Give good, get good. Do servant leadership behaviours work in a political organisational culture?

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Statement of Original Authorship

The work contained in this thesis has not been previously submitted to meet requirements for an award at this or any other higher education institution. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made.

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Abstract

Using the broader framework of Social Exchange Theory (SET), the purpose of this study was to examine the influence of servant leadership on employees' performance through social exchange indicators (trust and leader–member exchange or LMX), and how perceived organisational politics (POP) influences these relationships. In this thesis, two studies were conducted using the sequential exploratory mixed-method research design. In the first qualitative study, 25 participants were purposefully selected from five different administrative departments of the case organisation. In the follow-up quantitative study, 236 participants were included in the final analysis of this study. The first study (qualitative) explored the existence of servant leadership behaviours and POP in a case organisation in Pakistan by using the theoretical thematic analysis. The second study (quantitative) was based on two self-administered surveys (one for supervisors and one for subordinates), resulting in 236 supervisor-subordinates dyads. Results confirmed that servant leadership positively influences subordinates' trust in their leader and LMX which results in higher task performance and OCBs. Further, results revealed that trust in leaders and LMX partially mediate the positive relationship between servant leadership and subordinates' task performance and OCBs. It was also found that POP moderates the indirect relationships between servant leadership and subordinates' task performance. However, POP did not moderate the indirect relationships between servant leadership and OCBs. This is one of the first studies to be conducted in a non-western context, testing the relationship between servant leadership and employee performance through social exchange indicators (trust, LMX) in a political organisational environment. Theoretical contributions, practical implications, study limitations and future research directions are discussed at the end of the thesis.

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Table of Contents

List of tables

List of figures

List of abbreviations

SET	Social Exchange Theory
LMX	Leader-member Exchange
OCB-I	Organisational citizenship behaviours directed towards individuals
OCB-O	Organisational citizenship behaviours directed towards organisation
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
AMOS	Analysis of a moment structures
RMSEA	Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
SRMR	Standardised Root Mean Square Residual
POP	Perceptions of Politics
SL	Servant Leadership
TL	Trust in Leader
LE	Leader Effectiveness
SE	Standard Error

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview of the chapter

Leadership, as a topic of research, has received considerable attention in the last few decades. However, there is a lack of agreement among leadership scholars on the effectiveness of specific leadership styles. This thesis explores one particular style of leadership to identify how it might contribute to leadership effectiveness. In today's changing business environment there is a need to identify how to improve employees' wellbeing for the long-term success and effectiveness of organisations. This chapter begins with providing the background of servant leadership behaviours and their influence on employee performance. Social Exchange Theory (SET), as the underpinning theory of this research, and its application to the research are then discussed. After that, perceived organisational politics (POP) is discussed as a contextual variable which influences social exchange relationships. The next section provides the overarching research question and other related questions, followed by an overview of the research methodology adopted. The chapter concludes by providing the proposed research model and outline of the thesis.

1.2 Overview of the literature

1.2.1 Background of servant leadership

Leadership has received much attention in the past few decades as a topic of research in management literature. However, there is a lack of consensus among leadership scholars as to which leadership styles or behaviours are optimal in terms of leader effectiveness and employee wellbeing. In today's changing business environment, where dependency on talented employees is increasing, there is a need to identify how to enhance employees' needs fulfilment for the long-term success and effectiveness of organisations (O'Leary, Lindholm, Whitford, & Freeman, 2002). In the last few years, research on leadership has moved away from the well-explored transformational leadership model towards shared and relational perspectives, where exchange relationships between leaders and followers are the focus

(Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). One such approach of relational, moral and ethical leadership is known as servant leadership, which is specifically oriented towards followers' needs fulfilment (Greenleaf, 1977). Servant leaders are highly concerned with followers' needs fulfilment, which results in positive employee attitudes and behaviours (Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014). However, limited attention has been given to exploring how servant leadership promotes positive employee attitudes and behaviours. Using the broader framework of SET, this study examines the indirect effect of servant leadership on employees' performance through social exchange indicators (trust and leader–member exchange or LMX), and how the political environment influences these relationships.

The basic philosophy of servant leaders is to put aside their personal interest and to work in the best interests of followers and society, because they are primarily concerned with their followers' needs fulfilment and the welfare of society in general (Han, Kakabadse, & Kakabadse, 2010). A servant leader is first among equals, serving as a role model in order to develop their followers to their fullest potential by exhibiting ethical behaviours (Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008). Comparing servant leadership theory with other leadership theories, such as ethical leadership (Brown, Trevino & Harrison, 2005), transformational leadership (Burns, 1978) and authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005), van Dierendonck (2011) demonstrates that servant leaders have unique attributes, including authenticity, interpersonal acceptance and, above all, a focus on followers' needs satisfaction. Linking with positive individual- and group-level outcomes, past research has identified that servant leadership has a positive association with organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) (Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010), increased job satisfaction (Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008), a procedural justice climate (Ehrhart, 2004) and helping behaviours (Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008). Servant leadership behaviours are also effective in engendering high organisational commitment among

subordinates (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008). Being a relational leadership style, servant leaders are always in an exchange relationship with their followers. Using the framework of SET (Blau, 1964), Liden, Wayne, Zhao and Henderson (2008) explain that servant leadership increases employees' organisational commitment, and it is this theory that underpins the research reported in this thesis.

As described above, previous research has established a positive relationship between servant leadership and positive organisational outcomes. However, the effect of servant leadership on positive organisational outcomes has not been tested in an organisational context which is deemed to be negative (in this case, high in perceived politics). Therefore, this study has adopted the framework of SET to test the influence of perceived politics on the indirect relationship of servant leadership on employee task performance and OCB.

1.2.2 Social Exchange Theory

Bearing in mind the importance of SET in leadership research (Blau, 1964), this study uses this theory to understand the exchange relationships between leaders and followers and their influence on leader effectiveness and employee performance. SET is one of the most important conceptual paradigms being used to understand individuals' behaviours in the workplace (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). This theory has been widely used in different disciplines, including anthropology (Firth, 1967; Sahlins, 1972), social psychology (Gouldner, 1960; Homans, 1958) and sociology (Blau, 1964), and theorists have agreed that interactions occur in social exchange that engender obligations (Emerson, 1976). SET posits that individuals develop exchange relationships based upon their experiences with others (Blau, 1986; Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2004; Shore et al., 2003). Following the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960; Levinson, 1965), individuals often repay others in the same tone as they receive; that is, good with good and bad with bad (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007).

It is evident from SET that trust is an important element of the relationship between the two parties. The framework of SET can be used to understand the influence of servant leadership on employee attitudes and behaviours in which trust in the leader works as an underlying mechanism (Mayer et al., 1995; McAllister & Bigley, 2002; Rousseau et al., 1998). SET provides an explanation as to how servant leadership influences the subordinates' trust in their leader (Greenleaf, 1977). It has been established in literature that servant leadership focuses on the betterment of a leader's subordinates. Therefore, following the norm of reciprocity, subordinates reciprocate by trusting their leaders.

In addition, LMX theory has also been used as an underlying mechanism to understand the process of servant leaders influencing their followers to go beyond their job role and exhibit positive behaviours towards their organisation and other organisational members (Van Dierendonck, 2011). High LMX relationships are characterised by high levels of mutual trust, respect and obligations which resultantly transform into positive employee behaviours.

It is evident from the previously outlined research that high trust in the leader and high LMX act as underlying mechanisms between servant leadership and employee task performance and OCB. However, this may not always be the case, because contextual factors (such as POP) might influence social exchange relationships, and it is this contextual factor that is the focus of the current research.

1.2.3 Perceived organisational politics

Organisations which are high in politics are characterised by an environment focusing on self-serving, illegitimate and harmful activities for the organisation and its members (Hochwarter et al., 2002). This environment can hamper the development of the employee–organisation exchange relationship (Keeley, 1988; Rosen, 2006). These self-serving political activities are often detrimental to organisations and their members (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt,

1989b; Kacmar & Baron, 1999). This study focuses on employees' perceptions of organisational politics (as a key feature of the work culture or context), which represents subjective appraisals of the pervasiveness of self-serving influential tactics in work, decision-making and resource allocation processes (Hochwarter et al., 2002).

Recently, in the organisational psychology literature, several studies have adopted the framework of social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) in order to investigate the relationships among the organisations, supervisors and subordinates. Primarily, social exchange theory focusses on the development of different types of social exchange relationships in the workplace (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005); such as leader-member exchange (LMX) and interpersonal trust (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986; Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhoades, 2002; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997; Wayne et al., 1997; Aryee et al., 2002). Thus, social exchange theory is a multi-focus approach comprising subordinates' trust in leader and LMX.

Social exchange theory posits that individuals develop exchange relationships with others on the basis of their experiences and reciprocate in the same tone as they receive from others. Servant leaders are highly concerned with the wellbeing of their followers and believe in the development of the extended community. Individuals, working under a servant leader, are perceived to be in a high LMX relationship and therefore expected to have a higher degree of trust in their leader as servant leader is high in ability, benevolence and integrity which are the building blocks of trustworthiness. It is anticipated that servant leadership behaviours will be followed by high LMX and high subordinate trust in the leader irrespective of the context. However, social exchange relationships (LMX and trust) are contingent upon the contextual factors which might influence the resultant behaviours. Therefore, when employees perceive a high level of workplace politics, they may be reluctant to exert higher level of efforts at work because of the uncertainty of receiving fair rewards.

Trust in supervisors and high-quality exchange relationships (social exchange indicators) may influence employees to hold positive organisational attitudes and behaviours only in a favourable work environment where POP is low rather than high, because in high political organisations employees are self-centred even if they trust their supervisor (Poon, 2006). This potential impact of organisational politics led to the overarching research question of this thesis.

1.3 Research questions

The extensive review and synthesis of literature in the area of servant leadership, trust, LMX (underpinned by SET) and POP led to the objective of this thesis, which is to answer the following overarching research question:

How does perception of politics influence the social exchange obligations and leader effectiveness in the context of servant leadership?

Based upon this overarching research question and a theoretical framework developed from the literature review, the following sub-questions were identified:

1. To what extent do servant leadership behaviours and POP exist in the case organisation?

2. What is the relationship between servant leadership behaviours and subordinates' trust in their leader?

3. What is the relationship between servant leadership behaviours and LMX?

4. What is the relationship between servant leadership behaviours and leader effectiveness?

5. What is the relationship between trust in leader and employee task performance?

6. What is the relationship between LMX and employee task performance?

7. What is the relationship between trust in leader and employee OCBs?

8. What is the relationship between LMX and employee OCBs?

9. To what extent does POP influence the relationship between social exchange indicators (trust, LMX) and employee performance?

1.4 Proposed research model

This model shows the proposed relationships between servant leadership and employee performance (task performance and OCBs) through social exchange indicators (trust and LMX). In addition, the model further proposes the extent to which POP influences servant leadership effectiveness and social exchange obligations.
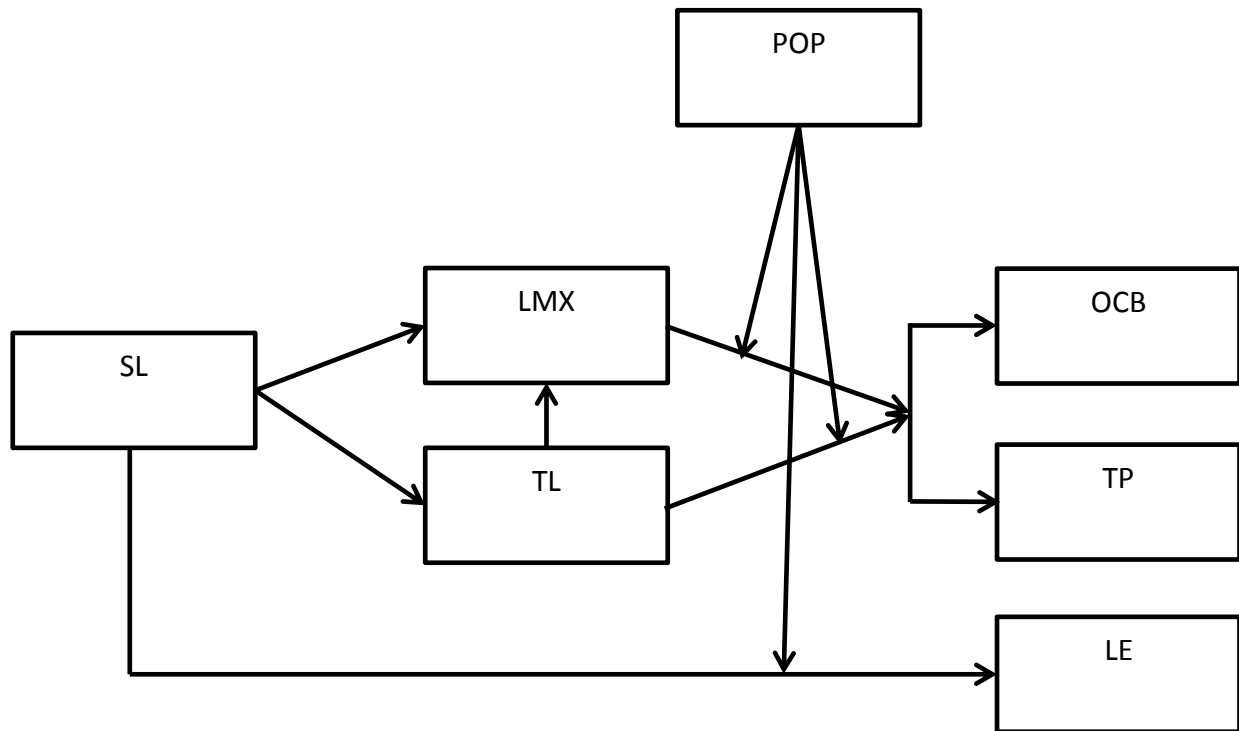
Figure 1. Servant leadership, employees' outcomes and leader effectiveness

1.5 Thesis structure and outline

This thesis began with this introduction chapter, Chapter 1, which has presented the background of servant leadership, SET and POP. Based upon the extensive literature review in the area of servant leadership and organisational politics, a theoretical framework for this thesis was developed which is provided in Chapter 2. Hypothesised relationships between the

study variables are presented in Chapter 3. Based upon the literature review and theoretical framework, the methodology for this thesis is provided in Chapter 4, providing the rationale for the mixed-method approach adopted, participants' selection procedure, and data collection and analytic techniques. Qualitative and quantitative results are discussed in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 respectively. Chapter 7 concludes the thesis, wherein the findings are discussed in light of the relevant literature. The last section of Chapter 7 presents the theoretical contributions, practical implications, limitations and future research directions.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview of the chapter

Leadership has been a topic of interest for organisational researchers because of its importance in both the private and public sectors (Hood, 2015). As a topic of research, leadership is highly valued, sought-after and much has been written about it (Gordon, 2011; Northouse, 2015). This chapter provides a detailed analysis of the extant literature that relates to the current research. First, a definition of leadership and an overview of existing leadership theory and practice is provided, in particular focusing on the theories closely related to the focus of this research: servant leadership. After that, the impact of culture in leadership effectiveness is discussed in detail, with a special emphasis on servant leadership. Servant leadership, as the core research focus, is then covered in detail, including a specific focus on the critical elements of trust and LMX in the social exchange relationship. This section also provides an overview of current research and identifies the areas of servant leadership requiring further research. In addition, the dependent variables (OCBs and task performance) are discussed in detail, with special emphasis on their relationship with servant leadership. SET is then discussed as the underpinning theory of this research, followed by an overview of LMX and its application to the research. Finally, the second core element of this research – organisational politics and political behaviour – is analysed, focusing particularly on the implications for servant leadership that lead to the overarching research question of the study.

2.2 Leadership theory and research

There is consensus on the concept of "influence" in leadership literature, suggesting that those who are leaders exert a level of influence over their followers. Identifying the commonalities in leadership literature, Stone and Patterson (2005) conclude that leadership "is an effort of influence and the power to induce compliance" (p. 1). Yukl (1998) defines leadership as the "influence exerted by one person over other people in an attempt to

structure the activities and relationships in a group or organisation" (p. 14). Focusing on the relational element of leadership, Rost (1993) proposes that leadership is an "influence relationship wherein leaders and their collaborators influenced one another about real changes that reflect mutual purposes" (p. 100). Supporting this relational aspect of leadership, Northhouse (2015) asserts that a leader has a higher degree of influence on their followers' personal, social and professional lives. This concept of "influence" in leadership was extended by Conger and Kanungo (1998) from the individual to the organisational level, where they mention that the leader's influence "plays an important role in the creation, survival, growth, and decay of organizations" (p. 3).

Leadership theory initially focused heavily on leaders as individuals, and followers often attribute exceptional qualities to their leader, which is the underpinning philosophy of what became known as charismatic leadership (Weber, 1947). Delineating the attributes of a charismatic leader, Marshall (2012) identifies that communicating an appealing vision, using expressive communication, taking personal risks, making sacrifices, expressing high expectations, showing confidence in followers, modelling behaviours, managing impressions, building identification with the group and empowering followers are the building blocks of charismatic leadership. Drawing attention to the importance of the ethical dimension of leadership, Brown, Treviño and Harrison (2005) identify that "previous study of an ethical dimension of leadership has been embedded primarily within the transformational and charismatic leadership domains" (p. 117). A charismatic leader is more concerned about the welfare of their followers above their self-interest, which motivates their followers to have a higher trust in their leader (Yukl, 2006). This particular attribute of a charismatic leader overlaps with the focus of the current research on servant leadership as it has a primary focus on developing followers and fulfilling their needs.

