how servant leaders develop and implement organisational structure, specifically in organisations that would traditionally have high levels of organisational structure.

The most notable finding in this research question was the three-way interaction present in Hypothesis 6. Under the conditions of low formalisation and low centralisation (Slope 1) and high formalisation and high centralisation (Slope 4), servant leadership was found to have a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction. However, under the conditions of high formalisation low centralisation (Slope 2) and low formalisation and high centralisation (Slope 3), this positive relationship was not significant. Although originally hypothesised that the interaction between servant leadership and job satisfaction would be strongest (i.e., achieving the highest level of internal fit) when formalisation and centralisation were low, the results also indicated that this interaction is strong under a highly formalised and highly centralised organisational environment.

In the case of a low structured organisational setting, a servant leader is able to impact employees in a way that he or she otherwise could not in an organisation with structural boundaries. As the organisation has low levels of formalisation, rules, regulations and procedures are not used as a substitute for leadership, and the leader is readily available to work through any problems that may arise with employees (Howell et al., 1990; Kerr, 1988; Kerr & Jermier, 1978). This also applies to organisations with low centralisation (Dalton et al., 1980). As the leader is able to empower employees and display trust in them, employees' job satisfaction is likely to increase (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Therefore servant leadership is able to achieve internal fit with low formalisation and low centralisation to have a positive impact on employees' job satisfaction.

In contrast, Study 2 also presented findings that the impact of servant leadership on job satisfaction was very strong in the condition of high formalisation and high centralisation. At the outset, this finding was surprising, but upon further inspection the finding does make theoretical and practical sense. The impact that a servant leader can have over a highly structured organisation may be limited due to structural hindrances, but, for employees,

having a leader who displays servant leader behaviours is more preferable than one who does not. Drawing on the empowerment theory, employees operating under a highly structured organisational environment will experience low levels of empowerment due to lack of autonomy and engagement, and so their job satisfaction is low (Auh & Menguc, 2007; Tymon, 1988). When a leader does not empower employees (narcissistic leadership in Study 1 and low servant leadership behaviours in Study 2), these low levels of job satisfaction will remain constant, or possibly reduce further (Menon, 2001). However, when a leader who naturally empowers employees through leadership style (such as a servant leader) is introduced, employee empowerment is increased, and hence job satisfaction is increased (Liden et al., 2000). Therefore there is a significant difference in job satisfaction amongst employees under non-servant leaders and servant leaders, which produces the significant result seen in Study 2. A more detailed consideration of this relationship is discussed in *Chapter Eight*.

Although the servant leadership job satisfaction link was significant under the low formalisation and low centralisation and the high formalisation and high centralisation conditions, the other two conditions returned non-significant results (high formalisation low centralisation (Slope 2) and low formalisation and high centralisation (Slope 3)).

In the case of high formalisation and low centralisation, employees are empowered through the low centralised structure to be autonomous in their work practices (Lambert et al., 2006b). Furthermore, as there are also highly formalised procedures, there is very little ambiguity in the tasks that employees undertake (Auh & Menguc, 2007). As the employee's need to interact with the leader is reduced due to the high levels of formalisation, and the employee is given autonomy within his or her role, the servant leader's behaviours, such as collaboration and mentoring, do not achieve internal fit with the current organisational system. As servant leadership is not achieving that fit, the impact on job satisfaction a servant leader has over a

non-servant leader is not significantly felt under this organisational structure (Shenhar, 2001). This is shown in the result of Slope 2.

The condition of low formalisation and high centralisation also indicated a non-significant relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. Under this condition, employees are given the freedom to design their own work practices and decide how each task is going to be undertaken through low levels of formalisation (Pandey & Scott, 2002). However, due to high levels of centralisation, they are not given the freedom to proceed with their work practices until they are approved by the leader (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001). This in turn reduces those employee feelings of empowerment that may have been achieved through low levels of formalisation and the servant leader via structural and leader empowerment. Therefore servant leadership is not achieving internal fit under this condition, because the empowering behaviours leaders exhibit are not being transmitted to employees because of the high levels of centralisation. As servant leadership does not achieve internal fit with the organisational system, it is not having a significantly greater impact over job satisfaction than a non-servant leadership design. This is shown in result of Slope 3.

Of particular note was the fact that, as individual moderators, formalisation and centralisation did not significantly moderate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. However, when combined in a three-way model, this relationship was significant. As formalisation and centralisation are seen as two of the cornerstones of structural theory, and also are two of the most used processes by managers, they are more often used in practice together (Provan & Skinner, 1989). Although theoretically they are separate theories and can be applied to an organisation as separate entities, organisations will have both a desired level of formalisation and of centralisation. With this in mind, it is not surprising that these two structural elements interacted to impact the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction, but not individually.

6.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, this research extends the ever-growing body of research on servant leadership (Van Dierendonck, 2011). It creates an understanding of how the structure of the organisation interacts with servant leadership to impact employees' job satisfaction. This research hopes to create new research perspectives from which to examine the operationalisation of servant leadership and further develop the ways in which servant leadership can be best used in organisations. The previous two chapters have looked at the relationship between servant leadership (leadership approach to empowerment) and job satisfaction through servant leadership's interaction with the motivational approach to empowerment (the leader's decision making process) and the structural approach to empowerment (organisational structure) separately. In order to understand the fit between these variables further, they must be analysed simultaneously.

Chapter Seven:
Servant Leadership,
the Leader's Decision
Making Process and
Organisational Structure

CHAPTER SEVEN – SERVANT LEADERSHIP, THE LEADER’S DECISION MAKING PROCESS AND ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

This chapter addresses how the leader’s decision making process and organisational structure interact to affect the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. In the previous two chapters, the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction was researched looking at the fit between servant leadership (leadership empowerment) and one other form of empowerment, either motivational or structural. First, drawing upon the motivational approach to empowerment, the leader’s decision making process (involvement and dominance) was researched individually, and it was discovered that leader involvement in the decision making process had a positive impact on the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction, whereas leader dominance impacted this relationship negatively. Secondly, the structural approach to empowerment, organisational structure (formalisation and centralisation), was researched and it was found that both formalisation and centralisation were found to negatively impact the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. Furthermore, it was found that in organisations with low levels of formalisation and centralisation, the effects of servant leadership had a stronger impact on job satisfaction. Although all are important findings in relation to servant leadership, on their own they only give a narrow view of this relationship. In order to establish a multifaceted understanding of the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship, both the motivational and the structural approach to empowerment must be researched simultaneously with the leadership approach to see how these three elements interact to affect this relationship.

The study thus analyses the effects of leader involvement and formalisation on the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction because the level of leader

involvement in the decision making process should reduce under high levels of formalisation (Howell & Dorfman, 1981). Further, it analyses the effects of leader dominance in the decision making process and centralisation on the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction, because a highly centralised organisation should strengthen the leader's ability to be dominant in the decision making process (Davis et al., 2009). This is undertaken in two settings, one as a simulated example conducted in experimental conditions, the second a field study looking at the relationship in an organisational setting. It is argued that, in relation to the findings from Hypotheses 1 to 6, high levels of organisational structure and leader dominance in the decision making process negatively impact the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

7.1 Servant Leadership, the Leader's Decision Making Process and Organisational Structure

As discussed in Chapter Two, there are three distinct types of empowerment within an organisation which result in increased levels of employee job satisfaction: the structural approach, the motivational approach and the leadership approach (Menon, 2001; Tymon, 1988). By investigating the interaction between servant leadership, the leader's decision making process and organisational structure, we are analysing an interaction between the leadership approach (servant leadership), the motivational approach (the leader's decision making process) and the structural approach (organisational structure) of empowerment. Through a combination of these three types of empowerment, employees' job satisfaction can be greatly enhanced. In applying these three types of empowerment to the researched relationships, it can be concluded that the relationship between servant leadership (leadership approach) and job satisfaction will be weaker in the case of high levels of formalisation,

centralisation (structural approach) and leader dominance (motivational approach) and stronger in the case of high levels of leader involvement (motivational approach).

7.1.1 Involvement and Formalisation

As shown in *Chapter Five*, servant leaders produce the highest levels of job satisfaction amongst their employees when leaders are involved in the decision making process collaborating with employees. The ability of the servant leader to be involved in the decision making process is dependent on the level of formalisation within the given organisation (Wright & Pandey, 2010). Although leader involvement in the decision making process and organisational formalisation do come from different streams of management research, the implementation of leader involvement can be hindered by formalisation, and thus the fit between these variables is important for organisational success. Therefore research needs to consider these variables concurrently (Pleshko & Heiens, 2012).

One of the key advantages of a servant leader is the ability to empower employees through sharing power in the decision making process (Bocarnea & Dimitrova, 2010). This was empirically proven in Hypothesis 1, demonstrating that leader involvement in the decision making process positively moderates the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. This result added to the previous literature, which showed that, by being involved in the decision making process, the leader is able to increase employee job satisfaction (Crane, 1976; Tatum et al., 2003; Williams, 1998). As organisations implement more formalised procedures, servant leaders' involvement in the decision making process is likely to be reduced (Howell & Dorfman, 1981), and thus high levels of formalisation become a substitute for the servant leader, because employees look to the handbook not to the leader for guidance (Kerr, 1977). In order for servant leadership behaviours to have the greatest impact on employees, the ability of servant leaders to involve themselves in the decision making process

must not be hindered by stringent rules and regulations (Shamir & Howell, 1999; Wright & Pandey, 2010). When employees are engaged with the leader in making decisions, the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction should be strengthened.

Drawing on the classical contingency theory, there must be a goodness of fit between the structural variables, such as formalisation, and the environmental variables, such as the leader and the leader's decision making process, in order to achieve the greatest individual and organisational outcomes (Shenhar, 2001). In an organisation with low levels of formalisation, the servant leader is able to have greater involvement with employees, allowing the employees to benefit from the servant behaviours of collaboration, shared vision and mentoring, both during and outside decision making meetings, thus strengthening the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction (Hannay, 2009; Rhoades et al., 2001; Russell, 2001). Accordingly, servant leadership should achieve the greatest level of internal fit, and therefore elicit the highest levels of job satisfaction, when the servant leader is involved in the decision making process and the levels of organisational formalisation are low.

***Hypothesis 7:** The positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be moderated by both involvement and formalisation, such that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be strongest when the degree of leader involvement is higher and the level of formalisation is lower.*

7.1.2 Dominance and Centralisation

Centralisation may increase the likelihood of leader dominance in the decision making process because the final decision rests with them. A leader who displays highly dominant characteristics within a centralised environment should decrease employees' receptivity to

their leader's servant behaviours, weakening the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship. As stated previously, the leader's decision making process and organisational structure do come from different streams of management research, however centralised procedures may strengthen the leader's dominance in the decision making process; thus the fit between these variables is important to understand. Therefore research needs to consider these variables concurrently (Pleshko & Heiens, 2012).

First, the literature on leader dominance and the decision making process and centralisation of the organisational structure has indicated that both of these variables have a negative effect on the job satisfaction of employees (Black & Gregersen, 1997; Walter & Bruch, 2010). When the leader is dominant, employees' feelings of self-efficacy are reduced because all the decisions are being made by the leader, with little input by employees (Black & Gregersen, 1997). Further, previous studies have shown that employee job satisfaction is also reduced under highly centralised processes (Fry, 1989; Organ & Greene, 1981). These negative attitudes are apparent when the employee does not possess job autonomy (Katsikea et al., 2011), which is the case under high levels of leader dominance and centralisation; hence this reduces the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Second, previous studies on centralisation and transformational leadership found that the impact of relational-orientated approaches to leadership (e.g., transformational and servant) in a highly centralised organisation is different from that in a decentralised organisation (Cunningham, 2004). Under a decentralised structure, servant leaders are given more avenues to engage their followers with servant behaviours such as creating a shared vision and empowering the employees through the decision making process. However, under a highly centralised structure, there is a lack of flexibility for the leader, forcing the leader to make most of the decisions independently, thus dominating the decision making process (Davis et al., 2009). When employees feel engaged within their workplace, their job

satisfaction will increase (Solansky et al., 2008), thus strengthening the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Drawing on the classical contingency theory, there must be a goodness of fit between the structural variables, such as centralisation, and the environmental variables, such as the leader and the leader's decision making process, in order to achieve the greatest individual and organisational outcomes (Shenhar, 2001). As there is a natural fit between centralisation and leader dominance, the presence of the servant leader in this already-established system weakens the other elements of the sub-system, because the nature of the servant leader is to empower employees and promote autonomy, which works against the already-established organisational sub-systems. If the servant leader looks to display servant behaviours such as empowerment, mentoring or collaboration, employees may perceive these behaviours as possessing little authenticity and approach these behaviours with suspicion rather than enthusiasm. Thus, even if servant behaviours are being displayed, additional job satisfaction may not be generated. Therefore servant leadership should achieve the lowest levels of internal fit, and therefore the lowest levels of employee job satisfaction, when the servant leader is displaying dominant characteristics in the decision making process and the levels of organisational centralisation are high.

***Hypothesis 8:** The positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be moderated by both dominance and centralisation, such that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be weakest when the degree of leader dominance and the level of centralisation is higher.*

7.2 Study One

The study sets out to draw conclusions for the hypotheses before the organisational survey was undertaken, and therefore the hypotheses were first tested in a laboratory experiment that was high in internal validity (Mook, 1983). This method has previously been employed in leadership research by Rus, Van Knippenberg and associates (Rus et al., 2010, 2012; Van Ginkel & Van Knippenberg, 2012; Van Knippenberg & Van Knippenberg, 2005; Van Quaquebeke et al., 2011).

Participants believed that they were participating in a study from a leading Australian consultancy firm to assist them in improving their graduate program. The leadership style, the level of leader involvement and leader dominance of the leader and level of formalisation and centralisation of the organisation were manipulated within the study. The dependent measure was the participants' self-rating on a job satisfaction scale.

7.2.1 Method

7.2.1.1 Participants and Design

1569 Australian business and economics students (656 male, 811 female, 102 undisclosed) with a mean age of 19.54 years ($SD = 1.79$) voluntarily participated in the study. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the 2 (servant or narcissistic leadership) x 2 (high or low leader involvement in the decision making process) x 2 (high or low leader dominance in the decision making process) x 2 (high or low formalised organisational environment) x 2 (high or low centralised organisational environment) conditions.

7.2.1.2 Procedure and Measures

Participants were randomly assigned one of the 32 different manipulated case studies. They were given instructions on how to complete the case study and were informed that they were

participating in a study from a leading consultancy firm, assisting them in improving their graduate program. A consultancy graduate position was chosen because this area is of particular importance to the participants (business and economics students). This was essential, because, in order to accurately gauge job satisfaction, the participants needed to be interested in the job.

Participants were asked to put themselves in the scenario that they had just completed a three-year graduate program for a leading Australian consultancy firm, working with the same supervisor (leader) for their entire tenure. After reading the case study, participants answered questions regarding their perceived job satisfaction in the scenario. After the experiment, participants were debriefed and thanked for their participation.

Dependent measures

The dependent measure for the experiment was employee job satisfaction. As with the organisational survey, four items were used to measure job satisfaction. The items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The alpha reliability is .89.

7.2.2 Results

For Hypothesis 7, the data were divided into eight groups based upon the independent variables of leadership style, involvement in the decision making process and formalisation of organisational structure. These were divided into the conditions of servant leadership high involvement high formalisation, servant leadership high involvement low formalisation, servant leadership low involvement high formalisation, servant leadership low involvement low formalisation, narcissistic leadership high involvement high formalisation, narcissistic leadership high involvement low formalisation, narcissistic leadership low involvement high

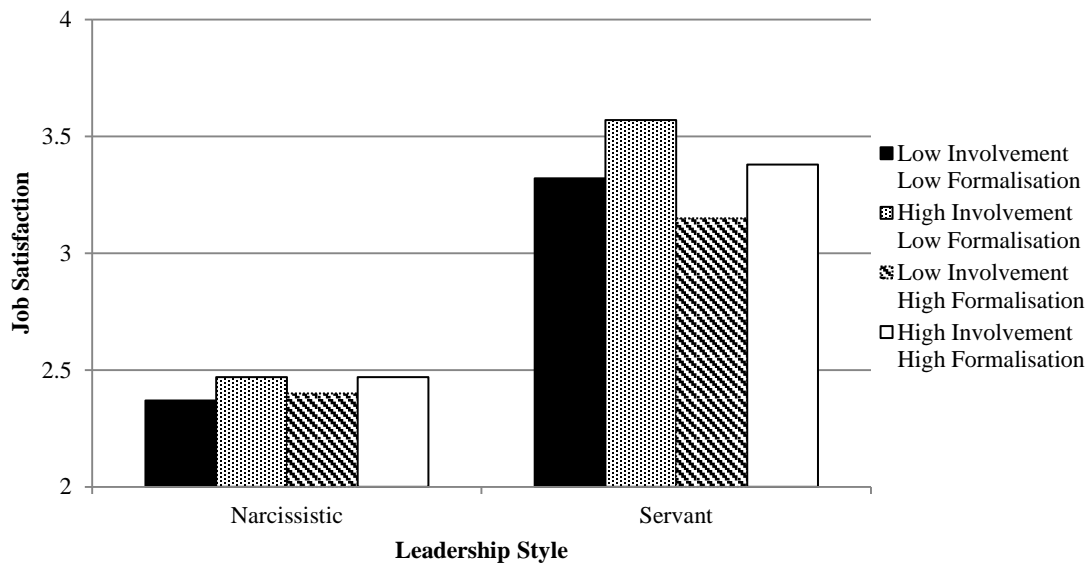
formalisation, and narcissistic leadership low involvement low formalisation. The analysis was conducted using a one-way between groups ANOVA to examine if respondents with highly involved servant leaders in the condition of low formalisation had a significantly higher mean in job satisfaction than those in the other conditions. The analysis indicated there was a significant difference between the condition of high involvement and low formalisation and the other conditions, $F(7, 1559) = 79.25, p < .001$. The effect size, calculated using eta square, was large at .26. Therefore Hypothesis 7 is supported.