A number of leadership scholars have put forth additional leadership theories which build on the concept of charismatic leadership theory, for example transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978), authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005), ethical leadership (Brown et al., 2005), spiritual leadership (Fry, 2003) and servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977). Substantial empirical investigations of these theories have been undertaken by organisational researchers, and a brief overview of these leadership theories is presented in the following section to identify links to servant leadership as the focus of this study.

Transformational leadership has been widely studied in organisational literature, in particular the ethical and moral dimensions of leadership (Brown et al., 2005). It has been observed that there is a preponderance of ethical and moral values in transformational leadership theory (Northouse, 2007). The phrase "transforming leadership" was first coined by Burns (1978), and Bass (1985) formally proposed the theory of transformational leadership and brought it into the organisational context. Transformational leaders give special attention to the development of their followers by individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation and supportive behaviours (Bass, 1985). These particular attributes of transformational leadership are aligned with servant leadership, the focus of the current research; however, idealised influence (a charismatic element of transformational leadership) is the real differentiating factor between transformational and servant leadership (Van Dierendonck, 2011). The primary adherence of transformational leaders is with the organisation, whereas servant leaders' primary allegiance is with fulfilling their followers' needs. In addition, servant leadership focuses on humility, authenticity and interpersonal acceptance, which are not the explicit attributes of transformational leadership (Van Dierendonck, 2011).

Authentic leadership is another leadership theory with potential links and overlaps with servant leadership. Avolio, Luthans and Walumbwa (2004, p. 4) define authentic leaders as:

…those who are deeply aware of how they think and behave and are perceived by others as being aware of their own and others' values/moral perspectives, knowledge, and strengths; aware of the context in which they operate; and who are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, and of high moral character.

This definition is derived from the concept of authenticity, which refers to "owning one's personal experiences, be they thoughts, emotions, needs, wants, preferences, or beliefs, processes captured by the injunction to know oneself" and "further implies that one acts in accord with the true self, expressing oneself in ways that are consistent with inner thoughts and feelings" (Harter, 2002, p. 382). The concept of behavioural integrity (Simons & Parks, 2000) is aligned with authenticity, which represents a higher degree of alignment between what a person says and what they do. This is a key attribute of authentic leaders, because research has shown that those with high behavioural integrity are more influential and convincing for the followers (Marshall, 2012). Authenticity is the commonality between servant leadership and authentic leadership, and literature indicates that servant leaders are credible and trustworthy because they are high in ability, benevolence and integrity (Liden, Panaccio, Meuser, Hu, & Wayne, 2014) and they generally abide by what they say, which is congruent with behavioural integrity (Simons & Parks, 2000).

The concept of spiritual leadership, first proposed by Fry (2003), is also worth considering in relation to servant leadership. Based on an intrinsic motivation model, spiritual leadership was delineated as being comprised of vision, hope/faith and altruistic love. It has been suggested that spiritual leaders are highly concerned with the welfare of followers and foster congruence between team members, which ultimately transforms into higher

organisational commitment and performance (Fry, 2003). Altruistic love, a dimension of spiritual leadership, is more often used synonymously with charity, and common attributes associated with it are unselfish, unconditional, loyal and benevolent care, concern and appreciation of self and others (Fry, 2003). Altruistic love can be defined as "a sense of wholeness, harmony, and wellbeing produced through care, concern, and appreciation for both self and others" (Fry, 2003, p. 712). This definition indicates that spiritual leadership resembles the moral dimension of transformational leadership because it includes the values of "patience, kindness, lack of envy, forgiveness, humility, selflessness, self-control, trust, loyalty, and truthfulness" (Fry, 2003, p. 712). As described above, spiritual leaders are highly concerned about the welfare of followers, hence altruism seems to be the most important moral factor "which focuses on others rather than self" (Marshall, 2012). Therefore, this dimension of "altruistic love", with a strong focus on others, clearly resembles servant leadership, and specifically the "altruistic calling" scale of servant leadership as discussed later in more detail later.

The final leadership theory that shows similarities with servant leadership is ethical leadership. Ethical leadership can be defined as "the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making" (Brown et al., 2005, p. 120). The first half of this definition suggests that ethical leaders must conduct themselves in ways which seem normatively appropriate for their followers and lends legitimacy to leaders as role models. The second part of the definition suggests that ethical leaders do not only talk to followers about ethics in order to raise its importance; rather, they provide voice and a procedurally or interpersonally fair process (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). The third part of the definition, "reinforcement", demonstrates that ethical leaders set the standards by themselves and reward those who

follow and punish those who contradict that model (Treviño, Brown, & Hartman, 2003). The last part, "decision making", shows that ethical leaders are highly concerned about their decisions and provide opportunities for followers to emulate them (Bass & Avolio, 2000; Howell & Avolio, 1992). Ethical leadership is similar to servant leadership in terms of integrity, trustworthiness, caring for people and serving for the good of the whole (Van Dierendonck, 2011). However, ethical leaders have more emphasis on directive and normative behaviours, whereas the focus of servant leaders is primarily the developmental aspect of the followers (Van Dierendonck, 2011).

Avolio et al. (2009) gave a detailed overview on the current state of leadership research, describing how the focus of leadership researchers has changed from an emphasis on the leader only, towards a broader context which includes the followers, peers, supervisors, workplace setting and culture. Recent theories of leadership acknowledge the complex nature of leadership, which is the blend of leader, followers and context. Servant leadership theory is one of these relational leadership theories, focusing on fulfilling followers' needs and ethical behaviours. The term servant leadership was first coined by Greenleaf (1970); however, there was no direct empirical study of servant leadership until the 21st century. In the last decade, a number of empirical studies have been conducted to establish relationships between servant leadership and employee-level outcomes (Donia, Raja, Panaccio, & Wang, 2016; Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014; Newman, Schwarz, Cooper, & Sendjaya, 2015; Walumbwa et al., 2010). However, no empirical study has tested servant leadership effectiveness and employees' performance in an environment where perceived politics is high.

This study focuses on the impact of servant leadership on employees' performance in a political organisational environment (to be discussed in more detail later in this chapter), where self-serving and illegitimate activities are in abundance. To better understand the

relationships between servant leadership and the political organisational environment, this study used the underlying framework of SET to explore how trust in the leader and LMX may work as underlying mechanisms between servant leadership and employee performance.

2.3 Servant leadership

The term servant leadership was first introduced by Robert Greenleaf in his seminal work "*The Servant as Leader,*" published in 1970:

> The Servant-Leader is servant first … It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead … The best test, and difficult to administer is this: Do those served grow as persons? Do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, and more likely themselves to become servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society? Will they benefit, or at least not further be harmed? (1970, p. 7).

Servant leadership can be defined as "the natural feeling that one has of desiring to serve others. It seeks to develop individuals who ensure that others' needs are met, and advocates a group-orientated approach to decision-making as a means of strengthening institutions and society" (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 27).

Demand for ethical leaders, paying attention to stakeholders, high concern for society and people-centred management in today's organisations has led to an increased focus on servant leadership theory (Van Dierendonck, 2011). Because servant leaders are described as having great concern for the needs of their followers, this leadership style is particularly relevant in contemporary organisations that tend to have a greater emphasis on social responsibility. During the last few years, leadership research has observed a transition from a

focus on leader-based transformational leadership towards a shared, relational and global perspective which places greater importance on the leader–follower relationship (Avolio et al., 2009). Servant leaders primarily focus on their followers' growth within their organisation (Luthans & Avolio, 2003), and this may pave the way for trustworthy relationships within the organisation. As opposed to other leadership theories, which propose influence as an important element of leadership, servant leadership theory proposes that ideal leadership outcomes stem from good leader–follower relationships (Van Dierendonck, 2011).

2.3.1 Key characteristics of servant leadership

Several authors have sought to identify the key characteristics of servant leadership and differentiate it from other forms of leadership. Table 1 presents the detailed overview of servant leadership constructs proposed by different leadership scholars. Spears (1996) was the first to study Greenleaf's writings about servant leadership to clarify servant leadership theory and, in doing so, identified ten attributes of servant leadership: listening, empathy, healing (of oneself and others), awareness of others, situations and oneself, persuasion, conceptualisation, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community. Farling, Stone and Winston (1999) then proposed a servant leadership model comprising five characteristics: vision, influence, credibility, trust and service. After that, Laub (1999) made the first attempt to operationalise servant leadership. He proposed a model comprising six clusters of servant leadership characteristics: personal development, valuing people, building community, displaying authenticity, providing leadership and sharing leadership. Russel and Stone (2002) identified two different areas of servant leadership attributes with nine functional characteristics – vision, honesty, integrity, trust, service, modelling, pioneering, appreciation of others and empowerment – and 11 additional servant leadership characteristics. Page and Wong (2000) developed a servant leadership instrument

building from a 12-dimensional conceptual framework, which was later reduced to eight dimensions: integrity, humility, servanthood, caring for others, developing others, empowering others, visioning, goal-setting, leading, modelling, team building and shared decision-making.

Patterson (2003) proposed a six-dimensional model: Agapao love, humility, altruism, trust, empowerment and service. Sendjaya et al. (2008) developed a servant leadership instrument comprising 35 items, encompassing 22 attributes and which is divided into six scales: voluntary subordination, authentic self, covenantal relationship, responsible morality, transcendental spirituality and transforming influence. Liden et al. (2008) used exploratory and confirmatory samples to validate their seven-dimensional servant leadership scale comprising 28-items. The seven dimensions are: emotional healing, creating value for the community, conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates, putting subordinates first and behaving ethically. Lastly, van Dierendonk and Huijten (2011) developed an instrument comprised of 30 items divided into eight factors: empowerment, standing back, accountability, forgiveness, courage, authenticity, humility and stewardship. This detailed overview of the servant leadership construct shows that there is considerable overlap among the characteristics of servant leadership proposed by these scholars.

Table 1. *Constructs of servant leadership*

Spears (1998)	Farling et al. (1999)	Laub (1999)	Page and Wong (2000)	Russel & Stone (2002)	Patterson (2002)	Barbuto & Wheeler (2006)	Sendjaya et al. (2008)	Liden et al. (2008)	Van Dierendonk (2011)
Listening	Vision	Values people	Integrity	Vision	Agapao love	Altruistic calling	Voluntary subordination	Emotional healing	Empowerment
Empathy	Influence	Develops people	Humility	Honesty	Humility	Emotional healing	Authentic self	Creating value for the community	Humility
Healing	Credibility	Builds community	Servanthood	Integrity	Altruism	Persuasive mapping	Covenantal relationship	Conceptual skills	Standing back
Awareness	Trust	Displays authenticity	Caring for Others	Trust	Trust	Wisdom	Responsible morality	Empowering	Authenticity
Persuasion	Service	Provides leadership	Developing Others	Modelling	Empowerment	Organisational stewardship	Transcendental spirituality	Helping subordinates	Forgiveness
Conceptualisation		Shares leadership	Empowering Others	Pioneering	Service		Transforming influence	Putting subordinates first	Courage
Foresight			Visioning	Appreciation of others				Behaving ethically	Accountability
Stewardship			Goal-setting						Stewardship
Commitment to growth of people			Team building	Empowerment					
Building community			Shared-decision making						

18

After a thorough review of the literature on servant leadership it was found highly convincing that the most comprehensive model of the servant leadership construct was proposed by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006), as it covers all the important attributes of servant leadership models presented by different scholars (see Table 1 for details). In order to understand the servant leadership construct comprehensively, their model was adopted for this study as it covers all the attributes of servant leadership and is widely used and accepted.

Altruistic calling is a conscious choice to serve others (Greenleaf, 1977), which is the corner stone of servant leadership ideology (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Servant leaders put their followers' interests ahead of their own and sacrifice their own will, which enhances their followers' trust and results in high-quality exchange relationships (Barbuto & Hayden, 2011). Emotional healing is another dimension of servant leadership which describes a leader's ability to assist subordinates in recovering from hardship and trauma (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Servant leaders are highly empathetic and sensitive towards followers (Liden et al., 2008) and create a conducive environment in which followers are free to demonstrate their personal and professional problems (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Wisdom is another dimension of servant leadership which likely impacts LMX quality. Wisdom refers to a person's capability to analyse the environment, pick up signals from it and come up with possible consequences on the basis of observations (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Servant leaders are also high in "persuasive mapping", which is the ability to use mental models and sound reasoning to encourage others (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). This use of persuasive mapping by leaders is likely to foster LMX, because research shows that persuasiveness-based relationships are more productive than authority-based relationships in terms of building relationships (Druskat & Pescosolido, 2002).

2.3.2 Measuring servant leadership

For decades after the advent of the term servant leadership by Greenleaf (1970), there was no empirical evidence to support the newly introduced theory. It was in the late 1990s and early 2000s that assessment tools were developed to operationalise servant leadership. The basic objective of developing these assessment tools was to identify those who act like a servant leader and whether their behaviours influence organisational performance. Most of the early empirical studies on servant leadership used the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) (Laub, 1999) and Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) to operationalise servant leadership. After a comprehensive literature review, Laub outlined 46 characteristics associated with servant leadership which were reduced into six clusters of characteristics: values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership. However, high intercorrelations among the six clusters of the OLA led to recommendations that the overall OLA score be used (Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011).

With the rising popularity of servant leadership as a relevant leadership style, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) found it necessary to develop a scale (the SLQ) that would allow for additional empirical research to advance the model in both academic and organisational settings. Eleven factors were initially identified, related to the concepts within servant leadership put forward by Greenleaf (1970). After testing, these factors were reduced to five: altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping and organisational stewardship. This assessment tool has widely been used in servant leadership literature, which covered all the important aspects of servant leadership. Additionally, in contrast to the OLA, the SLQ is frequently used as a multidimensional measure because psychometric research has demonstrated the factors suggest the presence of robust first- and second-order

factors in this measure. Therefore, this assessment tool was adopted in this thesis to measure servant leadership.

2.3.3 Conceptual model of servant leadership

Focusing on the concept of love within the servant leadership model, Winston (2002) explains that the primary concern of servant leaders within an organisation is to love people in the organisation. In order to explain the phenomenon of love in a servant leadership model, Winston used the concept of *"agapao"* in a servant led-organisation. The word "agapao is a Greek word which refers to moral love, doing the right things at the right time for the right reason" (Winston, 2002, p. 5). This concept of love became a foundation stone for Patterson (2003b) in a theoretical dissertation where she explained the extension of transformational leadership through servant leadership. In a detailed literature review, van Dierendonk (2011) claims that Russel and Stone (2002), Spears (1995), Laub (1999) and Patterson (2003b) represent the most influential research on servant leadership. Based upon the research of the abovementioned scholars, van Dierendonk (2011) proposes a conceptual model of servant leadership as shown in Figure 2.

A Conceptual Model of Servant Leadership
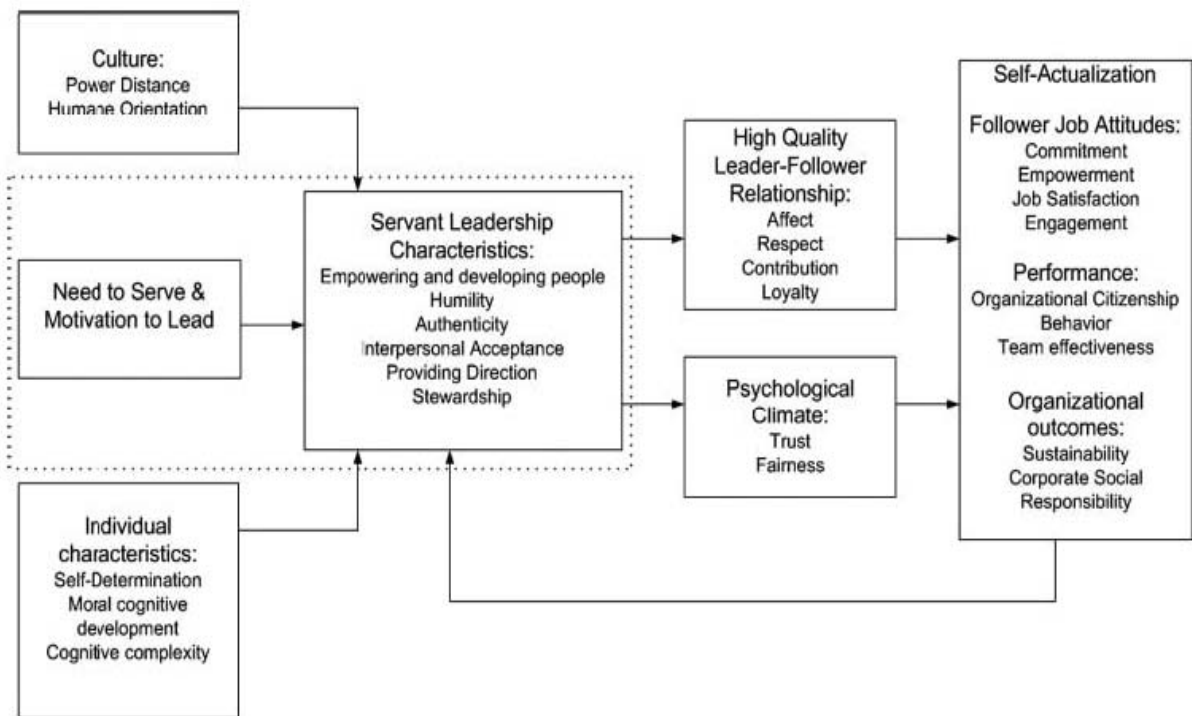
Figure 2. Conceptual model of servant leadership (adopted from Van Dierendonck, 2011, p. 1233)

It has been established in the literature that servant leadership has positive relationships with employees' job satisfaction, commitment, engagement, in-role performance and extra-role performance (De Clercq, Bouckenooghe, Raja & Matsyborska, 2014; Liden et al., 2014; Chan & Mak, 2013). However, the literature is not clear on how this relationship takes place. The conceptual model depicted above proposes that culture, motivation to serve humanity and individual characteristics are the driving forces for servant leadership. The model further explains that high-quality leader–follower relationships and psychological climate (trust, fairness) can be the potential mediating mechanisms between servant leadership and employee attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. Based upon the above conceptual model, this study explores whether trust and LMX are the underlying factors

which help in establishing positive relationships between servant leadership and employees' performance. In addition, this study examines the effectiveness of servant leaders in terms of leader effectiveness and employee performance in an environment where POP is high.