In line with Hypothesis 7, planned comparison analysis revealed that a servant leader who is highly involved in the decision making process, under a low formalised organisational environment, will elicit higher levels of job satisfaction from employees ($M = 3.57, SD = .81$) than the other depicted environments (servant leadership high involvement high formalisation $M = 3.38, SD = .88$; servant leadership low involvement high formalisation $M = 3.15, SD = .75$; servant leadership low involvement low formalisation $M = 3.32, SD = .75$; narcissistic leadership high involvement high formalisation $M = 2.47, SD = .76$; narcissistic leadership high involvement low formalisation $M = 2.47, SD = .73$; narcissistic leadership low involvement high formalisation $M = 2.40, SD = .67$; and narcissistic leadership low involvement low formalisation $M = 2.37, SD = .82$). Further, the lowest levels of job satisfaction were recorded in the narcissistic manipulation with low involvement and low formalisation. An illustration of the analysis is presented in Figure 7.1 and the means and standard deviations are presented in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1
Descriptive statistics for leadership style, leader involvement and formalisation

Leadership Style	Decision Making Process and Organisational Structure	Job Satisfaction		
		<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Servant Leadership	High Involvement High Formalisation	241	3.38	.88
	High Involvement Low Formalisation	245	3.57	.81
	Low Involvement High Formalisation	247	3.15	.75
	Low Involvement Low Formalisation	238	3.32	.75
Narcissistic Leadership	High Involvement High Formalisation	148	2.47	.76
	High Involvement Low Formalisation	149	2.47	.73
	Low Involvement High Formalisation	149	2.40	.67
	Low Involvement Low Formalisation	146	2.37	.82

Figure 7.1
Job satisfaction as a function of leadership style, leader involvement and formalisation



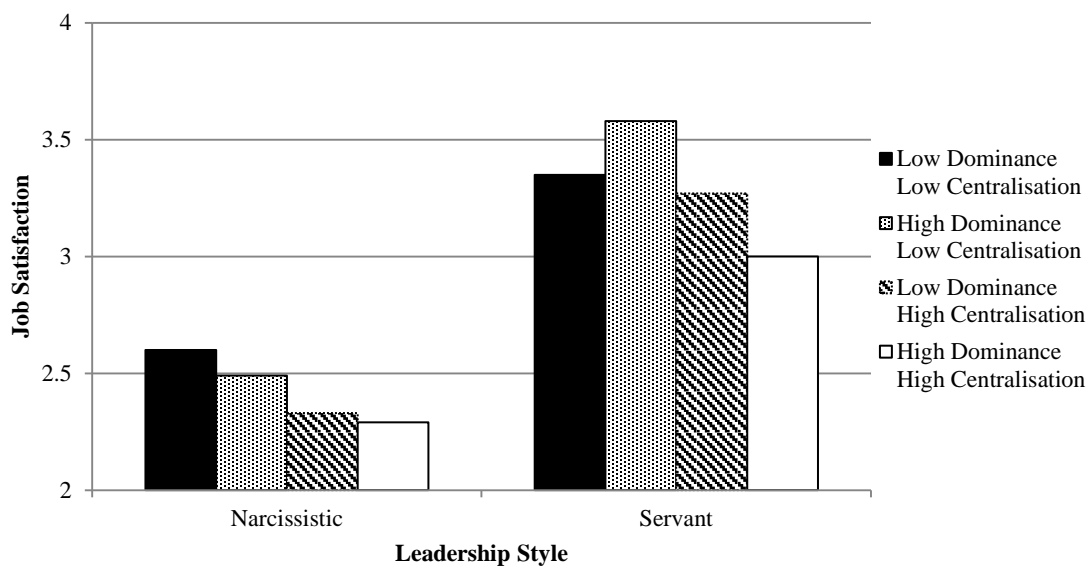
For Hypothesis 8, the data were divided into eight groups based upon the independent variables of leadership style, dominance in the decision making process and the level of centralisation of organisational structure. These were divided into the conditions of servant leadership high dominance high centralisation, servant leadership high dominance low centralisation, servant leadership low dominance high centralisation, servant leadership low dominance low centralisation, narcissistic leadership high dominance high centralisation, narcissistic leadership high dominance low centralisation, narcissistic leadership low dominance high centralisation, and narcissistic leadership low dominance low centralisation. The analysis was conducted using a one-way between groups ANOVA to examine if respondents with highly dominant servant leaders in the condition of high centralisation had a significantly lower mean in job satisfaction than those in the other servant leadership conditions. The analysis indicated there was a significant difference between the condition of servant leadership high dominance and high centralisation and the other conditions, $F(3, 1555) = 93.85, p < .001$. The effect size, calculated using eta square, was large at 0.30. Therefore Hypothesis 8 was supported.

In line with Hypothesis 8, planned comparison analysis revealed that a servant leader who is highly dominant in the decision making process, under a highly centralised organisational environment, will elicit lower levels of job satisfaction from employees ($M = 3.00, SD = .78$) than the other servant leadership depicted environments (servant leadership high dominance low centralisation $M = 3.58, SD = .77$; servant leadership low dominance high centralisation $M = 3.27, SD = .77$; and servant leadership low dominance low centralisation $M = 3.35, SD = .79$). An illustration of the analysis is displayed in Figure 7.2 and the means and standard deviations are presented in Table 7.2.

Table 7.2
Descriptive statistics for leadership style, leader dominance and centralisation

Leadership Style	Decision Making Process and Organisational Structure	Job Satisfaction		
		<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Servant Leadership	High Dominance High Centralisation	246	3.00	.78
	High Dominance Low Centralisation	243	3.58	.77
	Low Dominance High Centralisation	244	3.27	.77
	Low Dominance Low Centralisation	238	3.35	.79
Narcissistic Leadership	High Dominance High Centralisation	137	2.29	.77
	High Dominance Low Centralisation	142	2.49	.41
	Low Dominance High Centralisation	156	2.33	.70
	Low Dominance Low Centralisation	157	2.60	.73

Figure 7.2
Job satisfaction as a function of leadership style, leader dominance and centralisation



7.2.3 Discussion

As predicted, there was a significant difference between the mean levels of job satisfaction for employees based upon differing levels of the leader's decision making process (involvement and dominance) and organisational structure (formalisation and centralisation).

In line with Hypothesis 7, the data from Study 1 suggested that leader involvement and formalisation interact to moderate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. From these findings, it can be seen that servant leadership achieves internal fit with leader involvement in the decision making process and low levels of formalisation to enhance employees' job satisfaction. The impact servant leadership has on employee job satisfaction was shown by juxtaposing it against narcissistic leadership. In particular, the lowest reported means of job satisfaction were in the narcissistic conditions with low leader involvement in the decision making process (low formalisation = 2.37; high formalisation = 2.40). Of note is the slightly higher mean for high formalisation than low formalisation under the narcissistic condition with low leader involvement. This slightly higher mean would occur because the formalised procedures act as a substitute for leadership, especially considering low leader involvement in the decision making process (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). Therefore the full negative effects of narcissistic leadership are not affecting job satisfaction to the same extent as they do in the low formalised environment, because the narcissistic leader is not fitting with the sub-system.

The data from Study 1 also provided support for Hypothesis 8, that dominance and centralisation interact to negatively moderate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. From these findings it can be seen that servant leadership achieves the lowest level of internal fit, and thus has the weakest impact on job satisfaction, when the leader is dominant in the decision making process and there are high levels of centralisation. In order

to answer Hypothesis 8, the analysis only focused on the servant leadership conditions, as the lowest levels of internal fit of servant leadership were being researched.

Although these findings do justify the hypotheses, they do not offer support for the theoretical framework in an organisational setting (external validity). Therefore there is great value in testing the generalisability of the experimental findings of servant leadership in the field. In order to further validate the hypotheses, they must be run in an organisational setting.

7.3 Study Two

In the second study, the leader's servant and transformational leadership behaviours and decision making process, employees' job satisfaction and the structure of the organisation were measured in an organisational context. Following the method established by Rus et al. (2012, pp. 18-19), the survey was undertaken "to further bolster the confidence in our conclusions by a replication via a different method, the use of a different research population", as well as to furnish a broader conceptualisation of leader involvement and dominance in the decision making process, formalisation and centralisation and differing levels of servant leadership behaviours than was able to be achieved with the laboratory experiments. Further, this increases confidence in the findings by establishing that they are not limited to a specific methodological design (Denzin, 1989).

As servant leadership is being measured on a continuum in Study 2, low servant leadership behaviours can be quantifiably measured within the same scale, using Aiken and West's (1991) simple slopes technique. This statistical technique was not suited to the experimental design because leadership was manipulated, not measured. Therefore narcissistic leadership was used as a substitute for low servant leadership behaviours in the planned comparison

ANOVAs but not in the organisational survey. Therefore the narcissistic leadership scale is not need to juxtapose high to low servant behaviours in this study.

7.3.1 Method

7.3.1.1 Participants and Procedure

The participants are direct reports of their respective companies' CEO/GM/MD and were recruited from a mailing database of small to medium enterprises within Australia. The questionnaire was sent via postal mail to 1,500 randomly selected companies from the database. A cover letter accompanied the questionnaire which explained the objectives of the study and asked the participants to return the completed questionnaire to the researchers in the reply-paid envelope. Small to medium enterprises were chosen to ensure that those surveyed have direct contact with their CEO/GM/MD so they could accurately report on their leadership style and their level of involvement and dominance in the decision making process.

Of the 1,500 participants contacted, 336 questionnaires were returned, yielding a response rate of 22.4%; 336 responses was well above the recommended sample size of 200-250 for a survey design (Hair et al., 2010; Maxwell, 2000); 68% of respondents were male and 60% were aged below 50. The respondents had worked for their respective leader for an average of 7.5 years.

7.3.1.2 Measures

The servant leadership, leader's decision making process, organisational structure, job satisfaction and control variable measures have been previously discussed in *Chapter Five* and *Chapter Six*.

7.3.2 Results

Table 7.3 presents the descriptive statistics, reliabilities and inter-correlations for the variables used in the study. Servant leadership was significantly related to leader involvement, leader dominance, formalisation, centralisation and job satisfaction.

A hierarchical regression analysis was performed by entering the control variables, servant leadership and the study variables into different steps of the equation (variables were z-standardised prior to analyses). In relation to Hypothesis 7 (Table 7.4), there was a three-way significant effect on job satisfaction from servant leadership, leader involvement and formalisation ($\Delta R^2 = .01, p < .10$). Hypothesis 7 was supported; however, as it was significant at $p < .10$, conclusions from this hypothesis should be interpreted accordingly.

In accordance with recommendations by Aiken and West (1991), the interaction effect was illustrated using one standard deviation above and below the mean of leader involvement, formalisation and servant leadership to represent high and low in each of these conditions (Table 7.5). The simple slopes analyses and post-hoc tests for slope differences (Dawson & Richter, 2006) demonstrated that the interaction showed no difference between the slopes in the condition of high involvement and low formalisation and low involvement and low formalisation ($t(327) = 0.85, p = .40$; Slope 2 *versus* Slope 1 in Figure 7.3), high involvement and low formalisation and low involvement and high formalisation ($t(327) = 1.11, p = .27$; Slope 2 *versus* Slope 3 in Figure 7.3), and high involvement and low formalisation and high involvement and high formalisation ($t(327) = 1.28, p = .20$; Slope 2 *versus* Slope 4 in Figure 7.3) (see Table 7.6).

The regression and simple effects results provide partial support for Hypothesis 7, indicating that there is a three-way interaction between servant leadership, leader involvement and

formalisation in regards to impacting employee job satisfaction. However, there was no significant difference between Slope 2 and the other Slopes as expected.

Table 7.3
Descriptive statistics and correlations amongst the study variables

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Size ^a	3.90	1.16	-								
2. Tenure ^b	7.45	6.39	-.19**	-							
3. Transformational Leadership	3.62	.77	.03	-.05	(.95)						
4. Servant Leadership	3.61	.77	.01	-.04	.88**	(.88)					
5. Leader Involvement	4.32	.74	.06	-.02	.60**	.52**	(.90)				
6. Leader Dominance	3.35	.90	.07	.04	-.36**	-.47**	-.02	(.87)			
7. Formalisation	3.79	.86	.14**	-.08	.27**	.24**	.20**	-.11*	(.81)		
8. Centralisation	2.58	.92	-.03	-.04	-.23**	-.28**	-.10	.35**	.03	(.89)	
9. Job Satisfaction	4.27	.66	.02	.14*	.45**	.48**	.35**	-.28**	.18**	-.27**	(.89)

Note, *N* = 335; Cronbach's α is indicated in brackets; Two-tailed tests; * p < .05, ** p < .01.

^a Number of employees in the organisation coded: 1 = <20, 2 = 20-49, 3 = 50-99, 4 = 100-249, 5 = 500-999, 6 = >1000.

^b Tenure = length of time in years that the employee has worked for their current leader.

Table 7.4
Results of multiple regression analysis of job satisfaction onto servant leadership, leader involvement and formalisation

	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3			Step 4		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>
Control variables												
Size	.04	.05	0.82	.04	.05	0.69	.03	.05	0.56	.03	.05	0.61
Tenure	.17**	.05	3.44	.17**	.05	3.52	.17**	.05	3.30	.17**	.05	3.43
Transformational Leadership	.46***	.05	9.27	.06	.11	0.52	.04	.11	0.33	.04	.11	0.32
Main effects												
Servant Leadership				.36**	.10	3.50	.38***	.10	3.71	.37***	.10	3.61
Involvement				.12 [†]	.06	1.88	.17*	.07	2.50	.18*	.07	2.53
Formalisation				.06	.05	1.20	.06	.05	1.25	.01	.06	0.13
2-way interaction												
Servant Leadership x Involvement							.09*	.04	2.27	.11**	.04	2.58
Servant Leadership x Formalisation							.03	.06	0.60	.01	.06	0.22
Involvement x Formalisation							-.06	.06	-1.08	.03	.07	0.42
3-way interaction												
Servant Leadership x Involvement x Formalisation										.08 [†]	.04	1.81
ΔR^2	.24			.04			.01			.01		
ΔF	31.68***			5.73**			2.00			3.26 [†]		
R^2	.24			.28			.29			.30		
Adjusted R^2	.23			.26			.27			.27		

Note, $N = 335$; [†] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

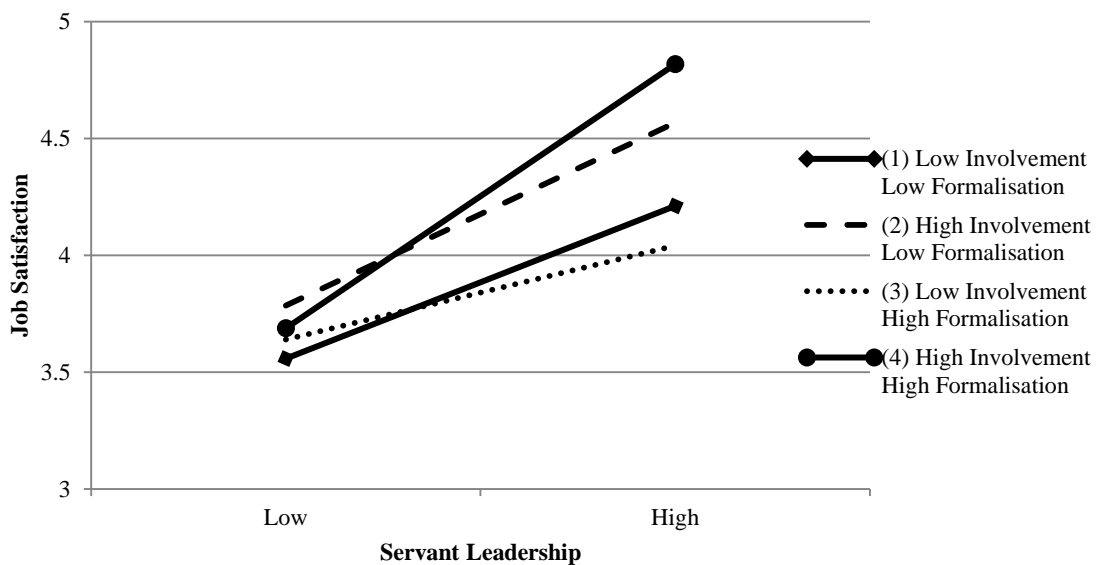
Table 7.5
Simple slopes for job satisfaction at +1 and -1 of the mean of involvement and formalisation

Simple slopes for	Job Satisfaction			
	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(1) Involvement _{low} , Formalisation _{low}	0.33	0.12	2.65	< .01
(2) Involvement _{high} , Formalisation _{low}	0.39	0.13	3.05	< .01
(3) Involvement _{low} , Formalisation _{high}	0.20	0.14	1.42	= .16
(4) Involvement _{high} , Formalisation _{high}	0.57	0.13	4.34	< .001

Table 7.6
Slope differences for job satisfaction at +1 and -1 of the mean of involvement and formalisation

Slope differences for	Job Satisfaction			
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(1) and (2)	0.06	0.08	0.85	0.396
(1) and (3)	-0.13	0.15	0.82	0.414
(1) and (4)	0.24	0.14	1.72	0.086
(2) and (3)	0.19	0.17	1.11	0.266
(2) and (4)	0.16	0.13	1.28	0.200
(3) and (4)	0.36	0.15	2.47	0.014

Figure 7.3
Leader involvement and formalisation as the moderators of the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction



For Hypothesis 8, the moderating effect of leader dominance and centralisation was tested on the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship (Table 7.7). The results indicated that there was a three-way significant effect on job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .02, p < .01$). Therefore Hypothesis 8 was supported.