2.3.4 Organisational citizenship behaviours and task performance

Two key variables in this thesis are OCB and task performance. These variables are explored as potential outcomes of servant leadership, as indicated in Figure 2. OCB is deemed as essential for effective organisational functioning. Employees' willingness to go the extra mile for their organisations can easily be captured by OCB, which can be defined as "those organizationally beneficial behaviours and gestures that can neither be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations nor elicited by contractual guarantees or recompense'' (Organ, 1990, p. 46). Several research studies have emphasised the importance of OCB for group and organisational effectiveness (e.g. Organ, 1988; Podsakoff et al., 1997, 2000). In addition, citizenship behaviours are considered as an important phenomenon to understand from an individual and organisational level (Chiaburu & Lim, 2008).

The importance of OCB has well been established in the literature. In today's dynamic business environment it is considered crucial for an organisation's survival. Murphy, Athanasau and Neville (2002) found that OCB plays a key role in the growth, success, effectiveness and productivity of any organisation. In addition, drawing on the importance of citizenship behaviours, several researchers have found support for the impact of OCB on organisational outcomes and effectiveness (e.g. Organ & Konovsky, 1989; MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Fetter, 1993; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; Walz & Niehoff, 1996; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1997; Koys, 2001). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000) highlight the benefits of OCB to the organisation, including: positive influence on co-workers or managerial productivity, releasing resources for increased productive efforts, increased coordination within and across

work groups, reducing the usage of scarce resources for purely maintenance functions, enhancing the organisation's capability to attract and retain high-performing employees, increasing the stability of the organisation's performance, and enabling the organisation to adapt more effectively to the environmental changes. Overall, it is evident from the literature that citizenship behaviours are not included in the job description of employees; however, these kinds of behaviours are beneficial for both individuals and organisations.

Task performance generally refers to the category of behaviours mandatory to complete the duties and tasks which contribute to: (a) core products or services produced by the organisation (line functions), or (b) servicing and maintenance of the technical core of the organisation (staff functions) (Motowidlo et al., 1997). These kinds of activities are generally identified in job analyses, mentioned in job descriptions and are assessed during the performance appraisal process (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995).

Researchers have explained task performance in different ways with different names, for example Katz and Kahn (1978) define *role performance in system* as meeting or exceeding the quantitative and qualitative standard of performance. Welbourne et al. (1998) define *job role* as the quantity and quality of work output. In addition, Murphy (1989) defines *task performance* as the accomplishment of duties and responsibilities associated with a given job. Campbell (1990) uses the terms *job-specific* and *non-job specific task proficiency* to describe actions and behaviours engaged in for the purpose of completing technical tasks. Borman and Brush (1993) use the term *technical activities* to describe behaviours that demonstrate technical proficiency. Generally speaking, task performance includes those behaviours for which employees believe that they will be rewarded, and refers to a group of behaviours involved in the completion of tasks (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002).

Servant leaders are highly people-centred, which increases the likelihood that they would have more satisfied, more committed and high-performing employees. It has been

explored that servant leadership offers a unique contribution to community citizenship behaviours, in-role performance and organisational commitment beyond transformational leadership and LMX (Liden et al., 2008). Servant leadership has a positive relationship with job satisfaction, mediated by organisational justice and need satisfaction (Mayer et al., 2008). Servant leaders encourage a higher level of moral reasoning among their followers, which positively influences OCB (Graham, 1995).

There are some broad commonalities between servant leadership and organisational citizenship behaviours (e.g. altruistic calling of the leader and altruistic behaviours in followers; organisational stewardship and civic virtue), which shows the likelihood of a correlation between the two concepts. Studies have found a positive association between OCB, job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983) and organisational commitment (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Servant leadership is positively related to both satisfaction and commitment (Barbuto, & Wheeler, 2006; Dannhauser & Boshoff, 2006; Liden et al., 2008), which may influence citizenship behaviours. In addition, comparing servant leadership with transformational leadership, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) found that the servant leader construct is a better predictor of LMX quality compared to transformational leadership, which may transform into higher task performance and OCB (Chen, Lam, & Zhong, 2012a; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Oren, Tziner, Sharoni, Amor, & Alon, 2012).

Task performance, organisational citizenship behaviours directed towards individuals (OCB-I) and organisational citizenship behaviours directed towards the organisation (OCB-O) are three important dimensions of employees' job performance that have been topics of interest for researchers in the last few decades because of their indisputable and distinct contribution to organisational goal achievement (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997; Motowidlo, Borman, & Schmit, 1997). Rotundo and Sackett (2002) suggest that job performance is a multi-dimensional construct, and literature has also identified three dimensions of

performance: task performance, citizenship behaviour and counterproductive work behaviours. Task performance and citizenship behaviours are discussed together because these constructs are positive aspects of work performance and are highly correlated (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002).

Ehrhart (2004) found a significant positive correlation between servant leadership and unit-level OCB (helping and conscientiousness), mediated by procedural justice climate. A positive relationship between servant leadership and OCB is the confirmation of postulation proposed by Smith, Organ and Near (1983), which shows that supportive leaders are likely to be related with OCB. They are of the view that leaders' concern for employees induces them to perform citizenship behaviours, which makes them role models for employees. Servant leaders working as role models initiate to create a servant culture which may result in higher performance and lower turnover intention (Liden et al., 2014). Overall, it is extracted from servant leadership literature that attributes of servant leaders positively predict employees' task performance and citizenship behaviours. However, one question remains unanswered: to what extent are servant leaders effective in a political organisational environment?

2.4 Social Exchange Theory

The basic philosophy of SET is that social behaviour is the outcome of an exchange process, and that the exchange of material and social resources (tangible or intangible) is the basic form of human interaction (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Maximisation of benefit is the prime objective of any business transaction; hence, the purpose of this exchange is naturally to maximise benefits and minimise costs. SET (Blau, 1964) posits that high-quality exchanges between a leader and subordinates requires high levels of trust with each other (Cohen, 1992a). SET further explains that exchange partners weigh up the associated benefits and risks of the exchange relationship. Individuals are likely to relinquish the exchange relationship when they perceive that social rewards associated with the exchange relationship

outweigh the social risks. According to Blau (1964), mutual trust is the building block of social exchange relationships, which indicates that one party trusts another party with the expectation that the other party will reciprocate. Therefore, social exchange is not an explicit and contractual agreement like an economic exchange. However, social exchange relationships are evolutionary in nature, and take a longer time to transform into trusting, loyal, reciprocating and mutual relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

A major argument put forward in this thesis is that the relationship between servant leadership and subordinate behaviour can be explained in terms of SET. Using the lens of SET, it is expected that servant leaders are more likely to build higher social exchange relationship with subordinates. In addition, servant leaders are perceived as trustworthy because they are high in ability, benevolence and integrity, hence subordinates are more likely to have higher trust in them, which ultimately transforms into higher organisational performance.

The adoption of SET in explaining leader–subordinate behaviour is not novel to this thesis; the influential leadership theory, LMX, is largely based on SET. Drawing from SET (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960), LMX theory posits that leaders develop differentiated exchange relationships with subordinates depending upon the efforts, resources and support exchanged between the two parties (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). High-quality LMX relationships are characterised by high trust, interaction, support and rewards. These relationships extend beyond the responsibilities specified in formal job descriptions, and there is a perceived obligation on the part of subordinates to reciprocate high-quality LMX relationships (Liden et al., 1997). A detailed overview of how LMX theory applies to this research is presented in the next section.

2.5 Leader–member exchange theory and research

LMX theory was developed approximately 40 years ago by Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975). Originally it was called vertical dyadic linkage (VDL) (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975), and was proposed as a response to the concept of average leadership style (ALS), where leaders have similar relationships with subordinates. The basic philosophy of LMX is to understand how leaders react towards their subordinates (Levy & Williams, 2004). It is suggested that leaders treat their subordinates differently depending upon their affiliation with in-groups and out-groups (Dansereau et al., 1975). In-group members are in high-quality exchange relationships with the leader, characterised by "mutual trust, respect and obligation", whereas out-group members have a low-quality exchange relationship with the leader, characterised by lower trust, respect and obligations (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 227).

A brief taxonomy of leadership theories has been described by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). Describing the complexity of the leadership phenomenon, these authors identify that leadership can be studied from three different perspectives: (a) leader's perspective (b) followers' perspective and (c) leader/followers' relationship perspective. While studying leadership from a leader's perspective, the concerned issues include the qualities a leader possesses, appropriate behaviour they exhibit and the time at which the leader is most effective (Mayer, 2005). Studying leadership from a follower's perspective, the important things include their capability and motivation to manage themselves, surrender, control, and the factors influencing their perception of a need for leadership (Mayer, 2005). Finally, the third perspective can best be described as relating to LMX theory, where the focus is not on either party (leader, followers), rather the focus is on the relationship between the leader and followers (Mayer, 2005).

Focusing on the relational aspect of LMX, Dienesch and Liden (1986), and Liden and Maslyn (1998), propose a four-dimensional model of LMX: *contribution* (doing work beyond

the job description), *affect* (friendship and liking), *loyalty* (faithfulness and obligations) and lastly *professional respect* (respect for professional capabilities). Exchange relationships are found to flourish on the basis of these four factors, and valid and reliable measures were developed for the construct of LMX comprised of these dimensions (Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Schriesheim & Gardiner, 1992). Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) propose LMX as a relationship-based approach to leadership, where they further describe supervisor–subordinate relationships as dyadic in nature and unique for each supervisor–subordinate pair. This suggests that those subordinates who are in a high-LMX dyad will receive higher respect, attention and resources from their supervisor, which induces them to reciprocate with higher trust, loyalty, positive attitudes and performance (Elicker, Levy, & Hall, 2006). In addition to highly rewarding working relationships in high LMX dyads, a higher degree of mutual liking also exists in such dyads, which are found to be mostly lacking in low-LMX dyadic relationships (Engle & Lord, 1997).

It is evident from the above discussion that mutual trust, respect and obligations play a key role in fostering and maintaining high-quality exchange relationships. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) describe one other aspect of the relationship-based approach to leadership, which is the social exchange process between leaders and followers. These authors note that "The centroid concept of the theory is that, effective leadership processes occur, when leaders and followers are able to develop mature relationships and thus gain access to the many benefits these relationships bring" (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 225). This statement supports the idea that LMX is a relationship-based approach to leadership where the central figure is the social exchange process between leaders and followers (Mayer, 2005) – a key focus of servant leadership.

2.6 Trust

Trust has been a topic of interest for organisational researchers over the last few decades. There is a lack of consensus among researchers about the conceptualisation of trust due to its domain-specific nature (Goudge & Gilson, 2005; Lubell, 2007; Simpson, 2007). Conceptualisation and level of trust vary with the situation pertaining to interaction and exchange relationships between two parties (Warren, 2012). It is reported in the literature that the one-dimensional conceptualisation of trust includes psychological state or behavioural choice (Costa, 2004). Psychological state can be defined as "trust in terms of interrelated cognitive processes and orientation toward beliefs or positive expectations in relations to others" (Costa, 2004, p. 2). The behavioural choice can be defined "as the willingness to take risks by acting on the basis of words, actions, or the decisions of others" (Costa, 2004, p. 2).

Trust has received much attention in the past two decades because of noteworthy lapses regarding ethical judgements in different organisations in the corporate sector (Nwabueze & Mileski, 2008). Many strategy researchers suggest that changing customers and social preferences have placed an emphasis on trust as it is considered as an important component of organisational effectiveness, which results in sustainable competitive advantage (Chow, 2008; Davis, Schoorman, Mayer, & Tan, 2000; Douglas & Zivnuska, 2008; Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001; Pfeffer, 1995). Because of its importance, trust has become a focal point of theoretical, academic and applied research among organisational sciences, social psychology, social sciences and economics (Spielberger, 2004).

Employees working together in groups/teams within an organisation have to interact with each other, which motivates them to unite to efficiently accomplish their common needs (Warren, 2012). Trust is considered as an important aspect of all interactions at individual, social and economic levels, as it works as a binding force among all group and team members (Bartram & Casimir, 2007; Costigan et al., 2006; Douglas & Zivnuska, 2008). Drawing attention to the importance of mutual trust, Hultman (2004) found that the disposition of

people to trust others is mandatory for prosperous, healthy and effective relationships. The norms of reciprocity, and social and economic exchanges play a vital role in developing trust between two parties (Chan, Taylor, & Markham, 2008). Economic and social exchange relationships are regulated by the level of trust among two parties (Jøsang & Bewsell, 2010; Simpson, 2007). Trust is the willingness to be vulnerable, which increases the risks involved with social economic exchange; hence, trust becomes more important in situations where risk-taking behaviours are encouraged among individuals, groups and institutions (Davis et al., 2000; Knight, Randall, Bate, & Johnston Jr, 2005; Reychav & Sharkie, 2010).

There is a general agreement in trust research on the dimensionality of trust, identifying that trust is a multidimensional construct (Lewick & Bunker, 1996; McAllister, 1995; Simpson, 2007). Proponents of this notion believe that trust always involves either cognitive or calculus-based judgements and emotional or affect-based judgements of perceived trustworthiness of individuals, groups or organisations (Lewick & Bunker, 1996; McAllister, 1995). In a similar way, one study found that the construct of trust in a workplace relationship is three dimensional, comprised of reliability, concern and harmony (Tzafrir & Dolan, 2004).

The first dimension of trust, reliability, suggests that the trustor has positive expectations about the behavioural integrity (consistency in words and action) of the party to be trusted (Butler, 1991; Gabarro, 1978). The second dimension, concern, refers to a balance between self-interest and the other party's interests (Mishra, 1996). The last dimension of trust, harmony, refers to the idea of oneness, collective identity and shared values (Lewick & Bunker, 1996). This multidimensional perspective of trust indicates that individuals within the organisations are the agents of the organisation, therefore they must influence the trust level of other people in the organisation or trust at any other individual within the organisation (Tan & Tan, 2000). Another study by Hassan and Semerciöz (2010) supports the

multidimensionality of trust, identifying that personal trust involves proximal antecedents, whereas impersonal trust involves institutional, global or organisational variables. In addition, one other potential issue relating to the concept of trust is how to conceptualise and measure trust as it develops and changes over time (Goudge & Gilson, 2005; Huang & Nicol, 2010; Simpson, 2007; Tzafrir, 2005).

2.6.1 Types of trust

Conceptualisation of trust in different ways is an attempt to understand all the attributes and characteristics which are relevant to a situation where trust exists (Warren, 2012). It is evident from the trust literature that, in order to understand the situations where trust develops, three trust conceptualisations are fundamental: (1) calculus-based trust, (2) knowledge-based trust and (3) identification-based trust (Costa, 2004). Calculus-based trust exists in a newly established relationship between the two parties where they do not know much about one another (Lewicki, Tomlinson, & Gillespie, 2006). This particular notion of trust indicates that the trustor evaluates the associated costs and risks before they trust in order to accomplish their desired objectives (Huang & Nicol, 2010; Spielberger, 2004). Knowledge-based trust exists among individuals, groups, institutions and organisations after consistent interactions for a longer period of time and they have enough information and knowledge about each other (Costa, 2004). Lastly, identification-based trust exists among individuals, groups and organisations when they have similar values and beliefs or have common objectives and mission (Chow, 2008; Costa, 2004; Davis et al., 2000). Other trust conceptualisations in the literature are: affect-based or relational trust, cognition-based or calculative trust, dispositional trust, third parties as conduits or channels of trust, category-based trust, history-based trust, rule-based trust, role-based trust, immediate-supervisor trust, alliance-based trust, co-worker trust, top management trust, organisational trust, reputation-

based trust, swift trust and systems or institution-based trust (Jøsang & Bewsell, 2010; Liu & Shi, 2010; McAllister, 1995; Poon, 2006; Pučėtaitė & Lämsä, 2008; Tan & Lim, 2009).

2.6.2 Supervisor–employee trust and positive behaviours

Today's competitive environment demands that organisational managers and supervisors engage their subordinates in a way which motivates them for higher productivity, which might then positively influence the overall organisational objectives (Davis et al., 2000). Because of frequent interactions with subordinates, direct supervisors have a much higher influence on behaviours undertaken in the workplace (Costigan et al., 2006; Park & Kim, 2012; Warren, 2012). It has been observed that interactions between supervisors and subordinates mediate the positive relationship between trust in supervisors' and subordinates' desirable behaviours, which in turn contribute towards higher organisational effectiveness (Chughtai & Buckley, 2008; Trivers, 2009). Because of the synergetic effect, workgroups are gaining in importance in the 21st century's highly competitive environment, and subordinates' trust in supervisors plays a vital role in developing workgroups in organisations (Ristig, 2009).

Trust works as a strong bond between a supervisor and their subordinates in a workplace, which can be conceptualised in terms of perceived risk and vulnerability between the two parties (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998). Trust is considered as employees' assumptions, beliefs and expectations that the organisation and its agents (supervisors) will treat them equitably and in a favourable way (Carmeli & Spreitzer, 2009). A high degree of trust exists when employees perceive confidentiality, identify with the organisation and perceive a safe environment where they can keep themselves vulnerable (Cox, 2012). Trust in an organisation is highly influenced by trust in supervisors, as supervisors are considered to be agents of the organisation. This notion is supported by research where trust in a supervisor has a significant positive

relationship with employees' OCB (Cummings & Bromiley, 1996; Kacmar, Bachrach, Harris, & Noble, 2012). Previous research has established that trust in a supervisor develops a nurturing environment which promotes innovation (Carmeli & Spreitzer, 2009). In a similar way, other studies have found that employees' trust in their supervisor positively influences workplace autonomy (Seppälä, Lipponen, Pirttila-Backman, & Lipsanen, 2011), which results in higher job performance (Chen, Lam, & Zhong, 2012b; Huang, 2012; Li & Tan, 2013; Madjar & Ortiz-Walters, 2009).

Trust is a mutual phenomenon; hence, supervisor's trust in their subordinates is not enough to build relationships (Ladegard & Gjerde, 2014). Rather, subordinates' trust in their supervisor has a positive influence on their job performance and provides safety and meaningfulness in supervisor–subordinate relationships (Li & Tan, 2013). Subordinates' trust in their supervisor plays a vital role in facilitating psychological empowerment, feedback-seeking behaviours and higher organisational performance, which helps in improving workplace empowerment and autonomy (Huang, 2012; Madjar & Ortiz-Walters, 2009; Seppälä et al., 2011). Perceived employees' trust in the organisation predicts higher levels of job performance, and employees' perceived trust in their supervisor helps in explaining a high-quality exchange relationship between the two parties (Chen et al., 2012b). Employees' trust in their supervisor directly influences their trust in the organisation, which is evident from a positive relationship between trust in their supervisor and organisational-directed citizenship behaviours (Kacmar et al., 2012).

An employee's trust in their immediate supervisor indicates the "willingness to be vulnerable" towards the decisions of their immediate supervisor in the hope of positive and beneficial outcomes from these decisions (Chan et al., 2008; Poon, 2006; Tan & Tan, 2000). It has been established in the literature that trust in an immediate supervisor has a positive relationship with perceived trustworthiness attributes, including ability, benevolence and

integrity (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007; Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Poon, 2006). These attributes were first introduced by Mayer et al. (1995) in their seminal article on trust, as dimensions of perceived trustworthiness, and are considered the most prominent in trust literature to measure employees' trust in their immediate supervisor (Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001; Tan & Tan, 2000). As supervisors/managers are the representatives of their organisations, employees show their willingness to be vulnerable towards them if they perceive that their supervisor has a higher degree of ability, benevolence and integrity.

Communication and delegation of power motivates subordinates to trust their supervisors. A study found that employees are willing to trust a supervisor who is more democratic in nature compared to one who is non-democratic (Kovač & Jesenko, 2010). This study further showed that supervisors showing high power distance and higher levels of vertical powers towards subordinates are perceived as less democratic and less trustworthy (Kovač & Jesenko, 2010). One other study also confirmed that trust in the immediate supervisor works as an underlying mechanism between managerial communications (i.e. task communication, career communication and communication responsiveness) and employees' openness to organisational change (Ertürk, 2008). It is evident from this study that trust in the immediate supervisor helps to eradicate the feelings of fear and uncertainty during the change process because most change initiatives are initiated from the top management or CEO level (Chughtai & Buckley, 2008). A study conducted in a non-unionised organisational setting in the United States (US) found that those supervisors who are trusting, give feedback and invigorate innovative behaviours contribute towards the development of self-leadership behaviours, for example rehearsal, self-goal setting, self-reinforcement, self-criticism, self-observation and self-expectation (Elloy, 2008).

Ristig (2009) found that integrity (a dimension of perceived trustworthiness) is a stronger predictor of employees' trust in their immediate supervisor compared to perceived

organisational support. Literature also supports this notion because integrity has a stronger relationship with proximal variables. On the other hand, perceived organisational support is more strongly related with global variables (Tan & Tan, 2000). Most of the research on trust in supervisors and related outcome variables has been undertaken in western countries, so it is important to test the relationship in other contexts. In this regard, a study was undertaken involving Turkish public-sector universities, where 1,018 academics participated in the study and the results found that trust in immediate supervisor fully mediated the positive relationship between perceived organisational justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) and citizenship behaviours directed towards organisation (Ertürk, 2007). However, the relationship between perceived organisational justice and citizenship behaviours directed towards individuals was partially mediated by trust in the immediate supervisor (Ertürk, 2007).

To further generalise the relationship between supervisor behaviours and subordinates' performance outcomes a study was undertaken in a multicultural organisational setting of a national university in the United Arab Emirates, where the results showed that the quality of the exchange relationship between the supervisor and subordinates has a positive association with employees' experiences in the workplace (Butler, 2009). The supervisory position is considered to be highly important in any organisation as it works as a bridge between subordinates and organisational resources (Mishra, Mishra, & Spreitzer, 2009). Another study found that the immediate supervisor works as an intermediary between subordinates and organisational resources (for example, work instructions, information about personnel matters, training opportunities for promotions, organisational justice and fairness), and overall concerns for subordinates' organisational welfare (Chughtai & Buckley, 2008). Such kinds of behaviour from the immediate supervisor induce their subordinates towards

desirable organisational behaviours which result in higher organisational effectiveness (Warren, 2012).

All the trust literature reviewed so far indicates the importance of mutual trust in a workplace. Trust does not exist in isolation. It always requires two parties who are willing to have confidence in each other to result in the favourable outcomes of trust. Employees' trust in their immediate supervisor, co-workers and organisation plays a vital role in developing higher exchange relationships, which ultimately transform into favourable organisational outcomes. Hence, it is concluded that mutual trust is an important factor in developing a social exchange relationship.

2.6.3 Trust and leader–member exchange theory

Trust is considered a crucial element for any kind of dyadic relationship in the workplace, which lends support to the advancement of trust as a construct that is key to developing a high LMX relationship (Fisher & Brown, 1989). The majority of research has established that LMX and trust are two distinct constructs which are conceptually different from one another; however, a relationship exists between the two constructs (Chen et al., 2012b; Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008; Werbel & Lopes Henriques, 2009). In meta-analytic findings, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) identified the complex relationship between trust and LMX; however, they identified that trust and LMX are two different constructs. Confirmatory factor analysis in a cross-sectional study found a significant discriminant validity between LMX and trust (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008). It is also evident from LMX literature that the quality of the relationship between two parties is measured as a unidimensional construct. In addition, trust has never been discussed as a dimension of LMX during its measurement, which lends further support to the notion that LMX and trust are two different constructs (Legood, 2013).

After confirming the fact that LMX is conceptually multidimensional in nature, a study found additional dimensions of LMX: contribution, loyalty, professional respect and affect (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). These authors further confirmed that trust has a significant correlation with LMX; however, it cannot be considered as a dimension of LMX. At the same time, measurement of trust as a multidimensional construct does not signify that relationship quality can be conceptualised as a dimension of trust (Legood, 2013). Research has also shown that trust and relationship quality are interdependent but not similar constructs (Fletcher, Simpson, & Thomas, 2000). Hence, it is evident from the abovementioned theory and literature that LMX and trust are two different constructs, therefore they are used as two different underlying mechanisms between leadership behaviours and employee-level outcomes for the purpose of this research.

2.6.4 Trust, leader–member exchange and social exchange

Trust and LMX are both highly based upon the principles of Blau's (1964) SET, which encompasses both the concepts. Social exchange exists between two parties when they cooperate with each other for their mutual benefit (Rousseau et al., 1998). The insubstantial nature of reciprocation in social exchanges makes both parties unduly conscious of actual obligations rather than focusing on their mutual benefit (Dirks & Skarlicki, 2004). In order to make the social exchange relationships stronger and deeper, trust plays a vital role because it stimulates a sense of obligation (Blau, 1964) and works as an instrument of uncertainty reduction (Holmes & Rempel, 1989). The existence of trust in the workplace encourages bold decisions towards cooperative behaviours even in a vulnerable environment (Colquitt, Lepine, Piccolo, Zapata, & Rich, 2012). These authors also mention that mutual trust increases both parties' confidence, which reduces the uncertainty associated with exchanges of unspecified favours over an indefinite time horizon (Colquitt et al., 2012). Recurrence of

reciprocal exchanges provide security to the trusting parties, strengthening their mutual trust (Creed, Miles, Kramer, & Tyler, 1996).

One study differentiated between economic and social exchange relationships, where the quality of LMX relationship is low if trust does not exist and only economic exchange is present (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). There is a higher degree of agreement among organisational behaviour researchers that trust works as a catalytic force in fostering social exchange relationships (Simpson, 2007). Reinforcing the pivotal role of trust in exchange relationships, Liden and his colleagues (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993) conceptualise LMX a trust-building process. Hence it can be derived from the literature that trust is a pivotal element in social exchange relationships, without which relationship quality will be low.

Trust and LMX are both social exchange indicators which are deemed mandatory to establish good relationships between the parties, specifically between supervisors and subordinates. Extant literature, as described above, has established a positive relationship between subordinates' trust in their supervisor and LMX with task performance and citizenship behaviours. However, it remains unclear as to how these two exchange indicators work as underlying mechanisms between servant leadership and performance outcomes. Therefore, the current research tends to explore the mediating paths between servant leadership and subordinates' task performance and citizenship behaviours represented by trust and LMX. In addition, the current research also proposes that subordinates' trust in their supervisor and high-quality exchange relationships cannot transform into higher task performance and citizenship behaviours in an environment where POP is high.

2.7 Organisational politics and political behaviour

Organisational politics can be defined as "informal, parochial, typically divisive and illegitimate behaviour that is aimed at displacing legitimate power" (Mintzberg, 1983, p. 172)

and "social influence behaviour that is strategically designed to maximize self-interest" (Ferris et al., 1989b, p. 145). These are the most cited definitions of politics in organisational politics literature, and generally have negative connotations. Employees often describe political behaviours in negative terms and associate these with self-serving behaviours, usually at the expense of others (Poon, 2003).

A comprehensive examination of major academic journals by Heath and Sitkin (2001) identified that research on organisational politics is important and under-explored. However, over the last three decades, research on organisational politics has had considerable attention from organisational behaviour researchers (Ferris & Hochwarter, 2011). Politics, as a topic of interest, drew attention in organisational sciences along with other disciplines, for example psychology, sociology, economics and political science which offer numerous definitions for the concept (Buchanan, 2008; Ferris, Adams, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, & Ammeter, 2002). The word "politics" has a negative connotation, which is common in most of the definitions provided so far (Fairholm, 1993). For instance, several studies acknowledge the fact that political behaviours are inherently self-serving (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989a). A few other studies point out that political behaviours are unauthorised and unsanctioned activities which are committed in pursuit of goal attainment (Mayes & Allen, 1977; Vigoda-Gadot & Vigoda, 2003).

However, a few other researchers have presented political activity in less derogatory terms. For example, Sederberg (1984) describes political behaviour as a social activity which is not necessarily inherently constructive or destructive, but rather is undertaken to "generate, maintain or alter shared meaning". Politics within organisations can be described as social activities which contribute to organisational goals and objectives (Pfeffer, 1981). While presenting the positive picture of politics in organisations, Vigoda-Gadot (2003) points out that political behaviour is a socially acceptable phenomenon. Support was also found for the

relationship between political activity and managerial success (Luthans, Rosenkrantz, & Hennessey, 1985). It has also been suggested that calculated persuasion favourably changes the forces of status quo within the organisation (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Other studies have identified that political activities play an important role in bringing creativity and innovation to organisations (Buchanan & Badham, 1999; Hargrave & Van de Ven, 2006).

Several researchers have adopted a moderate perspective of political behaviours. For example, Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick and Mayes (1980) describe politics as a "two-edged sword" (p. 80). Another comprehensive review on organisational politics identified both its functional and dysfunctional antecedents, behaviours and consequences (Buchanan, 2008). This moderate view of politics within organisations is considered by other scholars as an essential component of the environment, which is not necessarily positive or negative (Buchanan, Claydon, & Doyle, 1999; Fedor, Maslyn, Farmer, & Bettenhausen, 2008; Pfeffer, 1981).

In summary, however, the dominant view of political behaviours in organisations is that these behaviours are generally unacceptable and counterproductive for the organisation. This study has adopted this dominant view of organisational politics in the context of SET. It is argued that POP will reduce the positive influence of trust in the leader and a high LMX relationship on employees' task performance and their citizenship behaviours.

2.7.1 Perceptions of politics and outcomes

Considerable research has been undertaken to explore the underlying mechanism between POP and workplace outcomes (Ferris & Hochwarter, 2011). For example, Rosen, Chang, Johnson and Levy (2009) found that psychological contract breach mediates the effect of perceived politics and perceived justice on employees' outcomes. Several other studies have found that job distress (Vigoda, 2002) and perceived organisational support (Halbesleben, Wheeler, Vigoda-Gadot, & Drory, 2006; Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewe, &

Johnson, 2003) work as intervening variables between POP and aggressive employees' behaviours. The interaction effect of perceived politics has also been explored by a number of studies, for example Kacmar, Zivnuska and White (2007) found that employees who are in low-quality exchange relationships with their supervisor exhibit higher levels of work efforts only when POP is low. One study also found that distinct moderators (e.g., need for achievement, perceived organisational support and faith in management) interact with perceived politics across three hierarchical levels (peer level, 1 level up and at the highest level in the organisation) to predict depressed moods in the workplace (Byrne, Kacmar, Stoner, & Hochwarter, 2005). Results of this study showed that perceived politics interacted with the need for achievement at the peer level, with perceived organisational support at 1 level up and with faith in top management at the highest level in order to predict depressed moods in the workplace. Another study found that felt accountability has a more detrimental effect on job satisfaction when perceived politics is high (Breaux, Munyon, Hochwarter, & Ferris, 2009).

Previous research has also established a significant relationship between POP and leadership behaviours. In one multilevel study, a relationship was found between perceived politics and leadership quality, both at the individual and group level (Maslyn & Fedor, 1998). One other study found an interactive effect of trust in supervisor and citizenship behaviours, where trust in supervisor is related to willingness to help co-workers if they perceive a low level of politics (Page & Wong, 2000). Perceived politics moderates the relationship between social exchange quality (LMX) and employees' work efforts, such that in a low political environment employees in low-quality exchange relationships exhibit a higher level of effort (Kacmar et al., 2007). The negative effect of perceived politics on job satisfaction and commitment was found to be weaker when individuals were engaged in political behaviours (Hochwarter, 2003). The negative influence of POP on job strain has also

42

been found to be buffered by high-quality LMX relationship, participative decision-making and communication with supervisors (Harris & Kacmar, 2005). Support was also found for the mediating role of POP between leadership (transformational, transactional) and performance (OCB and in-role performance) (Vigoda-Gadot, 2007).

Linking perceptions of organisational politics with negative workplace outcomes, theorists have provided two potential explanations. First, it is suggested that politics works as a hindrance stressor which elicits negative responses from employees (Ferris et al., 1989b). A second group of theorists have suggested that organisational politics precludes a healthy exchange relationship between employees and the organisation (Aryee, Chen, & Budhwar, 2004; Hall, Hochwarter, Ferris, & Bowen, 2004). In high political organisations subjective measures like relationships, power and favouritism are usually used for rewards (Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009), and therefore the workplace environment becomes less predictable as unwritten rules vary with the changing powers of those who play politics (Hall et al., 2004). Therefore, in a high political environment it is difficult for employees to believe that their behaviours will lead to appropriate rewards, hence they perceive a weak relationship between performance and fulfilment of their desired outcomes (Aryee et al., 2004; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997).

It is considered risky for employees to invest their effort at full capacity in a political environment, so they are reluctant to use their full potential for organisations, ultimately resulting in lower performance and reduced citizenship behaviours (Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999b). These authors further argue that employees feel worse and desire to leave the organisation where their needs cannot be fulfilled. Based upon this view, a number of studies have found that organisational politics is negatively related to job satisfaction and commitment (Bozeman, Perrewe, Kacmar, Hochwarter, & Brymer, 1996; Cropanzano et al., 1997; Ferris et al., 1996; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Gandz & Murray, 1980;

Kimura, 2013; Nye & Witt, 1993; Parker, Dipboye, & Jackson, 1995), and positively related to turnover intentions (Bozeman et al., 1996; Cropanzano et al., 1997; Ferris, Rowland, & Fitzgibbons, 1994). As a predictor of workplace outcomes, POP is considered as a stressor, for example a study on stressors found that POP loaded on hindrance stressors (Cavanaugh, Boswell, Roehling, & Boudreau, 2000). Another study found that POP has a positive relationship with turnover intention and a negative relationship with job satisfaction and supervisor-rated job performance (Abbas, Raja, Darr, & Bouckenooghe, 2014).