In accordance with recommendations by Aiken and West (1991), the interaction effect was illustrated using one standard deviation above and below the mean of leader dominance, centralisation and servant leadership to represent high and low in each of these conditions (Table 7.8). The simple slopes analyses and post-hoc tests for slope differences (Dawson & Richter, 2006) demonstrated that, as predicted, the interaction shows a difference between the slopes in the condition of high dominance and high centralisation and low dominance and low centralisation ($t(327) = 1.75, p < .10$; Slope 4 *versus* Slope 1 in Figure 7.4), and high dominance and high centralisation and low dominance and high centralisation ($t(327) = 3.72, p < .001$; Slope 4 *versus* Slope 3 in Figure 7.4), but not high dominance and high centralisation and high dominance and low centralisation ($t(327) = 0.71, p = .48$; Slope 4 *versus* Slope 2 in Figure 7.4) (See Table 7.9).

The regression and simple effects results provide partial support for Hypothesis 8, indicating that there is a three-way interaction between servant leadership, leader dominance and centralisation in regards to impacting employee job satisfaction. However, there was no significant difference between Slope 4 and Slope 2 as predicted.

Table 7.7
Results of multiple regression analysis of job satisfaction onto servant leadership, leader dominance and centralisation

	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3			Step 4		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>t</i>
Control variables												
Size	.04	.05	0.82	.05	.05	0.96	.06	.05	1.18	.08	.05	1.57
Tenure	.17**	.05	3.45	.17**	.05	3.43	.15**	.05	3.03	.16**	.05	3.24
Transformational Leadership	.46***	.05	9.28	.17	.05	1.61	.13	.10	1.23	.09	.10	0.86
Main effects												
Servant Leadership				.28*	.10	2.55	.33**	.11	2.94	.42***	.11	3.68
Dominance				-.05	.06	-0.90	-.04	.06	-0.61	-.05	.06	-.093
Centralisation				-.13*	.05	-2.51	-.14**	.05	-2.62	-.22	.06	-3.77
2-way interaction												
Servant Leadership x Dominance							-.08	.05	-1.63	-.08	.05	-1.58
Servant Leadership x Centralisation							.11*	.05	2.00	.20**	.06	3.34
Dominance x Centralisation							.12*	.06	2.13	.16**	.06	2.79
3-way interaction												
Servant Leadership x Dominance x Centralisation										-.14**	.05	-3.06
ΔR^2	.24			.05			.02			.02		
ΔF	31.78***			7.05***			2.73*			9.34**		
R^2	.24			.28			.30			.32		
Adjusted R^2	.23			.27			.28			.30		

Note, $N = 335$; † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 7.8

Simple slopes for job satisfaction at +1 and -1 of the mean of dominance and centralisation

Simple slopes for	Job Satisfaction			
	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(1) Dominance _{low} , Centralisation _{low}	0.15	0.14	1.09	= 0.28
(2) Dominance _{high} , Centralisation _{low}	0.28	0.14	2.03	< 0.05
(3) Dominance _{low} , Centralisation _{high}	0.84	0.18	4.63	< 0.001
(4) Dominance _{high} , Centralisation _{high}	0.40	0.12	3.44	< 0.01

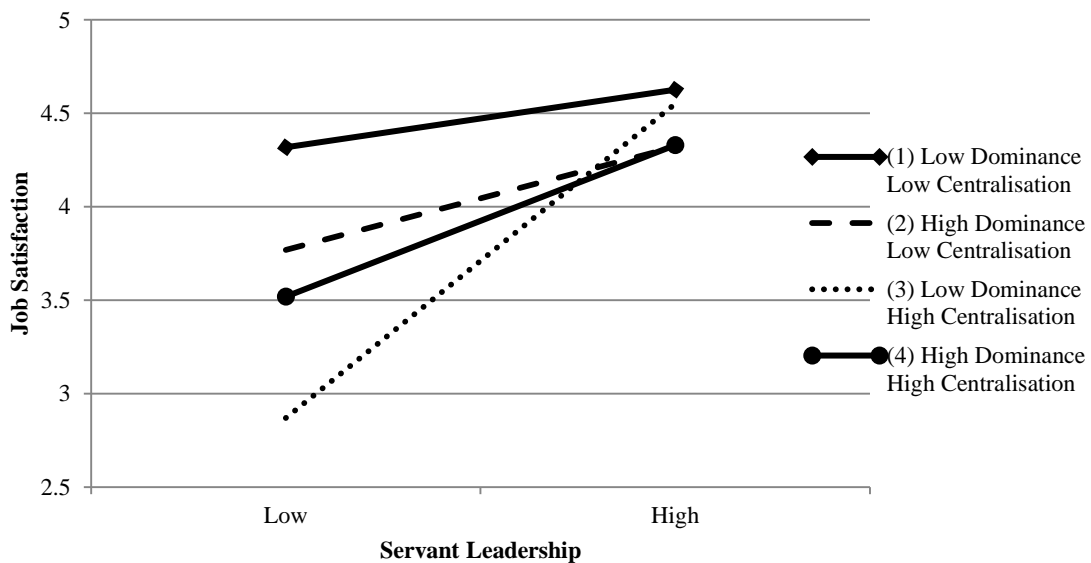
Table 7.9

Slope differences for job satisfaction at +1 and -1 of the mean of dominance and centralisation

Slope differences for	Job Satisfaction			
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(1) and (2)	0.12	0.15	0.80	0.425
(1) and (3)	0.69	0.19	3.67	0.000
(1) and (4)	0.25	0.14	1.75	0.081
(2) and (3)	-0.57	0.20	2.82	0.005
(2) and (4)	-0.08	0.11	0.71	0.477
(3) and (4)	-0.44	0.12	3.72	0.000

Figure 7.4

Leader dominance and centralisation as the moderators of the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction



7.3.3 Discussion

In line with Hypothesis 7, the data from Study 2 provided partial support that the positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction will be moderated by both leader involvement in the decision making process and formalisation. The hypothesis stated that this relationship would be stronger under the conditions of high levels of leader involvement and low levels of formalisation. However, on inspection the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship emerged strongest under the condition of high involvement and high formalisation.

In considering the correlation matrix, servant leadership, involvement and formalisation all had a positive correlation with job satisfaction. Upon inspection of the regression analysis, the interaction effect of servant leadership and involvement positively predicted job satisfaction, although the servant leadership formalisation interaction was not significant, remaining constant with the findings from *Chapter Five* and *Chapter Six*. Therefore internal fit was occurring between servant leadership and involvement. Adding formalisation to this sub-system reduced the variance in job satisfaction explained by the model; however, the three-way interaction remained positive. The interaction remained positive due to the positive relationship recorded between servant leadership and formalisation. As discussed in *Chapter Six*, servant leadership behaviours may be codified in the formalised procedures (Walter & Bruch, 2010). Under this condition, servant leadership would achieve internal fit with leader involvement in the decision making process and servant-influenced formalised procedures, which would increase employee job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 8 was also supported by the data. The positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction was found to be negatively moderated by leader dominance in the decision making process and centralisation. The data only provided partial support,

indicating that under this condition it did negatively moderate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction, but it was not the weakest predictor as hypothesised. Further, although this condition was significantly different from Slope 1 and Slope 3, it was not significantly different from Slope 2.

In examining the correlation matrix, leader dominance in the decision making process and centralisation both had negative correlations with job satisfaction. Furthermore, there was a positive correlation between dominance and centralisation. Upon inspection of the regression analysis, the interaction effect of servant leadership and centralisation positively predicted job satisfaction, indicating that there was an internal fit between servant leadership and centralisation. This fit occurs because the empowerment given to employees through a servant leader, as opposed to a non-servant leader, is felt to a greater extent in a highly centralised environment, which is void of empowerment through the lack of structural empowerment. However, fit did not occur between servant leadership and leader dominance in the decision making process, which is congruent with the findings in *Chapter Five*. When the three variables (servant leadership, dominance and centralisation) were entered into the model together, the interaction effect negatively predicted employee job satisfaction. The interaction was negative as expected, because of the negative relationship between servant leadership and dominance and centralisation, with the lack of empowerment through dominance (motivational empowerment) and centralisation (structural empowerment) reducing the empowerment given to employees through a servant leader (leadership empowerment). Therefore, as hypothesised, low levels of internal fit, and thus low levels of job satisfaction, occurred when servant leadership, leader dominance in the decision making process and centralisation are present in the organisation's system.

7.4 General Discussion

The previous two chapters built on the existing servant leadership literature in relation to employee outcomes, namely, job satisfaction (Hoveida et al., 2011; Ruiz et al., 2011; Walumbwa et al., 2010), however they looked at the relationship only with either the leader's decision making process (motivational empowerment) or organisational structure (structural empowerment). This study extends this research by looking at the three forms of empowerment (leadership, motivation and structural) and how they interact to affect the job satisfaction of employees. The data from both studies provided support for the hypotheses, but there were also some important post-hoc findings.

First, in regards to Hypothesis 7, leader involvement in the decision making process and formalisation did interact to moderate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. The hypothesis drawn from the literature indicated that this relationship would be the strongest under the condition of high involvement and low formalisation. Study 1 provided support for this hypothesis, indicating that under this condition servant leaders elicited the highest levels of job satisfaction amongst their employees. Interestingly, the next strongest condition was that of high involvement and high formalisation. From this we can deduce that the positive influence of involvement in the decision making process outweighed the negative influence of the formalisation of organisational structure (Weisbord, 2004).

Study 2 confirmed the interaction, but, unlike Study 1, the results from Study 2 indicated that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction is strongest under the conditions of high involvement and high formalisation, with high involvement and low formalisation being the second strongest condition. The correlation matrix from Study 2 also indicated a positive relationship between formalisation and job satisfaction. As discussed in *Chapter Six*, there is recent research to support the positive relationship between

formalisation and job satisfaction (Agypt & Rubin, 2012). Looking deeper into the practical application of formalisation with an involved servant leader, we can understand why this is the case. The formalised procedures are written by the head of the organisation, namely the servant leader. As a servant leader has an emphasis on collaboration, equality, accountability, trust and empowerment (Sendjaya et al., 2008), naturally these elements will be evident in any formalised procedures. This can breed both a servant culture throughout the organisation through the leader (leader and motivational empowerment) and the structure of the organisation (structural empowerment) (Menon, 2001). Under this condition, the involved servant leader will tailor the formalised procedures to suit an involved decision making style, not hinder it. It is for those reasons that high levels of involvement interacting with high levels of formalisation do positively moderate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Further, the post-hoc tests for slope analysis also revealed that the two strongest conditions were both conditions of high involvement (2 (low formalisation) and 4 (high formalisation)), adding additional support to the argument that servant leaders who are involved in the decision making process will elicit higher levels of job satisfaction amongst their employees.

Hypothesis 8 provided empirical evidence that leader dominance in the decision making process and centralisation did interact to moderate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. The hypothesis drawn from the literature indicated that this relationship would be the weakest under the condition of high dominance and high centralisation. Study 1 provided support for this hypothesis, indicating that under this condition servant leaders elicited the lowest levels of job satisfaction amongst their employees in the servant-led vignettes. Study 2 confirmed that leader dominance and centralisation did negatively moderate the relationship between servant leadership and job

satisfaction but the condition in which this relationship was the weakest was not as hypothesised.

In looking at the slopes individually, the condition in which the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction was the weakest was low dominance and low centralisation. Under low leader dominance in the decision making process, employees are given the ability to have input in decision making meetings, have influence on the organisation and disagree with the leader's opinions (Carmeli et al., 2009). Under low levels of centralisation, power is disseminated to lower-level employees who can then make unit level decisions and possess greater autonomy (Auh & Menguc, 2007). With this in mind, under the conditions of low leader dominance and low centralisation, employees are given a great deal of autonomy. There is a great deal of literature that supports the notion that employees who have autonomy within their jobs are highly satisfied (Finlay et al., 1995; Katsikea et al., 2011; Poulin, 1994). Drawing upon empowerment theory, employees in this situation are already empowered, and thus they have higher levels of job satisfaction, through motivational (psychological enabling) and structural empowerment (Menon, 2001). Therefore adding leadership empowerment to this system through a servant leader does not have a greater incremental effect over employees' job satisfaction than it does in an organisation where motivational and structural empowerment are not present.

The post-hoc tests for slope analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between the gradients in the condition of high dominance (Slope 2 *versus* Slope 4), however there was a significant difference between the gradients in the condition of low dominance (Slope 1 *versus* Slope 3). Under high levels of leader dominance in the decision making process, the level of centralisation does not have a significant effect on employee job satisfaction because the leader is already making all the decisions. Therefore the level of centralisation does not play a part in employee job satisfaction because there is no need to have decisions signed off

by the leader, since every decision is already dictated by the leader (Auh & Menguc, 2007). However, under low levels of leader dominance, the level of centralisation plays a significant role in affecting employees' job satisfaction. This discrepancy in findings, alongside the findings from Study 1, provides empirical support that servant leaders should not use dominance in the decision making process. Even with high levels of centralisation, servant leaders who use low levels of dominance in the decision making process will elicit higher levels of job satisfaction than those who use a more dominant style. This provides additional support for the conceptual claims that servant leaders do listen and collaborate with their employees in the decision making processes of the organisation (Patterson, 2003). Further, under the conditions of high servant leadership and low dominance, high levels of centralisation do not have a detrimental effect employee satisfaction. As the servant leader seeks to collaborate with employees, listens to their opinions and seeks to create a shared vision of the future (Sendjaya et al., 2008; Van Dierendonck, 2011), the employee understands that it is the structure of the organisation that enforces the servant leader to sign off on decisions that are made (Walter & Bruch, 2010).

Although centralisation has been shown to have a detrimental effect on job satisfaction (Auh & Menguc, 2007; Fry, 1989), by having a servant leader, employees are not demotivated by the lack of power granted to them through the organisational structure. As a servant leader looks to maximize the human capital available at his or her disposal, employees are given the opportunity to collaborate with a leader who listens to their opinion, who seeks to understand their point of view and who looks to empower the employee whenever there is the opportunity. This gives the employee a sense of power not felt in a non-servant-led organisation (Fry, 1989). Without a servant leader, employees under a highly centralised organisational structure will continue to feel unable to engage in their workplace, which inevitably leads to dissatisfaction with the job (Katsikea et al., 2011; Organ & Greene, 1981).

When servant leadership is implemented in a highly centralised organisation, we see that it creates a significant change in the job satisfaction amongst employees. Therefore what these findings tell us is that, if an organisation needs to have highly centralized procedures, it is imperative that the leader display servant characteristics.

7.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, this research extends the ever-growing body of research on servant leadership (Van Dierendonck, 2011). It extends the findings from the previous two chapters by analysing the interaction of the leadership (servant leadership), motivational (leader involvement and leader dominance) and structural (formalisation and centralisation) approach to empowerment to create a holistic view of how servant leadership is operationalized within organisations. Although the previous three chapters have provided a discussion of the findings, they have been narrow in focus. The following chapter considers the findings of the eight hypotheses as a whole and the implications for future practice and research.

Chapter Eight: General Discussion and Conclusion

CHAPTER EIGHT – GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter discusses the findings of the research in light of the relevant literature. The key findings of the research outlined in the previous results chapters (*Chapters Five to Seven*) are briefly reiterated before they are further discussed. The study implications for theory and practice and avenues for future research stemming from this study are delineated. Finally, a summary of the thesis concludes the chapter.

8.1 Summary of Key Findings

The purpose of this study was to examine the boundary conditions on the leadership job satisfaction relationship. Specifically, this study explored the framework of servant leadership and the effects that the leader's decision making process and organisational structure had on its relationship with job satisfaction. In so doing, it extended previous studies on servant leadership (e.g., Hunter et al., 2013; Reed et al., 2011) in a deeper theoretical and practical way by empirically examining the context in which servant leadership affects employee job satisfaction. By this means it extended Sendjaya et al.'s (2008) servant leadership behavioural scale by using a reduced 18-item scale and expanded the methodologies used to study servant leadership by undertaking an experimental design.

This analysis was conducted by two differing quantitative measures: a vignette experiment completed by 1,569 business students and an organisational survey completed by 336 middle-level managers. The proposition of this research, that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction is moderated by both the leader's decision making process and organisational structure, was partially supported. The main findings from the research are summarised below.

8.1.1 Chapter Five: Servant Leadership and the Leader's Decision Making Process

Chapter Five sought to determine how the leader's decision making process affects the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. Specifically, it examined three moderating hypotheses regarding leader involvement, leader dominance, and the interaction between leader involvement and leader dominance moderating the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. The vignette experiment revealed that servant leaders who were highly involved in the decision making elicited higher levels of job satisfaction than those who were less involved. Further, servant leaders who exercised low levels of dominance in the decision making process (i.e., did not dominate) elicited higher levels of job satisfaction than those who were more dominant. Finally, it was found that servant leaders who showed high levels of involvement and low levels of dominance in the decision making process elicited the highest levels of job satisfaction amongst their employees. The organisational survey confirmed the results from the first hypothesis that leader involvement does positively moderate the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. However, the organisational survey did not confirm the dominance and the interaction hypotheses.

8.1.2 Chapter Six: Servant Leadership and Organisational Structure

Chapter Six sought to determine how organisational structure affects the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. In so doing, it considered three moderating hypotheses regarding formalisation, centralisation, and the interaction between formalisation and centralisation moderating the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. The vignette experiment revealed that under a highly formalised structure, servant leaders elicited lower levels of job satisfaction than those under a low formalised structure. Further, servant leaders under a highly centralised structure elicited lower levels of job satisfaction

than those under a low centralised structure. Finally, it was found that, under structural conditions of low formalisation and low centralisation, servant leaders elicited higher levels of job satisfaction amongst their employees than under the other structural conditions. The organisational survey confirmed the results from Hypothesis 6 that the interaction effect between formalisation and centralisation moderated the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. On inspection of the simple slopes analysis it was found that the condition of low formalisation and low centralisation was not significantly different to the condition of high formalisation and high centralisation as hypothesised.

8.1.3 Chapter Seven: Servant Leadership, the Leader's Decision Making Process and Organisational Structure

Chapter Seven sought to determine how the leader's decision making process and organisational structure interact to affect the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. In so doing, it considered two hypotheses regarding the interaction between leader involvement and formalisation and the interaction between leader dominance and centralisation moderating the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. The vignette experiment revealed that, under a low formalised structure, servant leaders who show involvement in the decision making process elicited higher levels of job satisfaction than those under the other servant leader conditions. Further, under a highly centralised structure, servant leaders who are dominant in the decision making process elicited lower levels of job satisfaction than those under the other conditions. The organisational survey confirmed the results from both hypotheses. Leader involvement and formalisation positively moderated the relationship, but this relationship was strongest under the condition of high leader involvement and high formalisation, not high involvement and low formalisation as hypothesised. Leader dominance and centralisation negatively moderated the relationship, but

the condition of high leader dominance and high centralisation was not the weakest condition as hypothesised.

8.2 Theoretical Implications

The theoretical implications of this research span multiple domains, adding knowledge to the bodies of literature on servant leadership, job satisfaction, leader decision making and organisational structure.

First, the research contributes to the servant leadership field by providing insight into the boundary conditions created by the leader's decision making process and organisational structure, using the theory of fit to interpret the study findings (Olson et al., 2005; Pleshko & Heiens, 2012). Across all boundary conditions, leaders who displayed high servant behaviours over low servant behaviours elicited higher levels of job satisfaction among their employees. The single most important finding to come out of this research question is that, regardless of the structure of the organisation, a servant leader will produce higher levels of job satisfaction amongst his or her employees than a non-servant leader, thus providing further empirical support for the use of servant leadership in today's organisations. However, in terms of the optimal boundary conditions for servant leadership, the study revealed that a leader being involved in the decision making process, and accompanying this behaviour with a formalised structure, will serve as a catalyst for servant leaders to foster employee job satisfaction. Whereas, when the leader is dominant and works under a centralised structure, this presents an impediment to the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship. This finding has advanced our understanding on the organisational 'black box' that exists between leadership and job satisfaction by demonstrating the 'when' question.

This extends previous studies on servant leadership and job satisfaction, which tested this relationship as a dyadic relationship without attempting to understand the organisational context the leader is operating under (Ding et al., 2012; Jaramillo et al., 2009a, 2009b; Mehta & Pillay, 2011). The results from this study indicated that the positive relationship that the servant leader exerts over job satisfaction might depend, to a certain extent, on the organisational environment within which the leader is operating, strengthening the calls for leadership research to acknowledge the boundary conditions within which the leader is operating (Hunter et al., 2007; Liden & Antonakis, 2009). Therefore, if two servant leaders both display involvement in the decision making process but have different organisational structures, they will not produce the same levels of job satisfaction amongst their employees. It is encouraged that future research into the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship examine a variety of organisational constructs to gain a more holistic view of the contextual boundaries of this relationship.

Second, this research has addressed calls from Hunter et al. (2007) to take into account the context that the leader is operating under. In particular, organisational structure was used to understand how the context of the organisation affects the servant leadership job satisfaction relationship. This research complements previous leadership context research by Walter and Bruch (2010), which examined formalisation and centralisation as moderators between transformational leadership climate and productive organisational energy. The current study more specifically extends Walter and Bruch's (2010) study by considering the structural context with a different leadership style and outcome. More importantly, it extends this study by looking at the interaction effects of formalisation and centralisation as a three-way interaction, instead of a two-way interaction, thus creating a more holistic picture of the organisation. The findings confirmed the importance of context for an in-depth understanding

of the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction by providing context created by organisational structure.

The results of the study provided interesting findings regarding how servant leaders interact with the structural context they find themselves within. As eluded to in *Chapter Six*, the organisational survey provided empirical evidence to support the hypothesis that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction is at its strongest when both formalisation and centralisation are low. This supports extant literature that states that leadership characteristics are better perceived amongst employees in a low structured organisational environment (Conger, 1989; Howell et al., 1990). However, this was only in conditions of high formalisation and low centralisation and low formalisation and high centralisation. When analysing the low formalisation and centralisation condition against high formalisation and centralisation, there was not a statistically significant difference. Employees under this structural context are traditionally expected to have low levels of job satisfaction (Auh & Menguc, 2007). This poses the question of how the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction remains strong under the context of low formalisation and low centralisation and its inverse of high formalisation and high centralisation.

When organisational structure is low, the servant leader is able to impact employees without the constraints put upon them by the organisation's rigid structure (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Howell et al., 1990). As shown in previous studies (i.e., Auh & Menguc, 2007), low levels of organisational structure allow the leader to have a greater impact on employees than under high levels of organisational structure. However, if the leader does not have the required behaviours in order to lead, for example, he or she lacks communication and interaction with employees and the ability to formulate a shared vision, low levels of organisational structure will have a negative effect. Without positive leadership behaviours in a low structured environment, employees are given no direction in their work, leaving them feeling hesitant

and not confident in their job, thus reducing their levels of job satisfaction (Adler & Borys, 1996; Auh & Menguc, 2007). Therefore a strong relationship is ensured between servant leadership and job satisfaction under the conditions of low formalisation and low centralisation.

Furthermore, it was found that the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction was strong under the context of high formalisation and high centralisation. Although not argued during hypothesis development, the results do make theoretical and practical sense. Under the condition of low servant leadership, employees are faced with an organisational structure which gives them no autonomy, control or flexibility over their work processes and tasks (Finlay et al., 1995; Wycoff & Skogan, 1994), a leader who is not willing to interact or openly communicate with them (Russell & Stone, 2002), and each decision made must be approved by the leader before it is implemented (Hage, 1980). This in turn leads to low levels of employee job satisfaction (Auh & Menguc, 2007; Fry, 1989). Therefore, when an employee works under a servant leader in the same structural situation, there is a positive effect. Although there are structural hindrances, as mentioned, the mere fact that the servant leader is willing to put his or her employees first (Sendjaya, 2005), engage with employees in any way possible (Van Dierendonck, 2011), and look to foster employees' personal and professional growth (Liden et al., 2008) creates a significant difference in the job satisfaction of employees who do have servant leaders as opposed to those who do not under this structural condition. Therefore, under both high and low levels of organisational structure, there was a strong relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Third, the findings from Hypothesis 7 confirm the importance of the leader being involved in the decision making process, regardless of the levels of organisational formalisation. Although there are rules and procedures in place to guide employees, which in previous work have been shown as a substitute for leadership (Shamir & Howell, 1999), this study has

shown that the leader must still engage with his or her employees in order to achieve the greatest employee outcomes. This challenges previous work on organisational formalisation (Howell & Dorfman, 1981; Marsden et al., 1994; Shamir & Howell, 1999) by demonstrating that, while formalisation may be a substitute for management, it is not a substitute for effective leadership. Further, the findings from Hypothesis 8 provided additional support for the organisational structure field, showing that highly centralised organisations do breed low levels of job satisfaction (Auh & Menguc, 2007; Fry, 1989; Walter & Bruch, 2010). However, this study extends these findings by demonstrating that the low levels of job satisfaction amongst employees can be counteracted with the introduction of a servant leader, still allowing the organisation to leverage the advantages of a centralised workplace (Ruekert et al., 1985).

These findings create a greater context in the delayering debate, where proponents of delayering have stated that high levels of organisational structure have created the situation where the decision makers of the organisation are not involved in the organisation's day-to-day decisions (Shaw & Schneier, 1993). Research into organisations that delayer has shown that delayering is undertaken to improve the decision making processes within the organisation and to enhance employees' job enrichment (Littler, Wiesner & Dunford, 2003). The findings of this study do support employees being more satisfied with less a centralised structure, however, if the leader chooses to be involved in the decision making process (Hypothesis 7) and is not dominant (Hypothesis 8), employee job satisfaction is increased, regardless of the high structure. In addition, for organisations that need to have high levels of centralisation for the operationalism of the organisation, having a servant leader allows the organisation to reap the benefits of having a streamlined approach to decision making, ensuring speed and consistency, as seen in highly centralised organisations (Auh & Menguc, 2007; Ruekert et al., 1985), and still retain high levels of employee satisfaction, motivation

and performance, which are prevalent with servant leadership (Jaramillo et al., 2009a; Van Dierendonck, 2011). However, the findings further indicate that, in order to ensure employee job satisfaction in a highly centralised organisation, servant leaders must display low levels of dominance in the decision making process.

Fourth, the study findings also extend the leadership decision making literature by employing the decision making process as a moderator to job satisfaction. Traditionally, decision making models have been discussed in terms of employee behaviours such as efficiency, not the effect they have on employee attitudes. The classic Vroom-Yetton-Jago normative decision model shows that, due to situational constraints such as time, employee commitment and expertise, the leader needs to approach the decision making process in different ways in order to ensure efficiency (Vroom & Jago, 1988; Vroom & Jago, 2007; Vroom & Yetton, 1973). This can be either autocratic (decisions dominated by the leader with or without employee input), consultative (employees are able to give input and the decision is made by the leader), or group (leader and employees make the decision together) (Vroom & Jago, 1988). Findings from the current research bring into question the overarching benefits of a dominant (autocratic) decision making style, especially in a highly centralised organisation, because both had a negative effect on employee job satisfaction. The normative decision model does not take into account the effect that autocratic, consultative and group decision making styles have on employees. Hence, although the model may be suitable for decision making effectiveness, care needs to be taken by the leader to ensure there are no unintended consequences of his or her decision making style.

Finally, in looking at servant leadership as the independent variable within this research, there have been several contributions and advancements to the recent servant leadership literature (e.g., Hunter et al., 2013; Parris & Peachey, 2013; Sun, 2013). This study provided further predictive validity for servant leadership in predicting job satisfaction. In particular,

Study 1 clearly demonstrated the predictive power of servant leadership over narcissistic leadership in eliciting job satisfaction. By juxtaposing these two leadership styles, and controlling for transformational leadership in the survey, this research has responded to growing calls from leadership scholars who believe that narrowly focusing on one leadership style at the expense of others does provide an adequate insight into the phenomena (Avolio, 2007; Derue et al., 2011).

By using a shortened 18-item scale of the Sendjaya et al. (2008) servant leadership behavioural scale, this study has provided criterion validity for the shortened scale. Although the reliability of the shortened scale was demonstrated through the use of the two studies, further replications of the scale are needed to confirm the scale's reliability (Zikmund, 2010). Furthermore, although servant leadership research has begun to expand in the past few years, the majority of the research has still been carried out in the United States. This study extends the growing body of work on servant leadership within Australia by Sendjaya and his colleagues (Eva & Sendjaya, 2013; Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010; Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010).

8.3 Practical Implications

The results from the study show that servant leadership can have a positive effect on employee job satisfaction regardless of the leader's decision making process and the level of organisational structure. Ensuring high levels of employee job satisfaction is critical for organisations that strive to reduce costs relating to absenteeism, turnover and productivity (Gallup, 2013). In saying this, there are key messages to take from the findings to increase job satisfaction within organisations.

First, the findings indicated that, by displaying servant behaviours, leaders had a positive impact on job satisfaction. However, in order to maximise this impact, there are several

boundary conditions that are optimal. Servant leaders need to be involved in the decision making process by engaging employees in moral and ethical reasoning, inviting opposing views to reach the best decision, and humbly admitting their blind spots in the course of reaching those decisions. The more the leaders involve themselves and others in a collaborative manner, the more likely employees are to be empowered to implement the shared decisions (Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). According to the theory of leadership role-modelling, the example in decision making set by leaders at the top will likely resonate throughout their direct reports and the rest of the organisation (Schuh et al., 2012), hence fostering a wider servant organisational culture (Aitken, 2007; Neubert, Wu & Roberts, 2013). To increase involvement in the decision making process, leaders can mirror procedures set by TD Industries. First, in order to set the example, former CEO Jack Lowe Sr. involved himself in the decision making of the organisation by bringing the decisions to him. Lowe Sr. held dinners at his family home in order to brainstorm new directions and discuss critical issues that currently affected the company. At the manager level, middle-level managers run listening forums where the leaders of TD Industries meet with TD employees over breakfast or lunch on a bi-weekly basis to discuss current major decisions, working on these problems together (Whittington & Maellaro, 2006).

Second, the results indicated that servant leaders were producing significantly higher levels of job satisfaction amongst employees in a highly centralised environment than non-servant leaders. For organisations that rely on highly centralised procedures, such as fast-food chains, introducing a servant leader into the organisation can provide increased levels of employee job satisfaction whilst keeping the required levels of centralisation. Therefore, if an organisation decides on servant leadership as a strategic priority, the recruitment and selection of managers who hold servant values is of utmost importance. Drawing from research by Hunter et al. (2013), in the recruitment process, the human resource division can

utilise personality tests measuring the levels of care and concern for others rather than the outgoing nature of the candidate to identify potential servant leaders. Alternatively, the servant leadership behavioural scale used in this research can be utilised to ascertain servant behaviours. Further, servant leadership development programs are recommended to develop and maintain servant leadership behaviours within the organisation. Servant leadership training courses and modules are available through the Greenleaf Centre for Servant Leadership (2013) and The Servant Leadership Institute (2013). In order to develop servant leadership throughout the organisation, companies such as North Mississippi Health Services have started using consultants to train their top executives in servant leadership, and once the servant behaviours are engrained in their top leaders, training is then offered to the next tiers of management (Johnson, 2012). Since servant leadership has been introduced at North Mississippi Health Services, employee job satisfaction has risen from the 78th percentile to the 98th percentile (Johnson, 2012), which corresponds to the findings in this study.