2.8 Cultural context of the current study

An important aspect of the current thesis is the context in which the research was carried out. The majority of studies on servant leadership have been carried out in western cultures, such as North America and Australia. Of these studies, many have found that servant leadership has a positive relationship with employee job satisfaction, commitment, task performance and citizenship behaviours. Only a few studies, for example, Donia et al. (2016) and Chightai (2016), have conducted research on servant leadership in South Asian societies. A major feature of the current research therefore is the fact that it is being carried out in a very different context to the majority of research on this topic.

It is argued here that the study of servant leadership across multiple cultures is important for various reasons. In today's era of information technology, the world is becoming increasingly global, which necessitates the identification of commonalities and differences in leadership processes in different cultures and regions. Similarly, there is an immense need to understand the effective leadership behaviours in different cultural settings. Indeed, research tends to suggest that there are cultural differences in various leader behaviours. For example, the findings of the Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness project (Javidan, House, & Dorfman, 2004) confirm that various leadership characteristics and their efficacy are culturally dependent. For example, human-

oriented leadership attributes are desirable in South Asian societies but are deemed as unimportant in Nordic Europe. In addition, in some other cultures, like the US, people have a higher degree of attachment to their leaders and they are given extraordinary privileges and recognition. In contrast, in the Netherlands and Switzerland people have a lower attachment to their leader and the concept of leadership is less romanticised; they are not given exceptional status and privileges. Overall, therefore, it is evident from leadership and cross-culture literature that culture has a considerable impact on the effectiveness of leadership behaviours and, consequently, it is important to study leadership across multiple cultures.

A major cultural dimension likely to affect the efficacy of different leadership styles is the individualist vs collectivist nature of societies. According to traditional theories developed in individualist societies, such as the US, effective leaders are those who can produce financial results. On the other hand, in collectivistic cultures, leadership effectiveness is better characterised by the long-term loyalty of subordinates to their leader, extra effort and satisfaction with the leader. In addition, collectivist cultures prioritise the needs of the group, family and overall community when engaging in leadership actions (House et al., 2004). Therefore, values of mutual obligation require leaders to provide protection to followers and direction in exchange for their loyalty and commitment.

Another major cultural dimension likely to affect the efficacy of different leadership styles is power distance. Leadership and power distance in society are strongly correlated (House et al., 2004). For example, it is considered highly challenging for subordinates to disagree with a supervisor's viewpoint in high (rather than low) power distance societies, and they feel more fear while showing disagreement with their supervisor (Pasa, 2000). Power distance has a considerable impact on subordinates' expectations of and preferences for leadership. For example, people need more guidance and expectations as well as acceptable or typical modelling of leadership behaviours in high power distance societies (e.g., in a high

power distance society an autocratic leader is more effective and acceptable). There are also clear differences between different cultures in terms of personal values, attitudes and behaviours, and these differences likely affect the efficacy of leadership styles in organisations (Alves et al., 2006; Hofstede, 2005). Similarly, studies have found that, across cultures, the meaning and importance of ideas are perceived differently (Dorfman, 2004; Wood & Jogulu, 2006). The rapid increase in multinational organisations and fast expansion of globalisation has brought numerous challenges and opportunities for leadership. Overall, therefore, it is extremely important to study different leadership approaches across different cultures because values and beliefs are highly varied in different geographic regions.

2.9 Summary and overarching research question

As described previously, the primary focus of a servant leader is on the followers, and organisational objectives are deemed as secondary. Past research has established a positive relationship between servant leadership and employees' performance (Ehrhart, 2004; Liden, Wayne et al., 2014; Walumbwa et al., 2010). Organisations that are high in politics are characterised by self-serving, illegitimate and harmful activities undertaken by employees and which are counterproductive for organisations (Hochwarter et al., 2002). These kinds of self-serving political activities are often detrimental for organisations as well as for their members and hamper the overall organisational performance (Ferris et al., 1989b; Kacmar & Baron, 1999). Hence, this study focuses on employees' perceptions of organisational politics (as a key feature of the work culture or context) as a hindrance stressor negatively influencing the impact of social exchange indicators (trust and LMX) on employees' performance (task performance and OCB). In addition, this study also aims to explore the negative impact of POP on servant leader effectiveness. This negative connotation of organisational politics led to the following overarching research question:

How does the perception of politics influence the social exchange obligations and leader effectiveness in the context of servant leadership?

Bearing in mind the abovementioned theoretical framework for this research, in the following chapter the hypothesised relationships among the constructs are developed.

CHAPTER 3. HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Overview of the chapter

This chapter provides a detailed rationale for the 14 hypotheses to be tested in this thesis. It integrates the theory overviewed in Chapter 2 in order to specify a range of hypotheses that initially replicate key findings in the area (H1, H4, H5, H7, H8), and ultimately test new theoretical perspectives put forward (H2, H3, H6, H9, H10, H11, H12, H13 and H14).

3.2 Servant leadership predicts organisational citizenship behaviours and task performance

The first hypothesis seeks to replicate the established finding that servant leaders tend to have more committed and high-performing employees. Theoretically, it follows that servant leaders should foster good task performance and OCB in staff because, as argued by Smith, Organ and Near (1983), servant leaders model such behaviour to their staff and consequently foster a "servant culture". Consistent with this, existing research indicates that servant leadership is associated with in-role performance and organisational commitment (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006) even when controlling for transformational leadership and LMX (Liden et al., 2008).

Furthermore, other research has shown that servant leadership is positively related with employees' job satisfaction (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Dannhauser & Boshoff, 2006; Liden et al., 2008; Mayer et al., 2008), which is also known to be associated with performance and OCB. Similarly, comparing servant leadership with transformational leadership, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) found that servant leadership is a better predictor of LMX quality than transformational leadership, which results in higher task performance and OCB (Chen, Lam, & Zhong, 2012a; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Oren, Tziner, Sharoni, Amor, & Alon, 2012). Therefore, in light of the above discussed literature, as well

as the theoretical reason for the relationship between servant leadership and performance/OCB, the following hypothesis is proposed suggesting that servant leadership predicts task performance and OCBs.

H1. Servant leadership will positively predict task performance (H1a) and OCBs (H1b).

3.3 Servant leaders as effective leaders

The second set of hypotheses specifies that servant leaders will generally be regarded as effective leaders, but that this relationship is conditional on low levels of POP. The first hypothesis in this set, that servant leaders will generally be regarded as effective leaders, is again a replication hypothesis. As outlined in the literature review, a strong body of research suggests that servant leaders tend to be effective in terms of employees' positive attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, for example work engagement (van Dierendonck et al., 2014), satisfaction, commitment (Schneider & George, 2011) and OCB (Ehrhart, 2004; Walumbwa et al., 2010). As described in the literature review, leader effectiveness is generally evaluated using followers' perceptions, organisational performance and objective measures of team performance (e.g. productivity). This study therefore adopts this approach and explores leader effectiveness through followers' perceptions and employees' performance (task performance and OCB).

The second hypothesis in this set – that the effect of servant leadership on effectiveness is conditional on low politics – is a new hypothesis. As noted in Chapter 2, perceived politics is defined in this thesis as "individual or group behaviour that is informal, ostensibly parochial, typically divisive and above all in a technical sense, illegitimate – sanctioned neither by formal authority, accepted ideology, nor certified expertise although it may exploit any one of those" (Mintzberg, 1983, p. 172). High levels of politics within organisations promote a divisive culture, and lead to individuals and groups following their personal agendas and creating political activities, benefits and rewards which contradict

overall organisational goals and objectives (Ferris, Judge, Rowland, & Fitzgibbons, 1994). Although no empirical research has been conducted on the relationship between perceived politics and servant leadership, other academic work hints at a relationship. For example, an academic historical analysis of a Native American Tribe (*Nez Perce*) provides some support for this idea. A well-documented, influential leader of the *Nez Perce* people, known as Chief Joseph, is described as having qualities consistent with servant leaders. However, consistent with the position of this thesis, the historical analysis demonstrates that his leadership was ineffective in uncertain environments (i.e. environments known to foster political behaviour), in stark contrast to another leader documented, "Xenophon", who was described as a transformational leader (Lamond & Humphreys, 2005).

Additionally, in proposing that POP impacts the relationship between servant leadership and leader effectiveness, the current thesis draws heavily on SET, as outlined in depth in the previous chapter. Briefly, SET posits that a high-quality exchange between a leader and a subordinate is characterised by high levels of trust. Under ordinary circumstances, the norm of social exchange heavily influences the servant leader–subordinate relationship, such that the altruistic, subordinate-focused behaviour of the leader is reciprocated with OCB and good performance from subordinates. However, in high political environments it is possible that this social exchange norm will break down. Consistent with this, it has been observed that in high political environments employees engage in self-serving behaviours (Hochwarter et al., 2002), which undermine the reciprocal exchange relationship between the organisation and its employees (Keeley, 1988). It is argued here, therefore, that the self-focused behaviour of employees in high political environments will undermine the social exchange relationship necessary for servant leadership.

Furthermore, in addition to the social exchange relationship breaking down, high political environments sometimes demand bold decisions in order to ameliorate

organisational performance. Servant leaders who are high in altruism, have high moral standards and focus primarily on followers' needs fulfilment (Liden et al., 2014) are lacking in such bold decisions, which is likely to adversely affect leadership effectiveness (Humphreys, 2005). Somewhat consistent with this, studies have also demonstrated that servant leaders are less effective in uncertain environments compared to transformational leaders (Smith et al., 2004; van Dierendonck et al., 2014). Therefore, it is suggested that the effectiveness of servant leaders in high political environments will be negatively affected by the breakdown of social exchange norms, and the difficulty servant leaders have in making tough, but necessary, decisions. Hence it is proposed that servant leaders are less effective in high political environments:

H2. Servant leadership behaviours have a positive relationship with leadership effectiveness.

H3. POP moderates the positive relationship between servant leadership and leader effectiveness such that the relationship will be weaker in a high political environment.

3.4 Servant leadership and trust

The fourth hypothesis tests the notion that servant leadership is associated with subordinate trust. This hypothesis is also a replication hypothesis, because several studies have reported a positive relationship between these two variables (Miao, Newman, Schwarz, & Xu, 2014; Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010).

It is argued in this thesis that the relationship between servant leadership and trust can be understood in terms of the social exchange process. Because servant leaders place the interests of subordinates before their own, it follows that strong social exchange relationships will develop between leaders and subordinates. Once the strong social exchange relationships have been established, it follows that the norm of reciprocity will cause both parties to expect – and consequently *trust* – that their positive behaviours will be reciprocated (Blau, 1964;

Cohen, 1992b). Additionally, servant leaders tend to provide opportunities for their subordinates to share their concerns, which helps subordinates to build trust in their leaders (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998).

As described in literature review section, servant leaders are highly concerned about the wellbeing of their followers. This caring approach of servant leaders is likely to be reciprocated by their followers in terms of higher trust in their leader, because research shows that individuals who perceive others to care about them are more likely to develop trust in such individuals (Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010). It is also evident from the trust literature that perceived trustworthiness (i.e. subordinates' perceptions regarding their leaders' level of ability, benevolence and integrity) predicts subordinates' levels of trust in their leader (Colquitt et al., 2007; Mayer et al., 1995; Tan & Tan, 2000). Since servant leaders are generally rated as high in ability, benevolence and integrity (Liden et al., 2014; Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010), it makes sense that they are perceived as trustworthy and ultimately trusted by their subordinates. Based on the above described findings, it is proposed that servant leadership has a positive effect on subordinates' trust in their leaders. Hence, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H4. Servant leadership behaviours have a positive relationship with subordinates' trust in their leader.

3.5 Servant leadership predicts leader–member exchange

The fifth hypothesis tests the notion that servant leadership is associated with LMX. This hypothesis is also a replication hypothesis, based on several research studies which have found a positive relationship between these two constructs (e.g. Mahsud et al., 2010; Walumbwa et al., 2011).

LMX represents the quality of the unique relationship that leaders develop with their followers. Since its inception, LMX has received considerable attention in the literature. Several studies, including two recent meta-analyses (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012; Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Ang, & Shore, 2012), have focused on the predictors and outcomes of LMX. Consistent with what is being argued here, these meta-analyses reveal that leader characteristics (e.g. transformational leadership, extraversion and agreeableness) predict LMX, which in turn predicts positive employee attitudes and behaviours.

Other characteristics of servant leaders, including fairness, morality and integrity, are also known to have positive relationships with LMX (Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2010; Walumbwa et al., 2011). Additionally, servant leaders are highly concerned about their followers' growth in organisations, which influential authors in the field (Luthans & Avolio, 2003) argue plays a pivotal role in developing high-quality LMX relationships within organisations.

Unlike other leadership styles which consider influence as an important element of leadership, servant leaders believe that ideal service is characterised by high-quality leader–follower relationships (Van Dierendonck, 2011). Consequently, it follows that these beliefs will promote the development of high-quality LMX relationships. For example, altruistic calling is a conscious choice to serve others (Greenleaf, 1977), which is the corner stone of servant leadership ideology (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Servant leaders put their followers' interests ahead of their own and sacrifice their own will, which enhances their followers' trust and results in high-quality exchange relationships (Barbuto & Hayden, 2011). Emotional healing is another dimension of servant leadership which describes a leader's ability to assist subordinates in recovering from hardship and trauma (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Servant leaders are highly empathetic and sensitive towards followers (Liden et al., 2008) and create a conducive environment in which followers are free to demonstrate their personal and

professional problems (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). The ability to rejuvenate the will of followers is an important attribute of servant leadership, which Barbuto and Hayden (2011) argue leads to high-quality exchange relationships.

Wisdom is another dimension of servant leadership which likely impacts LMX quality. Wisdom refers to a person's capability to analyse the environment, pick up signals from it and come up with possible consequences on the basis of observations (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Focusing on the importance of wisdom, Bierly, Kessler and Christensen (2000) argue that a key to wisdom is appropriate judgement and decision making, which requires an understanding of the complications of a situation. Therefore, it is argued that servant leaders, who are high in wisdom, will garner followers' respect and trust in them which will likely lead to high-quality exchange relationships.

Servant leaders are also high in "persuasive mapping", which is the ability to use mental models and sound reasoning to encourage others (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). This use of persuasive mapping by leaders is likely to foster LMX, because research shows that persuasiveness-based relationships are more productive than authority-based relationships in terms of building relationships (Druskat & Pescosolido, 2002). Consistent with this, research shows that leaders who use persuasive mapping rather than legitimate power to encourage others are more likely to develop high-quality exchange relationships with their followers (Barbuto & Hayden, 2011). In light of the abovementioned literature the following hypothesis is put forth:

H5. Servant leadership behaviours have a positive association with LMX.

3.6 Trust predicts leader–member exchange

The sixth hypothesis tests the notion that trust is associated with LMX. This hypothesis is also a replication hypothesis, as several studies have found positive associations between trust and LMX (e.g. Burke et al., 2007; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008).

Trust encompasses the confidence of one party in another, which makes the trustor vulnerable. It refers to the trustor's assessment of the trustee's ability, benevolence and integrity, representing the "willingness to be vulnerable" (Mayer et al., 1995, p. 724). This reflects a party's intention to "act on the basis of the words, actions and decisions of another" (McAllister, 1995, p. 25). This confidence of one party in another plays a key role in the development of good working relationships (Fisher & Brown, 1988) and is a logical precursor to high-quality LMX relationships. Consistent with this, research has demonstrated that interpersonal trust plays a crucial role in organisational coordination and control, especially in supervisor–subordinate dyads, where supervisors need optimal help and the cooperation of subordinates to accomplish unit objectives effectively (McAllister, 1995). In addition, one study found that subordinate trust in a leader is a key element of high-quality exchange relationships which is crucial for effective leadership (Martin, Epitropaki, Thomas, & Topakas, 2010).

Trust and LMX have extensively been studied separately in the management literature. However, recently researchers have started to integrate these two exchange indicators (Mitchell & Uhl-Bien, 2004). However, the integration of trust and LMX in the literature has led to some disagreement about whether trust can best be described as a predictor, outcome or inherent property of high-quality exchange relationships (Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008). It is argued here that trust is best represented as an antecedent of high-quality exchange relationships because it seems unlikely that a high-quality exchange relationship will develop between two parties without having interpersonal trust (McKnight, Cummings, & Chervany, 1998), and because trust is considered a necessary precondition to developing high-quality exchange relationships (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000; Colquitt, Scott, & Lepine, 2007). From this perspective, it makes sense to view trust as a predictor of

LMX. Consistent with this, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) argue that trust is an indicator of social exchange relationships which can be treated as an antecedent of LMX.