In an organisation with high levels of formalisation, the servant leader can achieve better fit within the organisation by institutionalising servant behaviours within the organisational culture through tying the servant values to the reward structure. This creates an organisation where the servant behaviours are being displayed by the leader and practiced by the organisation on a daily basis. Therefore, even once the leader has left the organisation, the servant leadership behaviours are institutionalised into the organisation's norms and culture (Auh & Menguc, 2007). Leaders can embed servant behaviours within the organisation through their own actions, particularly through the issues they pay attention to (Bartol & Srivastva, 2002; Schein, 2009). The organisational structure then acts as reinforcement, because the servant culture is being created by the servant leader (Schein, 2009). In North Mississippi Health Services, employees are measured on honesty, integrity and results. Employees who display high performance on these measures are rewarded, middle

performers repeat the servant leadership training, and low performers are put on a six-month action plan (Johnson, 2012). By having formal promotion mechanisms based on servant values (in the case of North Mississippi Health Services), visible servant routines (in the case of TD Industries listening forums), and organisational stories of outstanding behaviours (for example, Chick-fil-A voicemail messages to owners informing them of outstanding service from across the country (Salter, 2013)), the organisation is reinforcing the servant behaviours displayed by the leader. In this way the leader is expressing servant behaviours both personally to employees through their leadership style and formally through the organisation's rules and regulations.

8.4 Avenues for Future Research

This study has laid the foundations for a situational applicability model of servant leadership in today's organisations based upon the outcome variable of employee job satisfaction. In reviewing the results from this research, there is a strong argument for servant leaders to be involved but not dominant in the decision making process in order to increase employee job satisfaction. The current research discussed how organisational structure plays a role in affecting how servant leaders approach their decision making style looking at the theory of fit. Looking at the servant leadership decision making process relationship through a wider lens, there are other factors that influence this relationship than just organisational elements drawn from this theory. Therefore future research needs to look at the conditions under which servant leaders choose to be involved or dominant in the decision making process. One such condition is leader perception of employee trustworthiness, which is drawn from social exchange theory that is now discussed.

8.4.1 Servant Leadership and Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory states that “actions...are contingent on rewarding reactions from others” (Emerson, 1976, p. 336). That is, one party will exhibit a particular behaviour under the provision that it will be reciprocated with a desired attitude or behaviour from the other party (Blau, 1964; Zapata, Olsen & Martins, 2013). Social exchange theory has been of particular importance because it is a predictor of numerous employee attitudes and behaviours such as job satisfaction (Tekleab, Takeuchi & Taylor, 2005). In regards to the leader and employee relationship, social exchange theory has tended to be researched to determine what beneficial behaviours an employee will exhibit when the leader shows certain characteristics (Tekleab et al., 2005). However, drawing from arguments made by Zapata et al. (2013), this relationship can also be examined in reverse, i.e., when employees exhibit certain characteristics, what behavioural benefits will they receive from the leader?

Looking at the case example of Synovus, former CEO James H. Blanchard was steadfast in his servant beliefs, dominating the decision making process because of an adherence to a higher moral code, overruling employees who he believed did not display servant principles, such as openness, integrity and moral behaviour (Levick & Slack, 2010). Furthermore, Kenny Moore, the CEO of Andy’s Burgers, Shakes and Fries, a restaurant chain based in North Carolina, displays similar decision making behaviours, only allowing employees who share his servant values, such as caring and supportiveness, a seat at the decision making table (Johnson, 2012).

In considering these two examples of servant leadership, because employees were not displaying characteristics favoured by the leader, the servant leader became dominant in the decision making process in order for the organisation to be servant-centred. On the other hand, in organisations that have employees that display characteristics revered by the leader,

the leader will be part of the decision making process and not dominate this discussion. For example, the listening forums at TD Industries, where leaders meet with employees over breakfast or lunch to discuss decisions that are being made at all levels of the organisation (Whittington & Maellaro, 2006), and The Toro Company, where CEO Ken Melrose involved himself in the decision making process of employee layoffs during the off-season. With input from employees who he believed had the capabilities to make these decisions, Melrose changed the established culture and re-assigned employees to repair equipment on golf courses across the country for two months during the off-season (Scheller, 2011).

From these examples it is clear that when employees displayed characteristics revered by the leader, the leader responded in kind, displaying involvement and reducing his or her dominance in the decision making process. The characteristics described in these case examples, such as integrity, openness, capabilities and morality, all appear under Mayer, Davis and Schoorman's (1995) definition of trustworthiness. Mayer et al.'s (1995) review of the trustworthiness literature identified three factors for trustworthiness, namely ability, benevolence and integrity. Drawing on these factors, if the leader perceives that the employee displays one or more of these variables, this will create trust in the employee, and, in turn, the employee will receive beneficial behaviours from the leader, such as greater involvement and less dominance in the decision making process.

8.4.2 Servant Leadership and Employee Trustworthiness

Ability is one party's competencies, skills and capabilities that are required to complete a particular task (Garbarro, 1978; Mayer et al., 1995). Ability is domain-specific, since an employee may be highly competent in a particular area, such as manufacturing, but not so in another, such as resource allocation (Zand, 1972). Under this scenario the employee can be trusted regarding decisions in manufacturing processes but not in the allocation of resources.

Therefore, if servant leaders perceive that employees have the particular skills, competencies and capabilities to make a decision, they are more likely to trust employees' opinions and views on a particular decision (Zapata et al., 2013). In line with the social exchange theory, if the employee is able to demonstrate ability to the leader, the servant leader is more likely to reward this competency by being engaged and providing input into the decisions being made by the employee. Therefore the relationship between servant leadership and leader involvement in the decision making process will be stronger when employee ability is high. Conversely, if the leader perceives that the employee does not demonstrate ability in his or her domain, the leader will dominate the decision making process to ensure that the correct decisions are being made. Thus the relationship between servant leadership and leader dominance in the decision making process will be stronger when employee ability is low.

Benevolence is often characterised as caring, supportiveness, openness and loyalty on the behalf of the trustee to the trustor (Zapata et al., 2013). The trustee, in this case the employee, wants to display benevolence by wanting to do well by the trustor (leader) (Mayer et al., 1995). Servant leadership is characterised by their benevolence towards their followers (Joseph & Winston, 2005) and such leaders try to foster these behaviours in their followers (Reinke, 2004). Drawing on social exchange theory, leaders whose employees embody these benevolent characteristics would then in turn be more likely to receive benevolence from their leader, with their leader being open to employee opinions, views and decisions (Zapata et al., 2013). In this situation the leader would be more likely to be involved in the decision making process to support the employee in his or her endeavours. Therefore the relationship between servant leadership and leader involvement in the decision making process will be stronger when employee benevolence is high. Conversely, if the leader perceives that the employee does not share these benevolence characteristics, the leader will be less inclined to support the employee as the latter does not embody core servant characteristics. Thus the

relationship between servant leadership and leader dominance in the decision making process will be stronger when employee benevolence is low.

Integrity in terms of trustworthiness refers to the extent to which the trustor (leader) perceives that the trustee (employee) adheres to moral and ethical principles held by the trustor (Mayer et al., 1995; Zapata et al., 2013). Perceived integrity is comprised of past actions of the employee, congruency in the employee's words and actions, justification of the employee's integrity from other parties and belief of the leader that the employee acts in a just and moral manner (Mayer et al., 1995). Although integrity is defined as two separate factors, integrity in actions and congruency of moral views between the leader and the employee, it is the culmination of these two factors that contributes to the leader's perception of an employee's integrity (Mayer et al., 1995). The servant leadership model reflects high moral and ethical values and has a strong emphasis on integrity (Sendjaya et al., 2008). As servant leaders are not afraid to debate the moral and ethical dilemmas that arise from business decisions, the servant leader would be more likely to engage with employees who also share these values when these decisions are being made. In this situation, the leader would be more likely to be involved in the decision making process to debate ethical issues on hand and act with high levels of integrity as the leader of the organisation. Therefore the relationship between servant leadership and leader involvement in the decision making process will be stronger when employee integrity is high. Conversely, if the leader perceives that the employee does not act with integrity, the trust the leader will have in the employee will diminish, creating a situation where the leader will become more dominant in the decision making process to ensure that the moral and ethical values held by the organisation are adhered to. Thus the relationship between servant leadership and leader dominance in the decision making process will be stronger when employee integrity is low.

A proposed model of the hypotheses regarding the relationship between servant leadership, the leader's decision making process and employee trustworthiness is displayed in Figure 8.1. It is suggested that, in accordance with the limitations cited, this future research be undertaken by way of a multi-level sample, and that the influence of ethical and authentic leadership is controlled for in the process. At an individual level, the leader will rate the trustworthiness (ability, benevolence and integrity) of employees. At a group level, the variables of the leader's leadership style (servant, authentic and ethical) and the decision making process of the leader (involvement and dominance). This research can be further strengthened by looking at numerous employee attitude and behavioural outcome variables which are outlined below in relation to both the proposed and current study.

8.4.3 Employee Outcomes

The current research has been limited to job satisfaction, because that is one of the most desirable employee attitudes (George & Jones, 2008), and its link with organisational performance (Saari & Judge, 2004). However, in order to fully understand the impact of servant leadership and how it is affected by organisational variables, further research needs to look at other attitudes and behaviours shown by employees.

First, understanding the satisfaction with the servant leader across differing organisational variables would give insight into how these variables influence the perception of servant leadership. From previous studies we know that employees are satisfied with a servant leader (Sun & Wang, 2009). What is yet to be determined is the effect that high levels of organisational structure have on this variable, since the servant leader in a highly structured organisation would not be interacting with his or her employees to the extent that he or she would in a low structured organisation (Auh & Menguc, 2007; Walter & Bruch, 2010). Other employee attitudes can be examined within this type of study, for example, trust, turnover

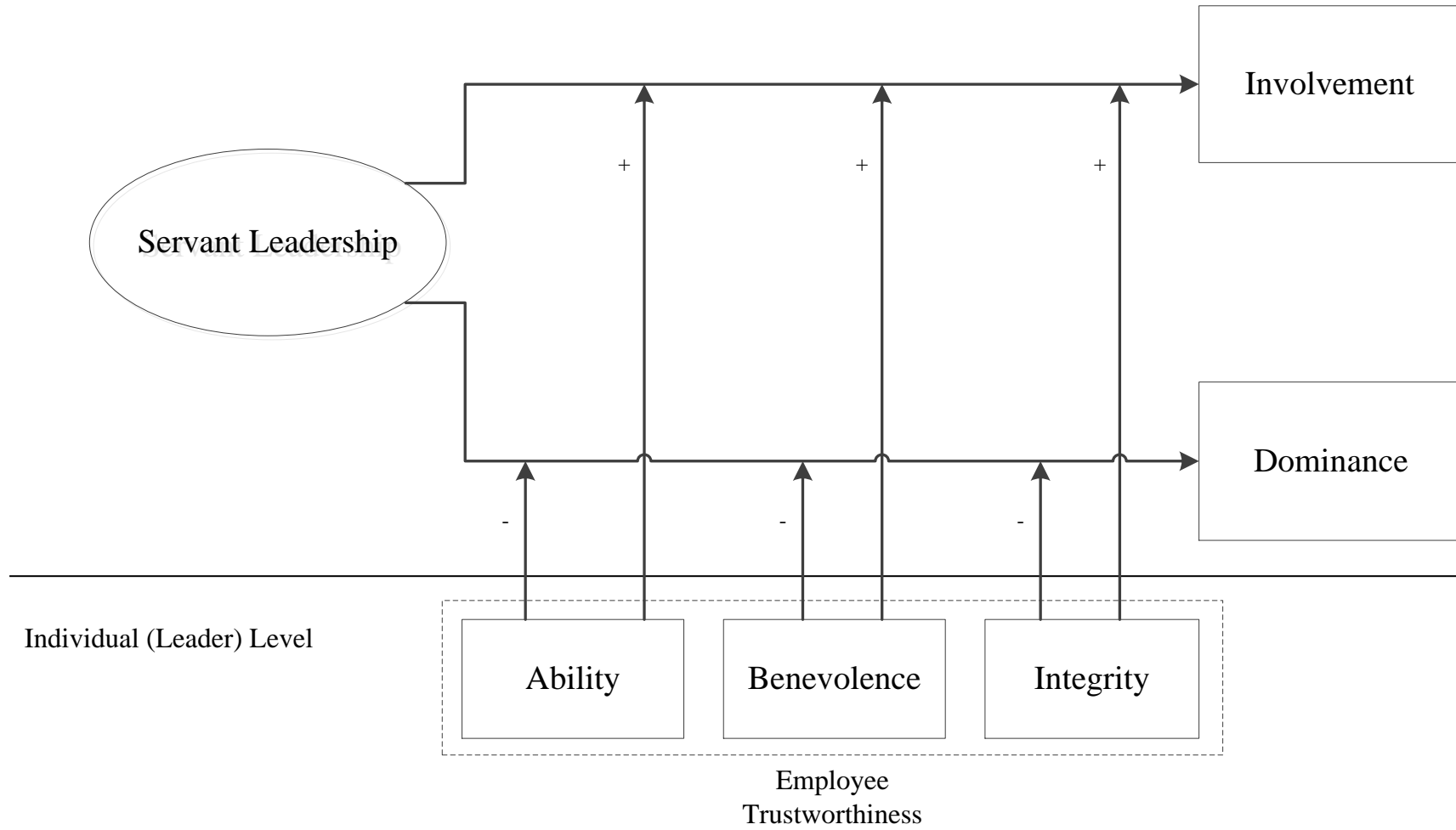
intention, congruency of supervisor, employee self-efficacy, and affective and organisational commitment, without any deviation from the methods used in this thesis.

Secondly, researching employee behaviours in relation to servant leadership is of the utmost importance for future servant leadership research. Although there are studies that consider the relationship between servant leadership and behaviours such as organisational citizenship behaviour (Ehrhart, 2004) and in-role performance (Jaramillo et al., 2009a), more work needs undertaken to understand the effects of servant leadership on areas such as organisational learning, employee/team/organisational growth, resilience, networking and organisational climates (ethical, service, innovative) and the impact that organisational structure, employee trustworthiness and the leader's decision making process has on these variables. In saying this, this study in its current format cannot accurately measure these outcome variables with a vignette experiment. Instead, researchers should look to embrace leadership simulations, either using actors or computers, to simulate teamwork amongst the participants and to see the effects of servant leadership on these outcome variables.

Finally, due to cultural differences, employees respond better to different levels of organisational structure and the leader's decision making process. Therefore future research should look to compare how employee outcomes across different countries are altered by the interaction of servant leadership, the leaders' decision making process and organisational structure.

Figure 8.1
Proposed model of servant leadership, leader's decision making process and employee trustworthiness

Group Level



8.5 Summary

In conclusion, this study aimed to examine the impact of organisational characteristics on the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. In so doing, this study utilised two distinct quantitative measures in order to determine what effect a leader's involvement and dominance in the decision making process and formalised and centralised organisational structures had on the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

It was found that across the two studies that only leader involvement in the decision making process moderated the relationship independently; however, the interaction effects of formalisation and centralisation, leader involvement and formalisation and leader dominance and centralisation were found to significantly moderate the positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. Future research is needed to overcome the limitations of this study and delve deeper into the servant leadership employee outcomes relationship. Given servant leadership's strong, positive relationship with job satisfaction across all levels of organisational structure and leader's decision making process, this research has shown that the servant leadership paradigm offers organisations high employee satisfaction in any of the given scenarios, whilst still displaying a leadership style that is employee-focused and ethically minded.

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Appendix

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Appendix A: Vignette Experiments

APPENDIX A – VIGNETTE EXPERIMENTS

Appendix A-1 Explanatory Statement



THE DEVELOPMENT OF GRADUATE PROGRAMS IN CONSULTANCY FIRMS

Dear Participant,

My name is Nathan Eva and I am conducting a research project towards a PhD at Monash University. The purpose of this study is to collect and analyse the thoughts of undergraduate students towards a graduate program run at one of Australia's leading consultancy firms.

As you read over the case study, I would like you to imagine that you have graduated with a bachelor's degree from Monash University and have spent three years at this consultancy firm. Once you have finished reading, I would like you to fill out a short questionnaire which will gauge your thoughts towards the program. All the questionnaires are anonymous. Participation in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to participate.

All names in the scenario enclosed have been changed for privacy reasons.

Thank you for your time.

Appendix A-2 Pilot Questionnaire

PARTICIPANTS:

Please answer the questions depicted on the following two pages.