A further reason for proposing that trust predicts LMX is that both these constructs can be understood in terms of SET. As described in the literature review section, LMX theory originated from SET (Blau, 1964), and trust is considered as an important dimension of SET (Whitener et al., 1998). According to SET, a lack of trust between two parties increases the transaction cost associated with monitoring (Chiles & McMackin, 1996). On the other hand, high trust minimises the monitoring cost by entering into free-flowing social exchange (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002), which is considered an attribute of mature LMX (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Trust researchers typically argue that trust is an interdependent phenomenon which works as an exchange deepener and facilitates high-quality interpersonal relationships (Burke et al., 2007; Lewick & Bunker, 1996; Mayer et al., 1995). Research has demonstrated that subordinates' trust in their supervisor induces them to share all kinds of information with their supervisor, increase mutual cooperation and reduce role conflict (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001). These are called risk-taking behaviours from trustors (Mayer et al., 1995), which may contribute to high-quality exchange relationships (Chen et al., 2012a). Therefore, it seems evident that when subordinates perceive that their supervisor is trustworthy they will be more likely to place a higher level of trust in their supervisor, engage in exchange relationships and consequently form high LMX relationships. In light of the abovementioned theoretical and empirical links between trust and LMX, it is hypothesised that:

H6. Trust in a supervisor will be positively associated with LMX.

3.7 Trust predicts task performance and organisational citizenship behaviours

This set of hypotheses is also a replication, because several studies have reported a positive relationship between subordinates' trust in their leader and resultant task performance and OCB (Brower, Lester, Korsgaard & Dineen, 2009; Mayer & Given, 2005).

Meta-analytic findings have shown that trust in managers has moderate positive relationships with task performance and citizenship behaviours, and a moderate negative relationship with counterproductive behaviour (Colquitt et al., 2007). Several studies have empirically examined the relationship of trust in organisations with organisational commitment, intention to remain and civic virtue (a dimension of citizenship behaviour), and have found positive relationships between these variables (Liou, 1995; Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Morrison, 1995). Trust in a supervisor has also been shown to be related to the supervisor-directed citizenship behaviour dimensions of altruism, courtesy and conscientiousness (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), and a global measure of citizenship behaviour (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). A meta-analysis conducted by Dirks and Ferrin (2002) revealed that trust in a leader has a positive relationship with task performance, OCB, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and a negative relationship with intent to quit the organisation.

The relationship between trust and task performance/OCB also makes sense in terms of SET. As outlined in the literature review, SET posits that in functional social exchange relationships investment from one party will be reciprocated by the other party. It therefore follows that trust, which is a core part of a social exchange relationship, will translate into good subordinate organisational performance and OCB. It also follows that once subordinates develop trust in their leader, based on a history of equitable exchanges, they will be willing to engage in behaviours desired by the leader (high performance/OCB). On the basis of the empirical and theoretical support described above it is hypothesised that:

H7. Trust in a leader will be positively associated with task performance (H7a) and OCBs (H7b).

3.8 Leader–member exchange predicts task performance and organisational citizenship behaviours

This set of hypotheses also replicates existing research because several studies have established the relationship between LMX and employees' task performance and OCB (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005; Aryee & Chen, 2006). LMX theory has its roots in SET, and research on LMX has mostly been built on SET (Blau, 1964). LMX theory posits that leaders and followers are likely to develop mutual trust, respect, influence and obligation in their relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), which results in higher employees' task performance and increased OCB (Chen et al., 2012b; Newman et al., 2015).

High quality exchange relationships are characterised by high mutual trust, support, interaction, formal and informal rewards (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). These relationships are characterised by the exchange of tangible and intangible things which are not included in the formal job description (Liden et al., 1997). Therefore, individuals who are in high-quality exchange relationships with their supervisors are willing to go the extra-mile, beyond their in-role job responsibilities, to equate the social exchange. It is argued here that this extra mile manifests in terms of high performance and OCB.

Several studies have reported that there are positive relationships between LMX and task performance (Bauer & Green, 1996; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000), employees' commitment and satisfaction (Dulebohn et al., 2012) and OCB (Anderson & Williams, 1996; Law, Wang, & Hui, 2010). A cross-sectional study conducted by Masterson, Lewis, Goldman and Tylor (2000) confirmed that there is a positive relationship between LMX and work performance. When subordinates receive respect and support from their leaders in a high-quality LMX relationship this increases OCB on their part (Hackett, Farh, Song, & Lapierre, 2003). Research on LMX has shown considerable support for its relationship with the follower task performance (Kacmar, Witt, Zivnuska, & Gully, 2003; Law et al., 2010).

Studies have also confirmed the positive relationship between LMX and OCB; however, the strength of the relationship of LMX with OCB-O and OCB-I is different (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). Meta-analytic findings have indicated that LMX is more strongly related with individual-directed OCB as compared to organisation-directed OCB (Ilies et al., 2007). There is extensive support in the literature for the positive relationship between follower-rated LMX and organisational commitment (Erdogan & Liden, 2002; Liden et al., 1997), although a few scholars consider this relationship to be indirect via leader support (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996; Van Breukelen, Schyns, & Le Blanc, 2006). Subordinates who are in a high LMX relationship with their leader receive higher support from their leader, which in turn fosters organisational commitment (Lester, Turnley, Bloodgood, & Bolino, 2002). High LMX and substantial support from their leaders create a sense of obligation in followers to reciprocate towards the organisation (Liden et al., 1997). The theory and research described above show that high-quality exchange relationships positively influence employees' task performance and OCB. Therefore, the following hypothesis is presented:

H8. LMX will be positively associated with task performance (H8a) and OCBs (H8b).

3.9 Leader–member exchange mediates the relationship between servant leadership and employees' task performance and organisational citizenship behaviours

H9 proposes an indirect relationship between servant leadership and task performance via LMX. It therefore combines H5 (servant leadership will predict LMX) with H8 (LMX will predict task performance and OCB). Because the rationale for these two direct effects has already been provided, this section provides a rationale for why LMX might serve as the mediating variable between servant leadership and task performance/OCB.

LMX, a social exchange process, reflects a work-related relationship between supervisors and subordinates. The quality of LMX relationships is based on mutual trust,

liking and respect (Mahsud et al., 2010; Yukl, 2001). Theory and research suggest that LMX can work as an underlying mechanism between predictors and outcomes (Erdogan & Liden, 2002). Existing literature provides support for the mediating role of LMX between transformational leadership and followers' task performance and OCB (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). In a recent meta-analysis on LMX, Dulebohn et al. (2012) proposed a model where LMX mediates the relationships between various predictor variables (e.g. follower characteristics, leader characteristics and interpersonal relationship) and employee-level outcomes. Research has also reported that LMX mediates the relationship between benevolent leadership and follower task performance and OCB (Chan & Mak, 2011). Therefore, it is argued that leader behaviours can build and nourish high-quality LMX, which may translate into higher task performance and OCB.

More specific support for the mediating role of LMX in the relationship between servant leadership and performance/OCB comes from a recent review by van Dierendonck (2011). In his review, van Dierendonk argues that LMX could mediate the effect of servant leadership on followers' performance based on the quality of exchange relationship between the two parties.

Several other authors have used the framework of SET to explain the mediating role of LMX between benevolent leadership and followers' task performance and OCB (Ansari, Kee Mui Hung, & Aafaqi, 2007; S. Chan & Mak, 2012; Pellegrini, Scandura, & Jayaraman, 2010). Therefore, using the broader framework of SET (Blau, 1964) and LMX literature, this study proposes that the quality of the LMX relationships between servant leaders and their followers mediates the positive relationship between servant leadership and task performance and OCB. The following hypothesis is proposed:

H9. Leader-member exchange will mediate the positive relationship between servant leadership behaviours and followers' task performance (H9a) and OCBs (H9b).

3.10 Trust mediates the relationship between servant leadership and employees' task performance and organisational citizenship behaviours

H10 proposes an indirect relationship between servant leadership and task performance via trust. It therefore combines H4 (servant leadership will predict trust) with H7 (trust will predict task performance and OCB). Because the rationale for these two direct effects has already been provided, this section provides a rationale for why trust might serve as the mediating variable between servant leadership and task performance/OCB.

It is argued that trust mediates servant leadership in the prediction of task performance/OCB, because trust is an outcome of the social exchange processes occurring between a servant leader and a subordinate. As argued previously, social exchange processes underlie the development of trust in employees, which directly results in the positive reciprocal behaviour of employees with servant leaders. Employees' reciprocation has been conceptualised in terms of positive work attitudes and behaviours, especially those which exceed prescribed job requirements. Consistent with this, research has shown that trust in a supervisor is related to the supervisor-directed citizenship behaviour dimensions of altruism, courtesy and conscientiousness (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990) and a global measure of citizenship behaviour (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). This indicates that subordinates' trust in their leader induces them to exhibit OCB as a means of reciprocating the leader's favourable treatment towards them.

It has been established in the literature that: (a) servant leadership behaviours have positive relationships with trust in a leader, (b) trust in a leader is positively related to task performance and OCB, and (c) servant leadership has a positive relationship with task performance and OCB. As such, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H10. Trust in a leader will mediate the positive relationship between servant leadership behaviours and followers' task performance (H10a) and OCBs (H10b).

3.11 Moderating role of perceived politics

As described at the beginning of this section, organisations that are high in politics are prevalent with activities that are self-serving, illegitimate and often harmful to the organisation or its members (Ferris et al., 1989b). The next two hypotheses therefore propose that the beneficial effects of LMX and trust, which stem from servant leadership, are reduced in organisations that are highly political. Several studies have reported that POP is predominantly associated with negative workplace attitudes and behaviours, for example job stress (Ferris et al., 1996), burnout (Cropanzano et al., 1997), job satisfaction (Witt, Hilton, & Hochwarter, 2001), organisational commitment (Witt, 1998), turnover intention (Maslyn & Fedor, 1998) and task performance (Kacmar & Baron, 1999). Only a few studies have examined the relationship between POP and OCB, and these studies have produced mixed results. For example, two studies have indicated that POP negatively predicts OCB (Vigoda, 2000; Witt, Kacmar, Carlson, & Zivnuska, 2002), whereas two other studies have found no relationship between POP and OCB (Aryee et al., 2004; Cropanzano et al., 1997).

Using the broader framework of SET, it is argued in this study that supervisor fairness and benevolence are generally reciprocated with social exchange indicators, for example trust and high-quality LMX, which in turn transform into positive employee attitudes and behaviours. It is further argued that POP will reduce the beneficial effects of exchange relationships because it will deteriorate the exchange relationship between the organisation and its employees (Keeley, 1988). Specifically, it is argued that in highly political environments employees will be more self-focused and strategic in their behaviours (Witt et al., 2002) and, consequently, will be less likely to reciprocate the prosocial behaviour of servant leaders. Indeed, although LMX and trust will be higher for employees who have servant leaders, these factors are less likely to translate into prosocial behaviour (i.e. performance, OCB) when employees need to remain self-focused in highly political

organisations (Poon, 2006). Hence, it is proposed that the relationship between LMX, trust in a leader and employees' task performance and OCB will be weaker in a workplace where POP is high and employees are reluctant to display positive attitudes and behaviours. Based on this, the following hypotheses are put forth:

H11. POP will moderate the relationship between LMX and task performance (H11a) and OCBs (H11b) such that the relationship will be weaker in high political environments.

H12. POP will moderate the relationship between trust in leader and task performance (H12a) and OCBs (H12b) such that the relationship will be weaker in high political environments.

3.12 Moderated mediation effect

It has been argued that the effectiveness of trust in a leader and LMX on task performance and OCB is moderated by POP. Therefore, the mediated link between servant leadership and performance outcomes (task performance, OCB) can be regarded as a moderated mediation (Muller, Judd, & Yzerbyt, 2005). In other words, the indirect effect of servant leadership on task performance and OCB is conditional on a low level of organisational politics. Servant leadership should theoretically result in high task performance and citizenship behaviours via trust and LMX; however, this effect is hypothesised to be reduced in highly political organisations. Thus, in light of the argument outlined above, the following hypotheses are formulated:

H13. POP will moderate the indirect relationship between servant leadership and performance outcomes (task performance, OCBs) (via LMX) such that the indirect positive relationship becomes weaker when perceived politics is high.

H14. POP will moderate the indirect relationship between servant leadership and performance outcomes (task performance, OCBs) (via trust) such that the indirect positive relationship becomes weaker when perceived politics is high.

3.13 Summary of the chapter

This chapter provided an overview of the relationship between servant leadership and employees' task performance and OCB. The chapter also highlighted the possible underlying mechanisms between the predictor and outcome variables. In addition, the rationale is provided about how POP breaks the social exchange effect, created by servant leadership, on employees' task performance and OCB.

The next chapter provides a detail overview of the research methodology adopted for conducting this research.

CHAPTER 4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Overview of the chapter

The previous chapter provided the overall theoretical and conceptual foundation to examine the underlying mechanism between servant leadership and employees' task performance and OCB in the presence of a high political environment. The review of the literature led to the overarching research question to be explored in this thesis: "*how does the perception of politics influence the social exchange obligations and leader effectiveness in the context of servant leadership?*"

This chapter begins with providing a detailed justification for the mixed-method approach adopted in this thesis – a sequential exploratory mixed-method design – to address the research question. The first section of this chapter provides the qualitative data collection strategy, sampling frame and data analysis techniques. The second section of this chapter provides the data collection procedures used in the follow-up quantitative study. In addition, this section also provides details of the validated measures used in this study. Statistical techniques used to analyse the quantitative data are also discussed. Lastly, validity and reliability, and ethical considerations are also presented.

4.2 Justification of the mixed-method approach

Mixed-method research was adopted for this study, and is defined as inquiry where researchers combine qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). There has been distinct differences between quantitative and qualitative research paradigms for more than a century (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004), and purists have emerged on both sides. Quantitative purists (Ayer, 1966; Maxwell & Delaney, 2004; Schrag, 1992) are the proponents of positivist philosophy and believe that social observations should be treated in the same way as physical scientists treat physical phenomena. On the

other hand qualitative purists (Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Lincoln & Guba, 1989; Schwandt, 2000; Smith, 1983) argue for the superiority of constructivism, idealism, relativism, humanism, hermeneutics and postmodernism.

It is argued here that mixed method will move beyond the quantitative versus qualitative research debate because, as argued by mixed methods research proponents, both quantitative and qualitative research designs are useful and important. The ultimate objective of mixed methods research is not to replace either quantitative or qualitative approaches, rather to draw from the strengths and minimise the weaknesses of both in single research studies and across studies. If one visualises a continuum with qualitative research anchored at one pole and quantitative research anchored at the other, mixed methods research covers the large set of points in the middle area. Bearing in mind the usefulness of mixed method research, Creswell et al. (2011), assert that simultaneous use of qualitative and quantitative approaches provides a more comprehensive understanding of a research problem than using only one method, and in this project a mixed-method approach was therefore adopted.

4.3 Research design

Mixed-methods research designs are considered to be more rigorous in understanding the problem at hand than either quantitative or qualitative research alone because of the use of multiple data collection tools instead of using only quantitative or qualitative data collection tools (Creswell & Clark, 2007). The mixed method was established as a new form of research method in the late 1980s and is described as "a procedure for collecting, analysing and mixing both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study or a series of studies to understand a research problem" (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 20). It is not only collecting qualitative and quantitative data, but rather is more about integrating and linking qualitative and quantitative data (Creswell, 2012).

Literature on mixed-method research design is rich with different kinds of designs. The basic philosophy in mixed-method approaches is to develop a research model in which both qualitative and quantitative methods are used in several phases. There are two major types of mixed-method research designs which have been widely used in organisational research: first, the combination of both qualitative and quantitative approaches throughout the research stages; and, second, incorporation of both qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). According to the requirements of this study, the second approach was adopted.

Creswell and Clark (2011) propose two criteria which are highly helpful for researchers in selecting an appropriate mixed-method design. First is the "typology-based approach", which focuses on the study's objectives and inquiries. Second is the "dynamic approach", which focuses on the design process with a special emphasis on the connection between its components rather than emphasising the selection of an appropriate design from an existing typology. One of the advantages of the typology-based approach is to inform the researcher about the potential methods which are appropriate in "addressing the research problem and resolving the challenging issues" (Creswell & Clark, 2011, p. 55). Another potential advantage of the typology-based approach is that it is suitable for the early career researchers, and works as a guide for the design choice. Resultantly, once their research skills are advanced, researchers are encouraged to use the dynamic approach (Creswell & Clark, 2011) Bearing in mind the advantages of the typology-based approach, it was adopted in this project.

The aim of this study was to identify the effectiveness of servant leadership via social exchange indicators (trust and LMX) in a political organisational environment in a non-western culture. In order to address the overarching research question, an exploratory

sequential mixed-method strategy was deemed appropriate. This strategy is similar to the explanatory sequential approach, with the only exception being its reversed phases. In the explanatory approach the quantitative phase is undertaken first, followed by a qualitative phase. In a sequential exploratory strategy, qualitative data collection and analysis takes place first, followed by a quantitative data collection and analysis phase. At a very basic level, the follow-up quantitative data and results are used to help in the interpretation of the initial qualitative findings. Unlike the sequential explanatory approach, which primarily focuses on the explanation and interpretation of relationships, the main objective of this model is to explore a phenomenon of servant leader effectiveness in a political organisational environment. There are a few advantages associated with the sequential exploratory strategy. First, it is a two-phase approach (qualitative research followed by quantitative research), which makes it easy to implement and straight forward to describe and report. Second, it is useful for a researcher who wants to explore a phenomenon and expand on the qualitative findings.