Under the scenario described on the opposite page, please indicate your opinion regarding your supervisor.	Strongly disagree					Strongly agree				
My supervisor is more conscious of her responsibilities than rights	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor accepts me as I am, irrespective of my failures	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor encourages me to engage in moral reasoning	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor takes a resolute stand on moral principles	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor gives me the right to question her actions and decisions	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor helps me to generate a sense of meaning out of everyday life at work	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor uses power in service to others, not of her own ambition	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor is not defensive when confronted	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor contributes to my personal and professional growth	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor leads by personal example	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor respects me for who I am, not as she wants me to be	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor helps me to find clarity of purpose and direction	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor emphasizes doing what is right rather than looking good	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor listens to me with intent to understand	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor articulates a shared vision to give inspiration and meaning to work	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor practises what she preaches	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor enhances my capacity for moral actions	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor considers others' needs and interests above her own	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor gets embarrassed by compliments	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor likes to be center of attention	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor thinks she is a special person	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor likes to have authority over people	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor will often manipulate people	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor insists she gets the respect that is due to her	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor shows off when she gets the chance	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor insists she always knows what she is doing	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor believes everyone likes listening to her stories	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor expects a great deal from me	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor is uncomfortable being the center of attention	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Having authority is not important to my supervisor	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor believes she will be a great person	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor can make anybody believe anything she wants them to	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor thinks that she is more capable than other people	①	②	③	④	⑤					
My supervisor believes she is an extraordinary person	①	②	③	④	⑤					

Under the scenario described on the opposite page, please indicate your opinion regarding your supervisor.	Strongly disagree			Strongly agree	
My supervisor participates in most graduate decision making meetings	①	②	③	④	⑤
My supervisor pays good attention in most areas in our graduate program	①	②	③	④	⑤
My supervisor is well informed with the situations within our graduate program	①	②	③	④	⑤
My supervisor contributes in most graduate decision making processes	①	②	③	④	⑤
My supervisor has a great concern on most strategic decisions made in my graduate program	①	②	③	④	⑤
My supervisor appreciates others opinions as long as they are aligned with her own	①	②	③	④	⑤
My supervisor is reluctant to compromise her decisions with others' views	①	②	③	④	⑤
My supervisor strives to have her views implemented	①	②	③	④	⑤
My supervisor tends to be dominant in the decision making process	①	②	③	④	⑤
Most of the strategic decisions made in my graduate program are voiced my supervisor	①	②	③	④	⑤

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree that each statement applies to the company above:	Strongly disagree			Strongly agree	
The company has a large number of written rules and policies	①	②	③	④	⑤
A "rules and procedures" manual exists and is readily available within this company	①	②	③	④	⑤
There is a complete written job description for most jobs in this company	①	②	③	④	⑤
The company keeps a written record of nearly everyone's job performance	①	②	③	④	⑤
There is a formal orientation program for most new members of this company	①	②	③	④	⑤
There can be little action here until a supervisor approves a decision	①	②	③	④	⑤
A person who wants to make their own decisions would be quickly discouraged	①	②	③	④	⑤
Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a formal answer	①	②	③	④	⑤
Graduates have to ask their supervisor before they do almost anything	①	②	③	④	⑤
Most decisions made here have to have supervisor's approval	①	②	③	④	⑤

Demographic details

Gender: M / F Age: _____

Degree: _____ Major: _____ Current year of Study: _____

If you have a complaint concerning the manner in which this research project LR 2011001162 is being conducted, please contact:
 Executive Officer
 Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC)
 Building 3e Room 111
 Research Office Monash University VIC 3800
 Tel: +61 3 9905 2052 Fax: +61 3 9905 3831 Email: muhrec@monash.edu.au

Appendix A-3 Vignette Questionnaire

PARTICIPANTS:
Please answer the questions depicted on the following page.

Under the scenario described on the opposite page, I would be likely to...	Strongly disagree					Strongly agree				
Enjoy my job	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Like the things I do at work	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Have a sense of pride in doing my job	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Feel my job is meaningful	①	②	③	④	⑤					

A. Demographic details

Gender: M / F Age: _____

Degree: _____ Major: _____ Current year of Study: _____

Thank you for your time in completing the questionnaire.

If you have a complaint concerning the manner in which this research project LR 2011001162 is being conducted, please contact:
Executive Officer
Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC)
Building 3e Room 111
Research Office Monash University VIC 3800
Tel: +61 3 9905 2052 Fax: +61 3 9905 3831 Email: muhrec@monash.edu.au

Appendix A-4 Vignette Scenarios Breakdown

Scenario	Leadership Style	Decision Making Process		Organisational Structure	
		Involvement	Dominance	Formalisation	Centralisation
SA	Servant	High	Low	High	High
SB	Servant	High	Low	Low	High
SC	Servant	High	Low	High	Low
SD	Servant	High	Low	Low	Low
SE	Servant	Low	High	High	High
SF	Servant	Low	High	Low	High
SG	Servant	Low	High	High	Low
SH	Servant	Low	High	Low	Low
SI	Servant	High	High	High	High
SJ	Servant	High	High	Low	High
SK	Servant	High	High	High	Low
SL	Servant	High	High	Low	Low
SM	Servant	Low	Low	High	High
SN	Servant	Low	Low	Low	High
SO	Servant	Low	Low	High	Low
SP	Servant	Low	Low	Low	Low
NA	Narcissistic	High	Low	High	High
NB	Narcissistic	High	Low	Low	High
NC	Narcissistic	High	Low	High	Low
ND	Narcissistic	High	Low	Low	Low
NE	Narcissistic	Low	High	High	High
NF	Narcissistic	Low	High	Low	High
NG	Narcissistic	Low	High	High	Low
NH	Narcissistic	Low	High	Low	Low
NI	Narcissistic	High	High	High	High
NJ	Narcissistic	High	High	Low	High
NK	Narcissistic	High	High	High	Low
NL	Narcissistic	High	High	Low	Low
NM	Narcissistic	Low	Low	High	High
NN	Narcissistic	Low	Low	Low	High
NO	Narcissistic	Low	Low	High	Low
NP	Narcissistic	Low	Low	Low	Low

Appendix A-5 Vignette SA

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was nothing that she could do about it.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present and active however, she empowered your team to run your own meetings. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she openly admitted that she was wrong and took responsibility for the wasted time. Although under your supervisor you had freedom to make decisions and question hers, you were informed by your supervisor that it is company policy for all decisions to be run by your direct supervisor before you can proceed. This often wasted your time as even small matters were often referred higher up before you could continue with your work.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you were informed by your supervisor that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you"*. Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor even though she has trusted you to generate ideas. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and without getting defensive; she explained that that is the way things are done at this company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-6 Vignette SB

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. From here, you and your supervisor were able to rectify the situation.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present and active however, she empowered your team to run your own meetings. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she openly admitted that she was wrong and took responsibility for the wasted time. Although under your supervisor you had freedom to make decisions and question hers, you were informed by your supervisor that it is company policy for all decisions to be run by your direct supervisor before you can proceed. This often wasted your time as even small matters were often referred higher up before you could continue with your work.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you were informed by your supervisor that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that "*you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you*". Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor even though she has trusted you to generate ideas. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and without getting defensive; she explained that that is the way things are done at this company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-7 Vignette SC

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was nothing that she could do about it.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present and active however, she empowered your team to run your own meetings. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she openly admitted that she was wrong and took responsibility for the wasted time. You were informed by your supervisor that the company encourages their employees to make their own decisions and employees do not have to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you remembered that you didn't need approval from your supervisor so you went straight to the finance officer to get the money. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can use your own discretion"*. Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, weren't approved by your supervisor as she trusted you to make many of your own decisions.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-8 Vignette SD

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. From here, you and your supervisor were able to rectify the situation.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present and active however, she empowered your team to run your own meetings. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she openly admitted that she was wrong and took responsibility for the wasted time. You were informed by your supervisor that the company encourages their employees to make their own decisions and employees do not have to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you remembered that you didn't need approval from your supervisor so you went straight to the finance officer to get the money. Upon approaching the finance officer's door, you were told by one of the workers that "*you'll learn quickly, that in this company you use your own discretion*". Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, weren't approved by your supervisor as she trusted you to make many of your own decisions.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-9 Vignette SE

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was nothing that she could do about it.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor empowered your team to run your own meetings; however she was quite dominant in every decision. From your interactions, you noticed she would only appreciate views that were aligned with her own, always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, they openly admitted they were wrong and took responsibility for the wasted time. You were informed by your supervisor that it is company policy for all decisions to be run by your direct supervisor before you can proceed. This often wasted your time as even small matters were often referred higher up before you could continue with your work.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote of the companies your supervisor wanted you to go to, you were informed by her that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you"*. Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor even though she generated most of the ideas. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and without getting defensive; she explained that that is the way things are done by her and the company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-10 Vignette SF

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. From here, you and your supervisor were able to rectify the situation.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor empowered your team to run your own meetings; however she was quite dominant in every decision. From your interactions, you noticed she would only appreciate views that were aligned with her own, always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, they openly admitted they were wrong and took responsibility for the wasted time. You were informed by your supervisor that it is company policy for all decisions to be run by your direct supervisor before you can proceed. This often wasted your time as even small matters were often referred higher up before you could continue with your work.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote of the companies your supervisor wanted you to go to, you were informed by her that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that "*you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you*". Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor even though she generated most of the ideas. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and without getting defensive; she explained that that is the way things are done by her and the company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-11 Vignette SG

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was nothing that she could do about it.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor empowered your team to run your own meetings; however she was quite dominant in every decision. From your interactions, you noticed she would only appreciate views that were aligned with her own, always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, they openly admitted they were wrong and took responsibility for the wasted time. Although your supervisor made most of the decisions for you, she informed you that the company encourages their employees to use their own discretion and employees do not have to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote of the companies your supervisor wanted you to go to, you remembered that you didn't need approval from your supervisor so you went straight to the finance officer to get the money. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can use your own discretion"*.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-12 Vignette SH

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. From here, you and your supervisor were able to rectify the situation.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor empowered your team to run your own meetings; however she was quite dominant in every decision. From your interactions, you noticed she would only appreciate views that were aligned with her own, always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, they openly admitted they were wrong and took responsibility for the wasted time. Although your supervisor made most of the decisions for you, she informed you that the company encourages their employees to use their own discretion and employees do not having to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote of companies your supervisor wanted you to go to, you remembered that you didn't need approval from your supervisor so you went straight to the finance officer to get the money. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that "*you'll learn quickly, that in this company you use your own discretion*".

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-13 Vignette SI

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was nothing that she could do about it.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present and active. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could, however she was quite dominant in every decision. Although she actively sought out different ideas, she was more appreciative of views that were aligned with her own, she always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she openly admitted that she was wrong and took responsibility for the wasted time. Although under your supervisor you had freedom to make decisions and question hers, you were informed by your supervisor that it is company policy for all decisions to be run by your direct supervisor before you can proceed. This often wasted your time as even small matters were often referred higher up before you could continue with your work.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you were informed by your supervisor that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you"*. Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor even though she generated most of the ideas. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and without getting defensive; she explained that that is the way things are done by her and the company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-14 Vignette SJ

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. From here, you and your supervisor were able to rectify the situation.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present and active. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could, however she was quite dominant in every decision. Although she actively sought out different ideas, she was more appreciative of views that were aligned with her own, she always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she openly admitted that she was wrong and took responsibility for the wasted time. Although under your supervisor you had freedom to make decisions and question hers, you were informed by your supervisor that it is company policy for all decisions to be run by your direct supervisor before you can proceed. This often wasted your time as even small matters were often referred higher up before you could continue with your work.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you were informed by your supervisor that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that "*you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you*". Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor even though she generated most of the ideas. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and without getting defensive; she explained that that is the way things are done by her and the company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-15 Vignette SK

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was nothing that she could do about it.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present and active. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could, however she was quite dominant in every decision. Although she actively sought out different ideas, she was more appreciative of views that were aligned with her own, she always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she openly admitted that she was wrong and took responsibility for the wasted time. You were informed by your supervisor that the company encourages their employees to make their own decisions and employees do not have to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you remembered that you didn't need approval from your supervisor so you went straight to the finance officer to get the money. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can use your own discretion"*.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-16 Vignette SL

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. From here, you and your supervisor were able to rectify the situation.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present and active. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could, however she was quite dominant in every decision. Although she actively sought out different ideas, she was more appreciative of views that were aligned with her own, she always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she openly admitted that she was wrong and took responsibility for the wasted time. You were informed by your supervisor that the company encourages their employees to make their own decisions and employees do not have to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you remembered that you didn't need approval from your supervisor so you went straight to the finance officer to get the money. Upon approaching the finance officer's door, you were told by one of the workers that "*you'll learn quickly, that in this company you use your own discretion*".

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-17 Vignette SM

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was nothing that she could do about it.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor would very rarely show up, even when you asked her to. When she did turn up to meetings you noticed that your supervisor did not listen intently, seemed uninformed of any situations inside and outside of the company and seemed unconcerned with any decisions your team was making. Your supervisor was never domineering; she rarely participated or voiced an opinion in any strategic decisions, letting your team decide even if they were counter to her views. However, it was company policy for all decisions to be run by your direct supervisor before you can proceed, even though she didn't seem to care what decisions you made. This often wasted your time as even small matters were often referred higher up before you could continue with your work.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you were informed by your supervisor that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you"*. Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and without getting defensive; she explained that that is the way things are done at this company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-18 Vignette SN

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. From here, you and your supervisor were able to rectify the situation.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor would very rarely show up, even when you asked her to. When she did turn up to meetings you noticed that your supervisor did not listen intently, seemed uninformed of any situations inside and outside of the company and seemed unconcerned with any decisions your team was making. Your supervisor was never domineering; she rarely participated or voiced an opinion in any strategic decisions, letting your team decide even if they were counter to her views. However, it was company policy for all decisions to be run by your direct supervisor before you can proceed, even though she didn't seem to care what decisions you made. This often wasted your time as even small matters were often referred higher up before you could continue with your work.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote of the companies your supervisor wanted you to go to, you were informed by her that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that "*you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you*". Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and without getting defensive; she explained that that is the way things are done at the company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-19 Vignette SO

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was nothing that she could do about it.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor would very rarely show up, even when you asked her to. When she did turn up to meetings you noticed that your supervisor did not listen intently, seemed uninformed of any situations inside and outside of the company and seemed unconcerned with any decisions your team was making. Your supervisor was never domineering; she rarely participated or voiced an opinion in any strategic decisions, letting your team decide even if they were counter to her views. You were informed by your supervisor that the company encourages their employees to make their own decisions and employees do not have to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote of the companies your supervisor wanted you to go to, you remembered that you didn't need approval from your supervisor so you went straight to the finance officer to get the money. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can use your own discretion"*.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-20 Vignette SP

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. Your supervisor openly discussed the ethical dilemma put in front of you, emphasising that it is more important to do the right thing than looking good in front of your workmates. From here, you and your supervisor were able to rectify the situation.

This was not the only time that you were able to speak freely to your supervisor and from these interactions you were able to see that she did have a focus on always attempting to do the right thing. Your supervisor constantly listened to your opinions, often going out of her way to help you resolve problems, even if it disadvantaged her. Over the journey your supervisor has acted as a mentor being very open and honest, helping you through different and varied situations. In particular, she has often assisted you in your work and did not look for acknowledgement from higher up. One night, before you had a major project due you were staying late at the office. Without prompting, your supervisor brought you dinner and coffee to help you finish.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor would very rarely show up, even when you asked her to. When she did turn up to meetings you noticed that your supervisor did not listen intently, seemed uninformed of any situations inside and outside of the company and seemed unconcerned with any decisions your team was making. Your supervisor was never domineering; she rarely participated or voiced an opinion in any strategic decisions, letting your team decide even if they were counter to her views. You were informed by your supervisor that the company encourages their employees to make their own decisions and employees do not have to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote of companies your supervisor wanted you to go to, you remembered that you didn't need approval from your supervisor so you went straight to the finance officer to get the money. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that "*you'll learn quickly, that in this company you use your own discretion*".

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-21 Vignette NA

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was probably nothing that you could do about it.

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present and the centre of attention. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she blamed you for the mistake and was quite hostile when you told her it was her idea in the first place. Under your supervisor you had little freedom to make decisions and question hers. You were informed by your supervisor that it is company policy for all decisions to be run by your direct supervisor before you can proceed. This often wasted your time as even small matters were often referred higher up before you could continue with your work.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you were informed by your supervisor that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you"*. Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and after getting defensive; she explicitly told you that this is the way things are done at this company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-22 Vignette NB

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. From here, you were able to rectify the situation.

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present and the centre of attention. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she blamed you for the mistake and was quite hostile when you told her it was her idea in the first place. Under your supervisor you had little freedom to make decisions and question hers. You were informed by your supervisor that it is company policy for all decisions to be run by your direct supervisor before you can proceed. This often wasted your time as even small matters were often referred higher up before you could continue with your work.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you were informed by your supervisor that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that "*you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you*". Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor even though she has trusted you to generate ideas. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and after getting defensive; she explicitly told you that this is the way things are done at this company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-23 Vignette NC

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was probably nothing that you could do about it.

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present and the centre of attention. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she blamed you for the mistake and was quite hostile when you told her it was her idea in the first place. You were informed by your supervisor that the company encourages their employees to make their own decisions and employees do not have to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you remembered that you didn't need approval from your supervisor so you went straight to the finance officer to get the money. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can use your own discretion"*. Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, weren't approved by your supervisor as she let you to make many of your own decisions.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-24 Vignette ND

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. From here, you were able to rectify the situation.