An exploratory sequential mixed-method design is more appropriate and applicable for this study, as in sequential designs, usually researchers begin with the qualitative data collection, such as individual interviews with a small sample, and then, in the second phase, quantitative data is collected from a large number of randomly selected participants through a questionnaire (Creswell, 2012, p. 543). Therefore, a sequential exploratory mixed-method design was adopted. In the first phase, a qualitative study was conducted to explore the existence of servant leadership behaviours and perceived organisational politics in the focal organisation. In the second phase, servant leadership effectiveness, employee task performance and OCB were empirically tested in order to better understand the phenomenon.

4.4 Case organisation background

This study was conducted in a South Asian country, Pakistan, which is comprised of four provinces, one federal capital territory, two autonomous and disputed territories, and a group of federally administered tribal areas. Pakistan has three lower tiers of government, including 34 divisions, 149 districts, 588 sub-districts and several thousand union councils. There are numerous ethnic groups in Pakistani society and culture: the Punjabis, Potwari, Kashmiris and Sindhis in the east; the Muhajirs and Makranis in the south; the Baloch, Hazaras and Pashtuns in the west; and the Dards, Wakhi, Baltis, Shinaki and Burusho communities in the north. These ethnic groups are linked with each other through a strong bond of their cultural values which unites them. The culture of these ethnic groups has been greatly influenced by many of Pakistan's neighbouring countries, such as by other South Asians, Turkic peoples as well as the peoples of Central Asia and West Asia. Pakistan has formed a unique identity within the main geographical complex of South Asia, West Asia, the Middle East and Central Asia since the earliest times, and has considerable similarities with Afghanistan. There are small differences in the cultural aspects among these ethnic groups, for example their food, dress and religion – specifically where pre-Islamic values differ from Islamic practices. In South Asia, Pakistan was the first country to be greatly influenced by Islam and it has developed a distinct Islamic identity.

Hofstede (1980, 1984) analysed a large database of employees' values scores collected from IBM between 1967 and 1973, covering more than 70 countries. Initially, he worked on the data of the 40 largest countries and later on he extended his analysis to 50 countries including Pakistan. In the findings of this survey, Pakistan was found to be a high

power distance, collectivist, high masculine, high uncertainty avoidance, and a very short-term planning country. Hofstede collected data from a multinational corporation IBM and found that national culture greatly influences organisations within the country. In addition, he also found that these cultural dimensions determine employees' attitudes towards the organisation as well as relationships among employees.

The site for this study was a large public-sector university located in Islamabad, which is the capital of Pakistan. The foundation of this university was laid down on the first day of the fifteenth century Hijrah; that is, Muharram 1, 1401 (November 11, 1980). This landmark of the beginning of the new century symbolises the aspirations and hopes of the Muslim Ummah (community) for an Islamic renaissance. The university was created to produce scholars and practitioners who are imbued with Islamic ideology, whose character and personality conform to the teachings of Islam, and who are capable of catering to the economic, social, political, technological and intellectual needs of the Muslim Ummah. The Islamic Research Institute and a few other units, such as the Iqbal International Institute for Research & Dialogue, Dawah Academy, Shariah Academy and Institute of Professional Development, are situated within the premises of the majestic Faisal Mosque (spread over an area of 189,705 square meters) which is a symbol of International Islamic brotherhood and unity. In conformance with the Islamic precepts, the university provides academic services to men and women through separate campuses for each segment. These campuses, along with the central library, administrative wing and hostels, are located in sector H-10 Islamabad.

There are a total of nine faculties in this university, having numerous academic departments. The university also runs a college of technical education and numerous elementary schools which are located all around the country. There are approximately 26,000

full-time students enrolled in this university, out of which around 2,000 are international students. The total number of employees exceeds 2,500.

Participants for this study comprised supervisor–subordinate dyads working in five different administrative departments. This university offers research degree programs in almost every department, providing a conducive environment for research-related activities. It was therefore easier to obtain consent from higher authorities regarding data collection. In addition, being familiar with research, participants of this study were happy to be a part of a PhD project. As a result, the data collection phase proceeded in a smooth a successful manner.

4.5 Study 1: Qualitative study

Based upon the theoretical framework of this study, a qualitative study was conducted in the first phase in order to identify the existence of servant leadership behaviours and POP. Qualitative research methods are more appropriate for generating a deeper understanding of human experiences and are generally used when there is scarcity of knowledge about the problem in hand (Lieber, 2009). Therefore, in the first phase of this research, a qualitative study was conducted to identify the existence of servant leadership behaviours and POP in a non-western country, as these constructs have not been tested in a non-western culture in a single study. Qualitative research is a recommended design for studies that require an in-depth understanding of individuals' experiences (Creswell, 2013). Leadership is a complex phenomenon, as it is a function of the leader, the follower and the complexity of the context (Avolio & Gardner, 2005); therefore, a qualitative research design was adopted because quantitative data is inadequate and insufficient to address the domain of leadership (Creswell & Clark, 2007).

71

The aim of conducting the qualitative study in the first phase of this thesis was to establish the existence of servant leadership behaviours and POP in the case organisation to ensure that it was appropriate to undertake the quantitative phase in the same setting.

4.5.1 Sampling and procedure

A purposeful sampling technique was used, as this technique provides a framework to identify information-rich cases for in-depth study. It is considered to be the most influential method of sampling in qualitative literature (Coyne, 1997). Reflecting on the influence of this technique, Patton expanded his typology of purposeful sampling from 16 options in the third edition (2002) to 40 options in the fourth edition (2015). Patton (2015) describes purposeful sampling as:

> The logic and power of purposeful sampling lie in selecting information-rich cases for in-depth study. Information-rich cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the inquiry … Studying information-rich cases yields insights and in-depth understanding (p. 264).

He further added that, "I introduced *purposeful sampling* as a specifically qualitative approach to case selection" (Paton, 2015, p. 265).

The exploratory nature of the first qualitative study required a purposeful selection of participants to participate in data collection. Bearing in mind the importance of a purposeful sampling technique, participants for this study were selected in order to obtain rich data. Therefore, participants who were selected had at least 14 years of education and more than three years tenure with their supervisor and the organisation. In addition, careful

consideration was given to selection of the departments in which data were collected to ensure views of the organisation from multiple perspectives were obtained.

The sample size for this study was 25 (5 supervisors and 20 subordinates) participants from five different administrative departments. Interviews were stopped at 25 participants as theoretical saturation was reached and information redundancy occurred (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Interviews were conducted with employees of different age groups, gender and educational levels from five different departments of the focal university: transport, examinations, human resources, central library and the admission department. Participants were recruited from managerial and non-managerial positions, having tenure of more than three years with their current supervisor because literature says that trust and LMX take a long time to develop (Schweitzer, Hershey, & Bradlow, 2006). Semi-structured interviews were conducted both with employees (subordinates) and supervisors. Four subordinates and one supervisor were interviewed from every department included in the study. Participant details can be found in Table 2.

Table 2. *Participants' details (study 1)*

Department	Number of subordinates	Number of supervisor
Transport	4	1
Examinations	4	1
Human resources	4	1
Central library	4	1
Admission	4	1

Semi-structured interviews were conducted, facilitating an inductive research style and allowing the researcher to focus at the micro level to address the problem (Marshall & Rossman, 2010). Semi-structured interviews can be defined as "a construction site of

knowledge" (Kvale, 1996) and "a conversation with a purpose" (Kahn & Cannell, 1957). Semi-structured face-to-face interviews are considered an important data collection tool as these interviews provide relaxed and spontaneous opportunities for participants to share their experiences and allow for data analysis, validity checks and triangulation (Creswell, 2013). These interviews usually provide the participants a platform where they can describe complex situations easily and elaborate or clarify questions (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Interviews were conducted to try to establish a friendly environment and participants' confidentiality was assured to encourage a more open and honest response to improve the validity of the data.

Table 3. *Demographic characteristics of respondents (study 1)*

Employees	Age	Gender	Experience	Tenure with supervisor
1	52	Male	30	2
2	55	Male	32	3
3	51	Male	29	2
4	58	Male	38	2
5	30	Male	7	3
6	35	Male	18	4
7	56	Male	30	3
8	32	Male	10	2
9	30	Male	8	4
10	32	Male	9	4
11	45	Male	18	4
12	37	Male	12	4
13	45	Female	20	3
14	50	Female	25	3
15	40	Female	15	3
16	30	Female	5	3
17	29	Female	5	2
18	31	Female	7	2

| 19 | 35 | Female | 10 | 3 |
| 20 | 33 | Female | 7 | 2 |

In semi-structured interviews it is recommended to ask key questions of interviewees followed by probes to gather rich information to learn about or help understand the central phenomenon (Creswell, 2008). Two interview protocols were used: one for employees (subordinates) and the other for supervisors (leaders) (see Appendix A). Employees were asked about their supervisor's leadership behaviours, exchange relationship, trust in their supervisor and the organisation's political environment. The supervisors' interview protocol comprised of questions about the employee-level outcomes (task performance and OCB), organisational politics and leader effectiveness within the organisation. Interview data were audio recorded after obtaining participants' consent.

4.5.2 Qualitative data analysis

The transcripts from the interviews were professionally transcribed and data were analysed via theoretical thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) in which the data were organised around major findings. Theoretical thematic analysis is driven by the researcher's theoretical and analytic interest in a specific area and is thus predominantly analyst-driven. Therefore, this form of thematic analysis provides less detailed description of the overall data and provides a thorough analysis of some aspects of the data. Theoretical thematic analysis was deemed as more appropriate for this study, as a more specific question the thesis needs to answer concerns "the existence of servant leadership behaviours and perceived organisational politics in the organisation". Hence the thematic area and second-order themes in this study

were driven by the literature of servant leadership and POP, with the first-order themes subsequently emerging from the data.

As described above, before conducting the thematic analysis, audio-recorded data were transcribed. During this process, spoken texts were transformed into written texts and the transcripts were checked against the original recording in order to ensure accuracy. The transcripts were then emailed to the respondents to verify the information they provided at the time of interview. All of the respondents were satisfied with the transcripts and sent back their feedback within a few days. Once the transcripts were ready, the themes were identified using Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-phase approach: familiarisation with data, generation of initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming the themes, and producing the report.

4.5.3 Trustworthiness

Creswell and Miller (2000) define "validity" as "how accurately the account represents participants' realities of the social phenomena and is credible to them" (p. 124). These authors further explain that researchers adopt strategies which are deemed as procedures of validity to establish credibility for their studies. Qualitative researchers often refer to the trustworthiness of data (Glesne, 1998) instead of reliability. Therefore, a number of steps were taken to enhance the trustworthiness of the data.

Trustworthiness is considered an important step to be established in qualitative studies. Lincoln and Guba (1985) describe four criteria to be met: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. *Credibility*, is one of the most important criteria to consider, representing the extent to which the study findings are congruent with examined reality. Patton (2002) recommends an amalgamation of three elements to achieve credibility: rigorous method, credibility of the researcher and philosophical belief in the value of

qualitative inquiry. To address these elements, several steps were taken to achieve credibility in the present study. First, the research method used in this study is well established in organisation sciences. Thematic analysis was used for qualitative data analysis, which is considered as one of most rigorous analysis techniques in qualitative research (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Second, credibility was ensured as the researcher has a high level of familiarity with the overall culture of the participating organisation. Third, not only were semi-structured interviews conducted, but field observations were also performed to establish the variety, richness and completeness of the information such as informal talks with employee union members, meeting with other employees and supervisors (who were not included in the study), meeting with student union representatives, and observing the workplace generally.

Transferability is another important parameter used to evaluate the trustworthiness of qualitative research. Generally speaking, transferability – or generalisability – is one of the key limitations of qualitative research, limiting its scope (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). In order to tackle the issue of transferability, the participative organisation was chosen from the capital territory of Pakistan which has equal representation (in term of employees) from all the federating units. According to law, federal organisations are bound to recruit employees from all the administrative units of the country on the basis of population. Therefore, federal organisations are representative of the country as one can get data from people coming from all around the country. In addition, data were collected from five different administrative departments which are present in almost every public sector university.

Dependability is similar to the concept of reliability in quantitative studies, and refers to the need to obtain similar results by other researchers under the same situations. It is recommended researchers describe in detail the research process adopted while conducting a

qualitative study to achieve dependability, in order to provide an opportunity for future investigators to reproduce similar research (Shenton, 2004). Therefore, in order to enhance reliability in this qualitative study, a researcher was asked to read the transcripts and generate the potential codes. The researcher has undertaken a PhD in the same area to the current research, and has expertise in conducting qualitative research. In addition, the fellow researcher has a firm grip on qualitative data analysis techniques which add value to this research study. The researcher also has published few research articles in peer reviewed journals. The codes generated by the researcher and colleague were then compared to find the differences so that accurate codes could be reached. A high degree of agreement was found between the codes generated by the colleague and researcher. Only a few semantic differences arose which were rectified by discussing the codes in detail.

Similar to the concept of construct validity in quantitative research (Shenton, 2004), *confirmability* refers to the objectivity in qualitative research, specifically focusing on the avoidance of bias which may influence the researcher. In this study a few steps were taken to ensure that study findings were based on the ideas and experiences of informants rather than the preferences of the researcher. For example, transcripts were sent to the respective participants to confirm and comment on the information they provided during their interview. This increases the reliability and validity as in participatory and collaborative research strategies (Thomas, 2017). In addition, preliminary results obtained were sent to key informants for verification and feedback which is believed to increase the confirmability of the results (Yin, 2009).

4.6 Study 2: Quantitative study

4.6.1 Overview

Findings of the qualitative study provided a platform for the follow-up quantitative study, as it was designed to explore whether servant leadership is prevalent in the organisation and whether POP is also high. In addition, it also explored whether social exchange indicators (trust and LMX) play a vital role in transforming servant leadership behaviours into higher subordinates' task performance and not necessarily into high OCB. Based upon the findings of the qualitative study, the objective of the quantitative study was to test the proposed relationships among the constructs identified in the qualitative phase of this research.

4.6.2 Participants and procedures

The follow-up quantitative study was conducted in the same university as the qualitative study. Data were collected by distributing self-administered survey instruments among employees from different administrative departments. There are differing views on the sampling techniques and appropriate sample size when conducting research. Some researchers have argued that the theoretical framework will play a crucial role in making decisions about the selection of sample size (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Similarly, Grant and Osanloo (2014) suggested that most often it is theoretical framework which directs the data collection plan.

Beyond considering the theoretical framework Roscoe (1975) suggested that in social sciences, a sample size of 10 or more times the number of variables included in the theoretical framework is appropriate. Similarly, Cochran (2007) argued that studies undertaken in small population (i.e. less than 10,000), a sample size of 10-30 percent is highly reasonable. Bearing in mind all these recommendation, a sample size of 250-300 was determined to be appropriate. Therefore, survey questionnaires we distributed to 300 individuals in the case organisation.

Two different surveys were used in this quantitative study. The first survey (see Appendix B) was distributed among subordinates to tap into servant leadership, LMX, trust in leader, perceived politics and leader effectiveness. The second survey (see Appendix C) was distributed to direct supervisors of the employees in order to obtain supervisor ratings of performance/OCB. Participants were personally invited to participate in this study with the prior approval of the university authorities.

Prior to the distribution of surveys to subordinates and supervisors, they were informed of the purpose of the study and were ensured the confidentiality of the data. Subordinates were requested to provide their names on the response sheet to ensure that responses of the subordinates could be matched with the supervisor rated task performance and OCB. In total, 236 fully completed dyadic responses were returned, out of the total 300 distributed, showing the response rate of 78.6%. The sample respondents comprised of 236 subordinates and 47 supervisors.

4.6.3 Measures

The survey used for collecting data from subordinate employees adopted previously developed and validated measures for data collection, mostly using a five-point Likert-type scale, anchored from 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree. Participants were also asked a few additional demographic questions, for example the participants' age, sex, education, level in organisation and tenure in organisation. The following measures were used in this study.

Servant leadership

Servant leadership was measured using the Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) developed by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006). This questionnaire comprises 23 items. There are five dimensions in this scale: altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping and organisational stewardship. The focus of this thesis was not how different

dimensions of servant leadership related with outcome variables, rather the focus was on the overall effect of this leadership style on outcomes. Therefore, all five dimensions of servant leadership were taken as manifest indicators which is consistent with prior empirical work for other leadership styles (e.g., transformational leadership; Zhu et al. 2013; Avolio et al., 2004; Kark et al., 2003; Liu, Zhu, & Yang, 2010; Shin & Zhou, 2003). Cronbach's alpha for this higher-order factor was 0.94 and those of the five sub-dimensions ranged from 0.86 to 0.92. In addition, a second-order confirmatory analysis was conducted to ascertain the goodness of fit of the higher order factor to the data. The results revealed that higher-order factor fitted the data well (Chi-square = 1094.269, df = 220, $P < .01$, CFI = .95, TLI = .94, RMSEA = .07 and SRMR = .06). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient reported for the original instrument of servant leadership was 0.88. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for this instrument, with response options ranging from 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree. A sample item is: "This person puts my best interests ahead of his/her own."

Leader-member exchange

LMX was measured using a seven-item scale developed by Scandura and Graen (1984). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient reported for the original instrument of LMX was 0.88. This scale uses a five-point Likert-type scale, with response options ranging from 1 = Not at all to 5 = To a greater extent, with a higher score representing a high-quality exchange relationship. A sample item is: "I usually know how satisfied my manager is with what I do".