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present and the centre of attention. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she blamed you for the mistake and was quite hostile when you told her it was her idea in the first place. You were informed by your supervisor that the company encourages their employees to make their own decisions and employees do not have to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you remembered that you didn't need approval from your supervisor so you went straight to the finance officer to get the money. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you use your own discretion"*. Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, weren't approved by your supervisor as she let you to make many of your own decisions.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-25 Vignette NE

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was probably nothing that you could do about it.

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was centre of attention and she was quite dominant in every decision. From your interactions, you noticed she would only appreciate views that were aligned with her own, always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she blamed you for the mistake and was quite hostile when you told her it was her idea in the first place. Under your supervisor you had little freedom to make decisions and question hers. You were informed by your supervisor that it is company policy for all decisions to be run by your direct supervisor before you can proceed. This often wasted your time as even small matters were often referred higher up before you could continue with your work.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote of the companies your supervisor wanted you to go to, you were informed by her that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you"*. Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor even though she generated most of the ideas. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and after getting defensive; she explicitly told you that this is the way things are done at this company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-26 Vignette NF

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. From here, you were able to rectify the situation.

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was centre of attention and she was quite dominant in every decision. From your interactions, you noticed she would only appreciate views that were aligned with her own, always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she blamed you for the mistake and was quite hostile when you told her it was her idea in the first place. Under your supervisor you had little freedom to make decisions and question hers. You were informed by your supervisor that it is company policy for all decisions to be run by your direct supervisor before you can proceed. This often wasted your time as even small matters were often referred higher up before you could continue with your work.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote of the companies your supervisor wanted you to go to, you were informed by her that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that "*you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you*". Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor even though she generated most of the ideas. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and after getting defensive; she explicitly told you that this is the way things are done at this company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-27 Vignette NG

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was probably nothing that you could do about it.

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was centre of attention and she was quite dominant in every decision. From your interactions, you noticed she would only appreciate views that were aligned with her own, always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she blamed you for the mistake and was quite hostile when you told her it was her idea in the first place. Under your supervisor you had little freedom to make decisions and question hers. Although your supervisor made most of the decisions for you, she informed you that the company encourages their employees to use their own discretion and employees do not have to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote of the companies your supervisor wanted you to go to, you remembered that you didn't need approval from your supervisor so you went straight to the finance officer to get the money. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can use your own discretion"*.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-28 Vignette NH

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. From here, you were able to rectify the situation.

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was centre of attention and she was quite dominant in every decision. From your interactions, you noticed she would only appreciate views that were aligned with her own, always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she blamed you for the mistake and was quite hostile when you told her it was her idea in the first place. Under your supervisor you had little freedom to make decisions and question hers. Although your supervisor made most of the decisions for you, she informed you that the company encourages their employees to use their own discretion and employees do not have to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote of companies your supervisor wanted you to go to, you remembered that you didn't need approval from your supervisor so you went straight to the finance officer to get the money. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that "*you'll learn quickly, that in this company you use your own discretion*".

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-29 Vignette NI

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was probably nothing that you could do about it.

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present, active and the centre of attention. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could, however she was quite dominant in every decision. Although she actively sought out different ideas, she was more appreciative of views that were aligned with her own. She always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she blamed you for the mistake and was quite hostile when you told her it was her idea in the first place. Under your supervisor you had little freedom to make decisions and question hers. You were informed by your supervisor that it is company policy for all decisions to be run by your direct supervisor before you can proceed. This often wasted your time as even small matters were often referred higher up before you could continue with your work.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you were informed by your supervisor that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you"*. Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor even though she generated most of the ideas. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and after getting defensive; she explicitly told you that this is the way things are done at this company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there. It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-30 Vignette NJ

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. From here, you were able to rectify the situation.

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present, active and centre of attention. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could, however she was quite dominant in every decision. Although she actively sought out different ideas, she was more appreciative of views that were aligned with her own, she always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she blamed you for the mistake and was quite hostile when you told her it was her idea in the first place. Under your supervisor you had little freedom to make decisions and question hers. You were informed by your supervisor that it is company policy for all decisions to be run by your direct supervisor before you can proceed. This often wasted your time as even small matters were often referred higher up before you could continue with your work.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you were informed by your supervisor that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that "*you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you*". Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor even though she generated most of the ideas. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and after getting defensive; she explicitly told you that this is the way things are done at this company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-31 Vignette NK

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was probably nothing that you could do about it. .

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present, active and the centre of attention. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could, however she was quite dominant in every decision. Although she actively sought out different ideas, she was more appreciative of views that were aligned with her own, she always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she blamed you for the mistake and was quite hostile when you told her it was her idea in the first place. You were informed by your supervisor that the company encourages their employees to make their own decisions and employees do not have to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you remembered that you didn't need approval from your supervisor so you went straight to the finance officer to get the money. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can use your own discretion"*.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-32 Vignette NL

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. From here, you were able to rectify the situation.

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor was always present, active and centre of attention. From your interactions, you noticed that your supervisor listened intently, was well informed of all the situations inside and outside of the company and offered any advice she could, however she was quite dominant in every decision. Although she actively sought out different ideas, she was more appreciative of views that were aligned with her own, she always pushed to have her decisions implemented and was reluctant to compromise on her position. Once, when your supervisor steered you down the wrong path, she blamed you for the mistake and was quite hostile when you told her it was her idea in the first place. You were informed by your supervisor that the company encourages their employees to make their own decisions and employees do not have to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you remembered that you didn't need approval from your supervisor so you went straight to the finance officer to get the money. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that "*you'll learn quickly, that in this company you use your own discretion*".

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-33 Vignette NM

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was probably nothing that you could do about

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor would very rarely show up, even when you asked her to. When she did turn up to meetings you noticed that your supervisor did not listen intently, seemed uninformed of any situations inside and outside of the company and seemed unconcerned with any decisions your team was making. Although she did enjoy being centre of attention. Your supervisor was never domineering; she rarely participated or voiced an opinion in any strategic decisions, letting your team decide even if they were counter to her views. However, it was company policy for all decisions to be run by your direct supervisor before you can proceed, even though she didn't seem to care what decisions you made. This often wasted your time as even small matters were often referred higher up before you could continue with your work.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote you were informed by your supervisor that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you"*. Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and after getting defensive; she explicitly told you that this is the way things are done at this company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-34 Vignette NN

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. From here, you were able to rectify the situation.

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

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On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote of the companies your supervisor wanted you to go to, you were informed by her that it had to be approved from higher up. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that "*you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can't use your own discretion – you do what they tell you*". Thinking back, you realise that many of the decisions you have made, had to be approved by your supervisor. You have questioned your supervisor about this policy and after getting defensive; she explicitly told you that this is the way things are done at this company and you must get used to it if you want to continue working there.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-35 Vignette NO

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, you were given a formal induction to the company. You were handed a rules and procedure manual and were told that every question you had about your job could be found in there. Once you looked inside, you found a clear job description telling you what you needed to do for each job rotation and guidelines to follow if any issue arose, giving you no freedom to use your discretion. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, and announced Nigel as the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You checked your rules and procedures book and found that *'Prize draws and winners are final and no debate will be entered into'*. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. However your supervisor informed you that because of the strict organisational rules there was probably nothing that you could do about it.

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor would very rarely show up, even when you asked her to. When she did turn up to meetings you noticed that your supervisor did not listen intently, seemed uninformed of any situations inside and outside of the company and seemed unconcerned with any decisions your team was making. Although she did enjoy being centre of attention. Your supervisor was never domineering; she rarely participated or voiced an opinion in any strategic decisions, letting your team decide even if they were counter to her views. You were informed by your supervisor that the company encourages their employees to make their own decisions and employees do not have to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

On one occasion, you were looking to choose a printing company for advertising flyers. After locating the cheapest quote of the companies your supervisor wanted you to go to, you remembered that you didn't need approval from your supervisor so you went straight to the finance officer to get the money. Upon approaching the finance officers' door, you were told by one of the workers that *"you'll learn quickly, that in this company you can use your own discretion"*.

It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix A-36 Vignette NP

PARTICIPANTS:

Please read and understand the case study. You need to imagine that you have personally experienced this situation.

You have recently completed a graduate program at a leading consultancy firm and you have been asked to provide feedback to the company. The graduate program lasted 3 years and you have been given numerous rotations, however you have had the same supervisor for the duration of your journey.

Upon looking back over your time at the company you remember that on your first day, your supervisor introduced you to the company and people around the office. She told you there isn't a formal rules and procedures manual as such, but any question you had she was more than happy to answer. For example, during your marketing phase you discovered that one of the other graduates, Ryan, had been asked to create a prize draw for customers who purchased one of the company's leading products. Ryan had been informing his friend Nigel of the prize draw and told him to enter. He then pretended to have a draw, rigging it so Nigel was the winner. Ryan reported to his supervisor that Nigel had won, pretending not to know him. You spoke to your supervisor about the situation. You tried to discuss the ethical dilemma put in front of you with your supervisor. She told you that it was not in her best interests to get involved, but you could try to take action on your own if you wanted to. From here, you were able to rectify the situation.

When you spoke to your supervisor you were able to see that she had a focus on always looking good, rather than doing the right thing. Your supervisor only listened to your opinions if they echoed her own and only went out of her way to help you resolve problems if it was to her advantage. Over the journey your supervisor often referred to herself as your mentor, telling her supervisors how she had helped you through different and varied situations. Whenever she assisted you in your work, she always sought acknowledgement from higher up. During your placement it was not uncommon for you to stay late at the office to complete tasks set by your supervisor. After talking to the other graduates, you realised that your supervisor would often place unrealistic expectations on you, which caused you to work the extra hours.

Every week you and the other graduates in your team would hold a strategic meeting. In these discussions your supervisor would very rarely show up, even when you asked her to. When she did turn up to meetings you noticed that your supervisor did not listen intently, seemed uninformed of any situations inside and outside of the company and seemed unconcerned with any decisions your team was making. Although she did enjoy being centre of attention. Your supervisor was never domineering; she rarely participated or voiced an opinion in any strategic decisions, letting your team decide even if they were counter to her views. You were informed by your supervisor that the company encourages their employees to make their own decisions and employees do not have to check with their supervisors to gain approval before moving forward.

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It has come to the end of your graduate program and you have the survey in front of you. You have been asked to reflect on your time with the company, both on your satisfaction with your job and your supervisor. You know you can fill out the survey honestly and the supervisor won't know it is you.

Appendix B: Organisational Survey

APPENDIX B – ORGANISATIONAL SURVEY

Appendix B-1 Explanatory Statement



LEADERSHIP, DECISION MAKING PROCESS, STRUCTURE, AND JOB SATISFACTION

20 April 2012

<< Name >>
<< Position >>
<< Company >>
<< Address >>

Dear << Name >>,

My name is Nathan Eva and I am conducting a research project towards a PhD at Monash University. I would like to invite you to participate in a survey examining job satisfaction as an outcome of the interplay between leadership, the leader's decision making process and organisational structure.

This research aims to understand the fit between leadership style, decision making and structure to maximise employee job satisfaction. As such, we are distributing these surveys among middle executives in Australian organisations. It is anticipated that the outcomes of this research will assist organisations to understand the factors to improve job satisfaction, and therefore performance amongst their employees.

In the first section you are invited to evaluate the leadership style of the most senior executive in the organisation. In the second part, you are invited to evaluate a range of organisational issues. The survey will take no more than 15 minutes to complete. Please complete the questionnaire and return in the reply paid envelope provided.

You can rest assured that your participation is **entirely voluntary and anonymous**, and given **the non-identifying nature of the questions, it will not be possible to identify you in any way**. The demographic details at the end of the survey will be used only for statistical purposes. If you agree to participate you have the option to discontinue your involvement any time prior to submitting your responses, decline to answer individual questions, or simply not complete and return the questionnaire.

Your responses will be kept **strictly confidential**. Individual participants will not be identified in the analysis as only aggregated results will be analysed and presented in future publications.

Should you wish to obtain a copy of the Executive Summary of the research findings, please email me at nathan.eva@monash.edu. And if you have any further questions about this survey please contact me on (03) 9903 4065 or email: nathan.eva@monash.edu . Thank you for your participation in this survey.

<p>If you have a complaint concerning the manner in which this research project LR 2011001162 is being conducted, please contact: Executive Officer Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC) Building 3e Room 111 Research Office Monash University VIC 3800 Tel: +61 3 9905 2052 Fax: +61 3 9905 3831 Email: muhrec@monash.edu.au</p>
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Appendix B-2 Organisational Survey

MONASH University



Part 1 Company Profile

1. Industry sector: _____ 2. How long has this company existed? ____ years.

3. How many people does this company employ?

Less than 20 20 to 49 50 to 99 100 to 249 250 to 499 500 to 999 1,000 or more

Part 2 Leadership style of the most senior executive in this company

My Chief Executive Officer (CEO) or General Manager (GM) or Managing Director (MD)...	Strongly disagree					Strongly agree				
Concept										
Is more conscious of her responsibilities than rights	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Takes a resolute stand on moral principles	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Uses power in service to others, not of her own ambition	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Leads by personal example	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Emphasizes doing what is right rather than looking good	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Practises what she preaches	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Considers others' needs and interests above her own	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Character										
Accepts me as I am, irrespective of my failures	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Gives me the right to question her actions and decisions	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Is not defensive when confronted	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Respects me for who I am, not as she wants me to be	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Listens to me with intent to understand	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Competencies	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Encourages me to engage in moral reasoning										
Helps me to generate a sense of meaning out of everyday life at work	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Contributes to my personal and professional growth	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Helps me to find clarity of purpose and direction	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Articulates a shared vision to give inspiration and meaning to work	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Enhances my capacity for moral actions	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Vision										
Has a clear understanding of where we are going	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Paints an interesting picture of the future of our group	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Is always seeking new opportunities for the organisation	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Inspires others with his/her plans for the future	①	②	③	④	⑤					
Is able to get others committed to his/her dream	①	②	③	④	⑤					

My Chief Executive Officer (CEO) or General Manager (GM) or Managing Director (MD)...	Strongly disagree					Strongly agree
Role Model						
Leads by 'doing' rather than 'telling'	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Provides a good role model for me to follow	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Leads by example	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Teamwork						
Fosters collaboration among work groups	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Encourages employees to be 'team players'	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Gets the group to work together for the same goal	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Develops a team attitude and spirit among employees	①	②	③	④	⑤	
High Performance						
Shows us that he/she expects a lot from us	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Insists on only the best performance	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Will not settle for second best	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Never acts without considering my feelings	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Shows respect for my personal feelings	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Intellectual Stimulation						
Behaves in a manner thoughtful of my personal needs	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Never treats me without considering my personal feelings	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Challenges me to think about old problems in new ways	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Asks questions that prompt me to think	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Has stimulated me to rethink the way I do things	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Has ideas that have challenged me to re-examine some of the basic assumptions about my work	①	②	③	④	⑤	

Part 3 Decision Making Process

Please indicate to what extent each statement reflects the approach used by your CEO / GM / MD in the decision making process:	Strongly disagree					Strongly agree
My CEO participates in most strategic decision making meetings	①	②	③	④	⑤	
My CEO pays good attention in most strategic areas in our company	①	②	③	④	⑤	
My CEO is well informed with the situations within our company	①	②	③	④	⑤	
My CEO contributes in most strategic decision making processes	①	②	③	④	⑤	
My CEO has a great concern on most strategic decisions made in our company	①	②	③	④	⑤	
My CEO appreciates others opinions as long as they are aligned with her own	①	②	③	④	⑤	
My CEO is reluctant to compromise her decisions with others' views	①	②	③	④	⑤	
My CEO strives to have her views implemented	①	②	③	④	⑤	
My CEO tends to be dominant in the decision making process	①	②	③	④	⑤	
Most of the strategic decisions made in our company are voiced by our CEO	①	②	③	④	⑤	

Part 4 Organisational Structure

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree that each statement applies to your company:	Strongly disagree			Strongly agree	
	①	②	③	④	⑤
The company has a large number of written rules and policies	①	②	③	④	⑤
A “rules and procedures” manual exists and is readily available within this company	①	②	③	④	⑤
There is a complete written job description for most jobs in this company	①	②	③	④	⑤
The company keeps a written record of nearly everyone’s job performance	①	②	③	④	⑤
There is a formal orientation program for most new members of this company	①	②	③	④	⑤
There can be little action here until a supervisor approves a decision	①	②	③	④	⑤
A person who wants to make their own decisions would be quickly discouraged	①	②	③	④	⑤
Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a formal answer	①	②	③	④	⑤
Unit members have to ask their supervisor before they do almost anything	①	②	③	④	⑤
Most decisions made here have to have supervisor’s approval	①	②	③	④	⑤

Part 5 Business Environment

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree that each statement applies to the business environment of your company:	Strongly disagree			Strongly agree	
	①	②	③	④	⑤
Competition in our industry is cut-throat	①	②	③	④	⑤
There are many ‘promotion wars’ in our industry	①	②	③	④	⑤
Anything that one competitor can offer, others can match readily	①	②	③	④	⑤
Price comparison is a hallmark of our industry	①	②	③	④	⑤

Part 6 Job Satisfaction

Under the scenario described on the opposite page, I would be likely to...	Strongly disagree			Strongly agree	
	①	②	③	④	⑤
Enjoy my job	①	②	③	④	⑤
Like the things I do at work	①	②	③	④	⑤
Have a sense of pride in doing my job	①	②	③	④	⑤
Feel my job is meaningful	①	②	③	④	⑤

Demographic Details

- Your position in the company: _____
- Gender: Male Female 3. Age: Less than 30 30-39 40-49 50-59 60+
- How long have you been working with the person you assessed above: _____ years.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME IN COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

**PLEASE RETURN THIS QUESTIONNAIRE USING THE REPLY-PAID
ENVELOPE PROVIDER OR TO THE ADDRESS BELOW**

**Mr. Nathan Eva
Department of Management, Monash University
PO Box 197, Caulfield East 3145**

Appendix C: Ethics Approval

APPENDIX C – ETHICS APPROVAL

Appendix C-1 Ethics Approval Letter



Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC)

Human Ethics Certificate of Approval

Date: 11 August 2011
Project Number: CF11/2071 – 2011001162
Title: The relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction
Chief Investigator: Dr Sen Sendjaya
Approved: From: 11 August 2011 To: 11 August 2016

Terms of approval

1. The Chief investigator is responsible for ensuring that permission letters are obtained, if relevant, and a copy forwarded to MUHREC before any data collection can occur at the specified organisation. **Failure to provide permission letters to MUHREC before data collection commences is in breach of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research and the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research.**
2. Approval is only valid whilst you hold a position at Monash University.
3. It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval and to ensure the project is conducted as approved by MUHREC.
4. You should notify MUHREC immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.
5. The Explanatory Statement must be on Monash University letterhead and the Monash University complaints clause must contain your project number.
6. **Amendments to the approved project (including changes in personnel):** Requires the submission of a Request for Amendment form to MUHREC and must not begin without written approval from MUHREC. Substantial variations may require a new application.
7. **Future correspondence:** Please quote the project number and project title above in any further correspondence.
8. **Annual reports:** Continued approval of this project is dependent on the submission of an Annual Report. This is determined by the date of your letter of approval.
9. **Final report:** A Final Report should be provided at the conclusion of the project. MUHREC should be notified if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.
10. **Monitoring:** Projects may be subject to an audit or any other form of monitoring by MUHREC at any time.
11. **Retention and storage of data:** The Chief Investigator is responsible for the storage and retention of original data pertaining to a project for a minimum period of five years.

A handwritten signature in black ink that reads 'Ben Canny'.

Professor Ben Canny
Chair, MUHREC

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Telephone +61 3 9905 5490 Facsimile +61 3 9905 3831
Email muhrec@monash.edu www.monash.edu/research/ethics/human/index/html
ABN 12 377 614 012 CRICOS Provider #00008C

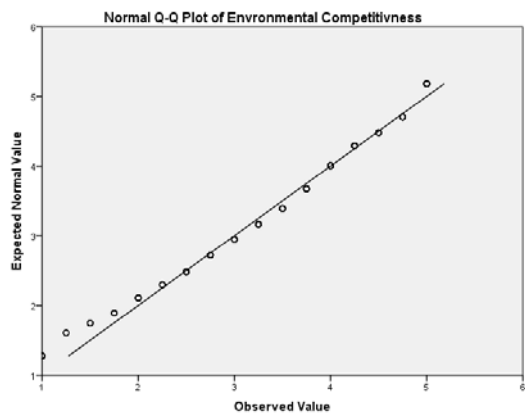
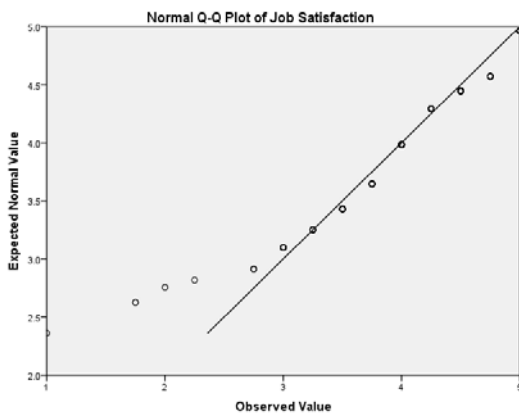
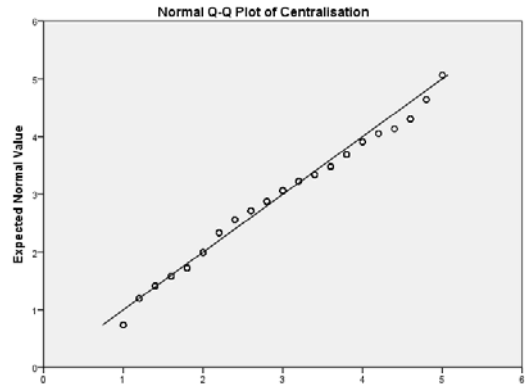
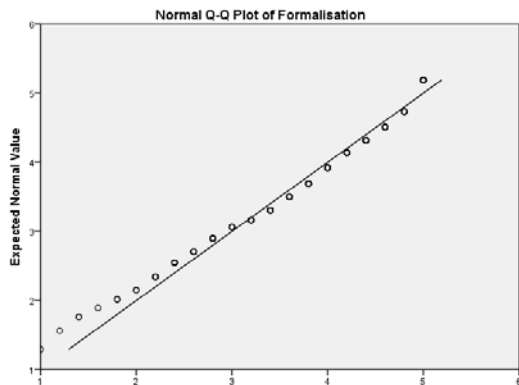
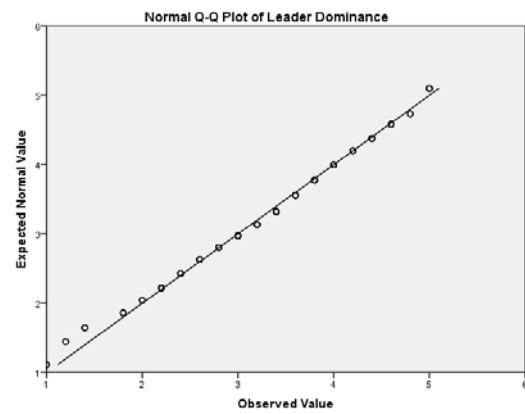
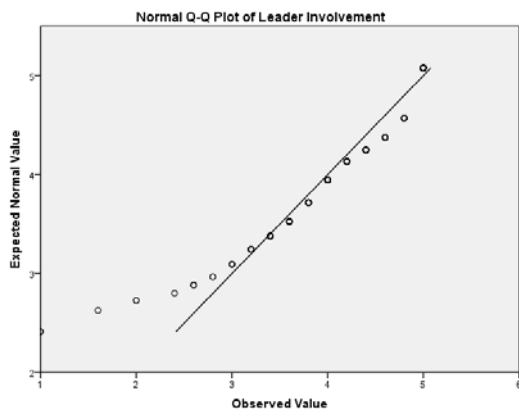
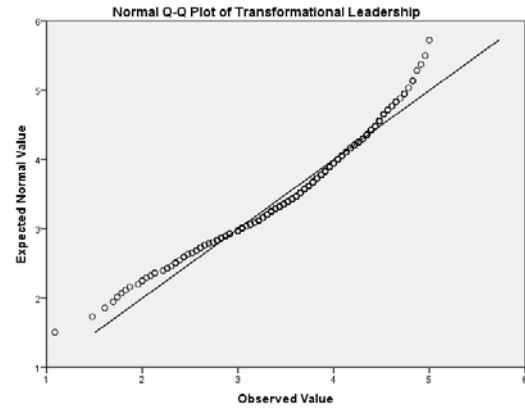
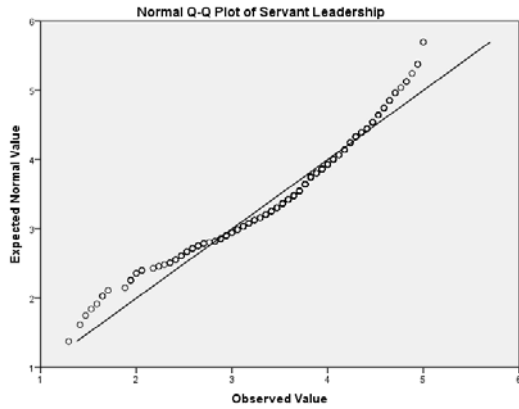
Appendix D: Data Analysis

APPENDIX D – DATA ANALYSIS

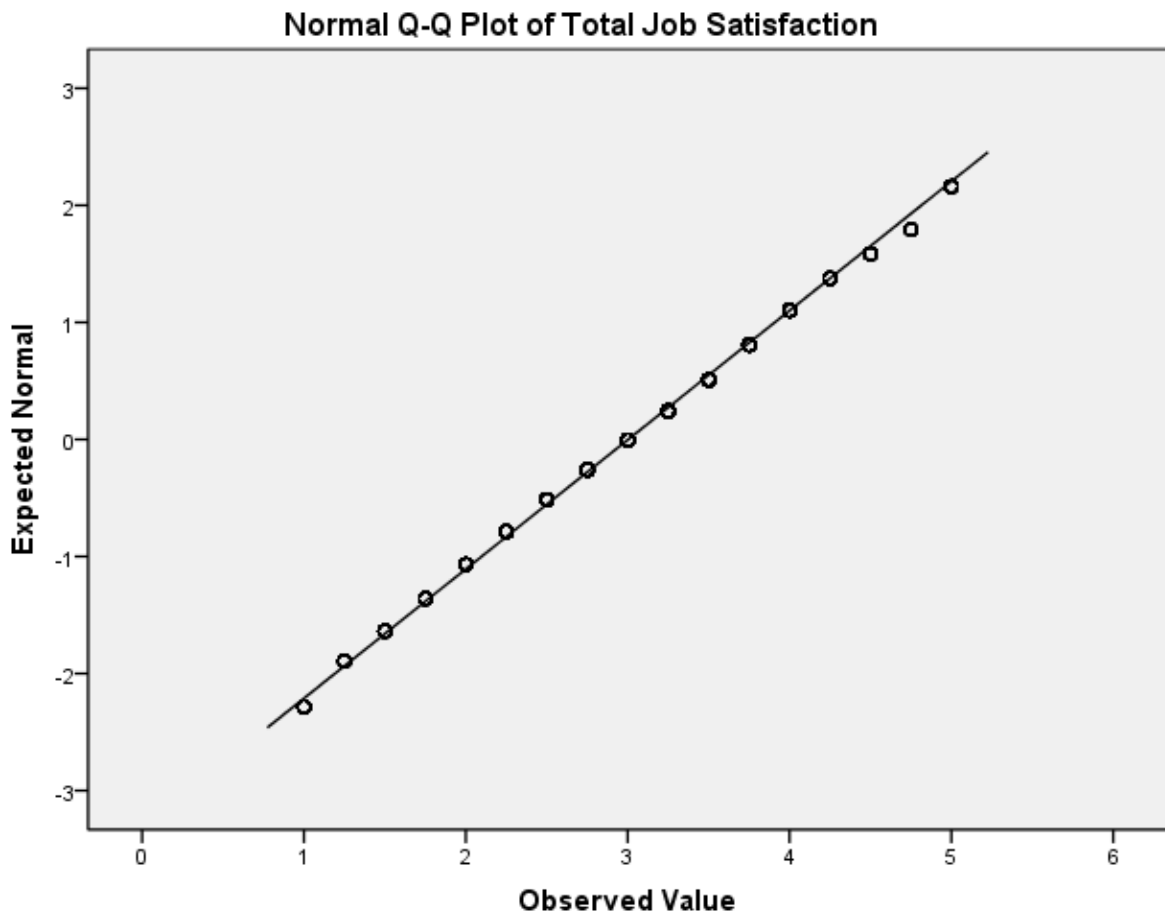
Appendix D-1 Missing Values Analysis

	N	Missing			N	Missing	
		Count	Percent			Count	Percent
SL1	333	3	.9	TL18	335	1	.3
SL2	336	0	.0	TL19	335	1	.3
SL3	333	3	.9	TL20	335	1	.3
SL4	336	0	.0	TL21	335	1	.3
SL5	334	2	.6	TL22	334	2	.6
SL6	334	2	.6	TL23	333	3	.9
SL7	335	1	.3	Inv1	334	2	.6
SL8	336	0	.0	Inv2	333	3	.9
SL9	336	0	.0	Inv3	334	2	.6
SL10	336	0	.0	Inv4	333	3	.9
SL11	336	0	.0	Inv5	333	3	.9
SL12	334	2	.6	Dom1	334	2	.6
SL13	336	0	.0	Dom2	334	2	.6
SL14	336	0	.0	Dom3	334	2	.6
SL15	336	0	.0	Dom4	334	2	.6
SL16	336	0	.0	Dom5	334	2	.6
SL17	335	1	.3	Form1	335	1	.3
SL18	334	2	.6	Form2	335	1	.3
TL1	336	0	.0	Form3	335	1	.3
TL2	335	1	.3	Form4	335	1	.3
TL3	336	0	.0	Form5	335	1	.3
TL4	336	0	.0	Cent1	335	1	.3
TL5	336	0	.0	Cent2	335	1	.3
TL6	336	0	.0	Cent3	335	1	.3
TL7	336	0	.0	Cent4	335	1	.3
TL8	336	0	.0	Cent5	335	1	.3
TL9	335	1	.3	Job1	335	1	.3
TL10	335	1	.3	Job2	335	1	.3
TL11	335	1	.3	Job3	335	1	.3
TL12	334	2	.6	Job4	335	1	.3
TL13	335	1	.3	Env1	335	1	.3
TL14	335	1	.3	Env2	334	2	.6
TL15	335	1	.3	Env3	335	1	.3
TL16	335	1	.3	Env4	334	2	.6
TL17	335	1	.3				

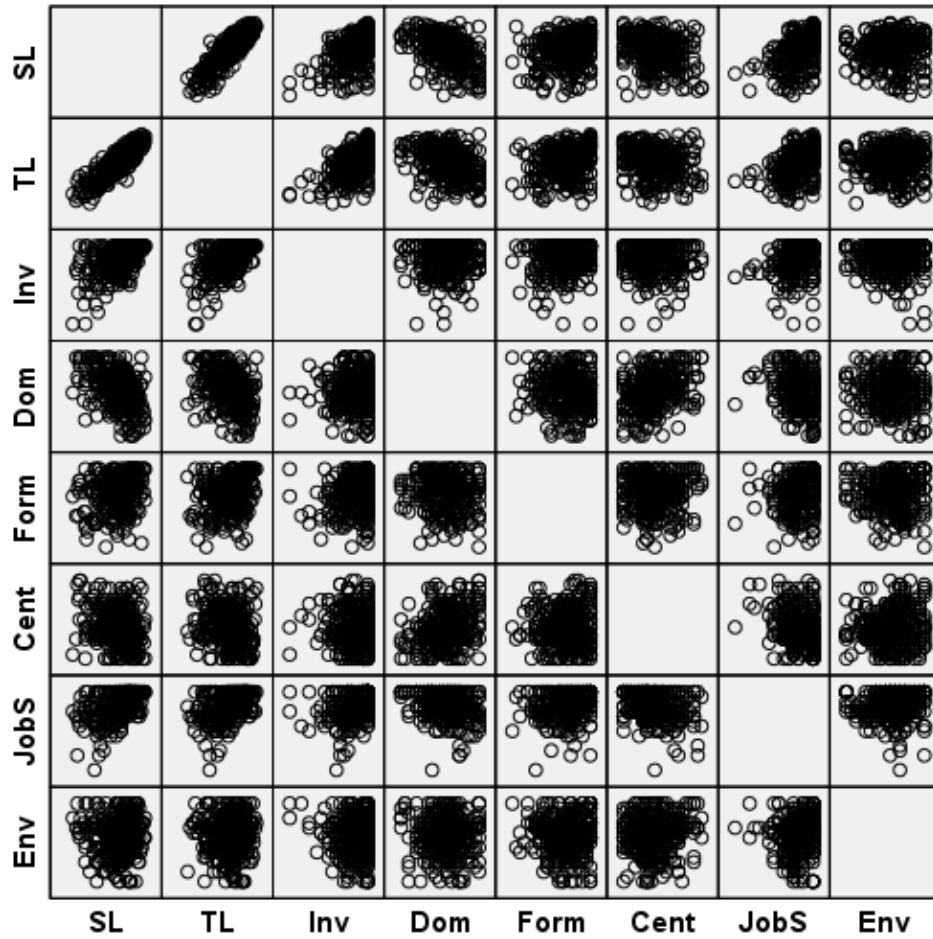
Appendix D-2 Graphical Q-Q Plots (Survey)



Appendix D-3 Graphical Q-Q Plots (Experiment)



Appendix D-4 Graphical Plot for Linearity



Appendix D-5 Scatter Plots for Homoscedasticity