Trust in supervisor

Trust in supervisor was measured using a ten-item measure developed by Gillespie (2015). A seven-point Likert-type scale was used for this instrument, with response options ranging from of 1 = Not at all willing to 7 = Completely willing. Sample items include: "You rely on your leader's work-related judgement" and "You share your personal feelings with your leader."

Organisational citizenship behaviours

A 16-item scale developed by Lee and Allen (2002) was used to measure OCB, with five-point Likert-type scale options ranging from 1 = Never, 5 = Often. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients reported for the original instrument of OCB-I and OCB-O were 0.83 and 0.88 respectively. Sample items include: "Help others who have been absent" and "Defend the organisation when other employees criticise it."

Task performance

Task performance was measured using a seven-item scale developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). The Cronbach's alpha coefficient reported for the original instrument of in-role behaviours (task performance) was 0.91. This scale used a five-point Likert-type scale, with response options ranging from 1 = Never to 5 = Often. Sample items include: "He/She adequately completes assigned duties" and "He/She meets formal performance requirements for his/her job."

Perceptions of politics

A revised version of the 15-item measure developed by Kacmar and Carlson (1997) was used to measure POP. This measure has three subscales: General Political Behaviour, Going Along to Get Ahead, and Pay and Promotion. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient reported for the original instrument of POP was 0.81. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for this instrument, with response options ranging from 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly agree. Example items include: "People in this organisation attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down" for the first dimension, "It is best not to rock the boat in this organisation" for the second dimension and "When it comes to pay raise and promotion decisions, policies are irrelevant" for the third dimension.

Leader effectiveness

Leader effectiveness was assessed using four items adopted from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Bass and Avolio (1993). These items were used to measure leader effectiveness by Kalshoven and Den Hartog (2009), and the Cronbach's alpha reported was 0.75. Subordinates were asked about the "effectiveness" of their leader in their current positions. A five-point Likert-type response scale, ranging from 1 = Not at all to 5 = Very much so, was used for these items. A sample item is: "How effective is the person you are evaluating as a leader?"

Control variables

Like previous research focussing on Authentic Leadership (Newman, Kiazad, Miao, & Cooper, 2014; Piccolo, Greenbaum, Hartog, & Folger, 2010; Zhu, Newman, Miao, & Hooke, 2013), this research used age, gender, educational level of subordinates and tenure with the current supervisor in order to control for potential confounding effects. Age and tenure with supervisor were measured in years. Gender was coded as a dummy variable, where 0 = Female and 1 = Male, and educational level was coded as, 0 = Not university graduate 1 = University graduate.

4.6.4 Quantitative data analysis

Appropriate statistical techniques were applied to address the proposed research question and identify relationships between servant leadership and subordinates' task performance and OCB. In particular, relationships identified in the preceding qualitative

phase were tested. In the very beginning of the quantitative analysis phase, descriptive statistics were drawn for all the demographic questions which were used as control variables. After that, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to evaluate the psychometric properties of the constructs included in this study. Next, Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to explore the proposed relationships among the constructs included in the conceptual framework. SEM is a technique that allows separate relationships for each set of dependent variables (Hair et al., 2010). In its simplest sense, SEM provides the appropriate and most efficient estimation technique for a series of separate multiple regression equations estimated simultaneously (Hair et al., 2010, p. 20). SEM is most often used in analysing complex models and has three key advantages compare to other multivariate techniques, for example regression: (1) it authorises the estimation of multiple and interrelated dependence relationships as presented in the proposed research model of this study; (2) while estimating the model it has the ability to account for measurement error, which improves the statistical analysis of common variance; and (3) it explains sets of relationships, which provides insight into nomological validity (Hair et al., 2010, p. 635). Therefore, SEM was judged to be an appropriate statistical analysis technique for this quantitative phase.

AMOS 23 was used to test the two mediating paths from servant leadership to task performance and OCB. Recent studies have established an important practice for testing indirect effects (Newman, Rose, & Teo, 2014; Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010; Zhu et al., 2013). This practice involves assessing both full and partial mediations in order to compare the indirect effect, following which, this study examined the proposed full and partial mediating role of trust in leader and LMX between servant leadership and outcome variables. Model fit was evaluated by using two absolute fit indices, chi-square and Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and two incremental fit indices including Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). The moderating impact of perceived politics on social

exchange indicators and outcome variables was tested by using SPSS 23. Lastly, this study used preacher et al.'s (2007) statistical significance test for simple slope analysis and moderated mediation analysis by using PROCESS (Hayes, 2013), which is a computational and analytical tool used in SPSS for moderation, mediation and conditional process modelling.

4.6.5 Reliability

In order to conduct reliability analysis for all the study variables, the Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each variable which helped to determine internal consistency reliability of all the variables. The Cronbach's alpha for all eight variables exceeded the minimum recommended value of 0.7. The study variables passed all the necessary tests required for validity and reliability, therefore the measurement model was considered appropriate to proceed with for hypotheses testing.

4.6.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

In order to evaluate the psychometric properties of the constructs, CFA was conducted using AMOS 23 on variables in the data set. Two different models were compared. As recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999), the combination of Chi-square statistics, CFI, TLI, RMSEA, and Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) were used in CFA. Model 1 represents the hypothesised model whereby each measured variable is represented as a separate factor. It therefore contains eight factors, including servant leadership, trust in leader, LMX, POP, OCB-I, OCB-O, task performance and leader effectiveness. Model 2 was an alternative, containing six factors. The difference between this model and the hypothesised model was that this model combined the supervisor-rated performance variables (OCB-I, OCB-O and task performance) on one factor. Table 4 shows the fit indices for the two different models, with   better fit indices for the eight-factor model, Chi-

85

square = 3378.407, df = 2345, CFI = .92, TLI = .91, RMSEA = .043 and SRMR = .062, compared to the six-factor model, Chi-square= 5460.470, df = 3195, CFI = .84, TLI = .83, RMSEA = .055 and SRMR = .061. The adequate fit of the hypothesised model indicates that the eight variables adequately measure eight distinct factors. The superior fit of the eight-factor model over the six-factor model suggests that supervisors discriminate between different aspects of subordinates' prosocial behaviour at work.

Table 4. *Confirmatory Factor Analysis*

Model	$\chi 2$	d*f*	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Eight-factor model	3378.407	2345	.92	.91	.043	.062
Six-factor model	5460.470	3195	.84	.83	.055	.061

Six factors (OCB-I, OCB-O and task performance were loaded on a single factor).

4.7 Ethical considerations

This research study aimed to understand the effectiveness of servant leadership in an environment where self-centred political activities are in abundance, and was conducted in compliance with the *National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research* and Queensland University of Technology's (QUT) guidelines. This thesis comprises two separate studies. Therefore, according to QUT rules, two separate ethics applications were submitted to the *Research Ethics Unit* and granted clearance under a negligible–low-risk category (Approval No. 1500000835 and Approval No. 1600000409).

In order to ensure that this study was free of discrimination, exploitation and coercion (Aguinis & Henle, 2002), participation in this study was absolutely voluntary. Respondents were given a choice to withdraw from the study at any point in time without any fear or penalty. Prior to the interview, informed consent was obtained from all the participants via a

Participants Information and Consent Form (see Appendix D). In the quantitative study, completing the survey instrument and returning it to the researcher was considered consent, so there was no need for a signed consent form. Furthermore, to ensure participant confidentiality and anonymity, all identifiable information was removed from the collected data.

4.8 Summary of the chapter

This chapter provided a detailed overview of the research design adopted to collect and analyse the data in order to answer the research questions. Justification of the mixed-method approach is provided with a detailed explanations of the two studies conducted in this thesis. Case organisation, sampling technique and data analysis technique used in the first qualitative study are explained. In addition, the detailed explanations about the data collection and analysis for the second quantitative study were also provided. Lastly, ethical elements of the study, and validity and reliability were also discussed. The next chapter provides the findings of the first qualitative study.

CHAPTER 5. QUALITATIVE RESULTS

5.1 Overview of the chapter

The key purpose of the qualitative study was to explore servant leadership and politics within the case organisation. It focuses on these two key variables as they were critical to ensuring that the quantitative study would draw from a case that had evidence of these two features. This chapter presents the themes that emerged from the data based on the theories of servant leadership and POP. First, a detailed discussion of the findings regarding different factors of servant leadership, such as altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping and organisational stewardship, is presented. Finally, detailed findings are presented about the POP factor.

5.2 Overview of the findings

In keeping with theoretical thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006), the key constructs within the theories of servant leadership and politics were used as the basis for the data analysis. Table 5 provides a summary of the findings from the analysis, presenting the first-order themes that emerged from the data. These first-order themes were then categorised under the five factors of servant leadership and three factors of POP.

Table 5. *Themes from the data analysis*

Thematic Area	Second-order themes	First-order themes
Servant leadership	Altruistic calling	Cooperative Take care of our needs
	Emotional healing	Helpful in trouble Motivation
	Wisdom	Well aware of surroundings
	Persuasive mapping	Hopeful Look at the bright side of things
	Organisational stewardship	People-centred Help people in community Social
Perception of politics	General political behaviours	Self-centred activities Illegal and illegitimate activities Undue strikes
	Go along to get ahead	Yes-man culture New ideas are discouraged
	Pay and promotion policies	Pay is fair Favouritism and nepotism in promotion Violation of rules

5.3 Servant leadership

Participants were asked some general questions about their leader, and then if they saw evidence of specific elements of servant leadership. It has been observed in previous research that servant leadership has been pervasive and effective in countries such as the US, Australia, Holland, South Africa and Arab countries (Dannhauser & Boshoff, 2006; Dillman, 2004; Laub, 1999a; Sarayrah, 2004). In addition, several other research studies have found

that the servant leadership model is equally applicable in a range different industries, for example education, business, government and not-for-profit sectors (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Dannhauser & Boshoff, 2006; Joseph & Winston, 2005; Reinke, 2004). Bearing in mind the above claim of universal applicability of servant leadership across different cultures and industries, the first phase (qualitative) of this thesis strived to explore the existence of servant leadership in a public sector university in a collectivistic and high power distance country (Pakistan).

As described in the method section, the basic objective of the first qualitative study in this thesis was to explore servant leadership behaviours and the existence of POP in the focal organisation. Interview questions aimed to identify in particular whether there was evidence of the elements of servant leadership: altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping and organisational stewardship (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006).

5.3.1 Altruistic calling

This particular attribute of servant leadership is similar to the concept of *calling* proposed by Greenleaf (1970), which is described as a prime motivating factor for leaders to serve others, and which has a considerable influence on organisations and their employees. Altruistic calling represents a leader's desire to improve the lives of others. A leader high in altruistic calling will always put the interests of subordinates above their own and will exert a higher degree of effort to satisfy subordinates' needs. Analysis revealed that most of the participants were of the view that their supervisors have high concerns about their needs, which positively influences their lives. For example, *"she takes care of my needs and lets me have leave whenever I need. She always tries to help within her own capacity. This influences me and gives me motivation to do my best at work"* (FA03). Participants further identified that their supervisor believes in leading by serving and putting the interests of the organisation and subordinates above their own. For example, one participant said *"He takes*

care of us very well. He never says no to me or any other person in the office whenever we need attention; Yes. It affects our behaviour and motivate us to do our job the best we can" (ET03).

Overall, there was strong evidence of this element in the data. Of the five focal supervisors, most of their subordinates identified behaviours that align with altruistic calling. This indicates that most of the supervisors in the focal organisation take care of their followers' needs, which motivates followers to exert a higher level of effort.

5.3.2 Emotional healing

Emotional healing can be described as the capability and commitment of a leader to stimulate the recovery of individuals from *trauma* (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Sometimes in the workplace, employees' hopes, dreams and mutual relationships end with disappointment, which need to be restored. A number of scholars in the leadership literature suggest that emotional resolution or healing helps in restoring a broken spirit and is deemed as a necessary skill in order to be effective in a leadership position (Spears, 1995; Dacher, 1999; Sturnick, 1998). Those leaders who use emotional healing are highly compassionate and focus on creating an environment where individuals can discuss their personal and professional problems without any fear. For example, one subordinate stated, *"My boss always helps me whenever I am feeling depressed. She tries to take me out of the difficult situation and encourage me how to deal with problems"* (L02). Most of the participants were of the view that their supervisors help them whenever they encounter difficulties in the workplace. In addition, they mentioned that their supervisors have the necessary skills and capabilities to help them to recover from hardships or traumas they confront in the workplace. For example, one participant explained, *"Whenever I feel difficulty in work, he always proposes the best solution for me and encourages me to be relaxed and go ahead"* (H04).

Overall, the analysis revealed that there was strong evidence of emotional healing in the data. Most of the subordinates identified behaviours in their supervisors that are similar to emotional healing. This shows that supervisors in the focal organisation are highly concerned about their subordinates and make every effort to help them deal with difficult situations which can positively influence the organisation's performance overall.

5.3.3 Wisdom

Wisdom can be described as an individual's ability to be aware of the surroundings and appropriately anticipate the consequences of their actions (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Leaders high in wisdom are keen observers and make appropriate judgements on the basis of their forecast of the possible outcomes. Sound reasoning and careful observation help in completing a given task, and therefore the leader is seen as effective (McKenna, Rooney & Boal, 2009). In this study, participants were asked to what extent their supervisor is informed about the surroundings. Most of the participants identified that their supervisor is fully aware of the surroundings and has the capability to foresee outcomes of events and their implications for followers and the organisation. Identifying their supervisor's awareness of the surroundings and future possibilities, one participant said that:

He is well aware of the office work according to its needs. For instance, we have to recruit the best employees for our organisation and we do it efficiently within our capacity. He is mostly aware of the office work and knows how to recruit the best candidate. (H04)

This indicates that an HR manager's awareness of the surroundings and office culture discourages unfair practices in recruitment and selection (i.e. nepotism and favouritism). This may positively influence the overall organisational performance.

Overall, it was observed in the data that most of the supervisors were well aware of their surroundings and have a good understanding of the future implications of their current actions. This shows that it is important to know about what is happening in the surroundings

as this helps in developing an environment where things are clear and it is easier to make and action decisions.

5.3.4 Persuasive mapping

A leader's ability to influence their followers is regarded as a fundamental skill in leadership literature (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Servant leaders, who have higher concerns for the welfare of their followers and the organisation, encourage their followers to use mental frameworks to envisage greater possibilities. A leader high in persuasive mapping is capable of mapping issues and conceptualising the greater possibilities, and articulating these in a highly convincing way (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). They influence and motivate their followers to see the big picture of the organisation and allow them to encourage others to do the same in order to develop a serving culture. Participants further reported that their supervisors are hopeful, optimistic and have a clear vision for the betterment of the organisation. For example, one participant reported that:

Yes, he is an optimistic person. He always looks at the bright side of the picture. He always says that the thing which you do with a positive mind will definitely go in the right direction, no matter how many hurdles one faces while achieving it. (T01)

Overall, it was found that most of the supervisors were high in persuasive mapping and exert a higher level of effort in developing a servant culture. Of the five focal supervisors, most of the subordinates identified behaviours that align with persuasive mapping. For example, one participant stated, *"My boss always talks about the big dreams for the organisation and persuades us to do so"* (T03). This indicates that most of the supervisors in the focal organisation have the capability to see the big picture of a "serving culture" for their organisation and articulate it in a highly convincing manner.

5.3.5 Organisational stewardship

Stewardship can be described as "preparing the organisation and its members for greater contributions to society" (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006, p. 308). Organisations cannot exist in isolation as there is a high degree of interdependence between organisations and society. In this regard, leaders keenly observe the community's needs and help in satisfying those needs. This helps build the organisation's reputation and recognition within the community, which ultimately adds value to the organisation's brand name. Servant leaders high in organisational stewardship look beyond their self-interest and work for the overall development of society. They set precedents by themselves and follow the concept of "leading by serving"; this trickle-down effect penetrates to the lower levels, which ends in the emergence of a servant culture.

In this study, analysis revealed that most of the participants believe that organisations do not stand alone in a vacuum; rather, they are part of an extended society. Therefore, their leaders strive to prepare the organisation to contribute towards the development of broader society. They present a positive image of their organisation in society and educate people about the positive role of education in nation building, as illustrated by one participant:

Yes, my supervisor is a servant leader. For instance, a Nigerian husband and wife who are doing PhD here do not have any job and face financial problems here. She takes care of them by providing them with some extra money every month or clothes or other daily use items. In addition, she runs a student consultancy on the weekend free of cost to motivate girls to get an education. (L01)

Overall, it was observed in the data that most of the subordinates identified that their supervisor exhibits behaviours that are aligned with organisational stewardship. This shows that supervisors are the real agents of the organisation and exert every effort in presenting a positive image of the organisation in the community and broader society.

All the characteristics described above are important attributes of a servant leader, and help in developing high mutual relationships between a supervisor and their subordinates, which subsequently transform into higher organisational performance. Confirming the existence of elements of servant leadership in the case organisation provided a level of assurance that conducting the quantitative study in this organisation would be appropriate.

5.4 Perceived organisational politics

Political behaviour has negative implications, as these kinds of activities are considered to be self-serving, illegitimate and illegal activities. Most of the political activities come under the umbrella of three factors, as generated by Kacmar and Ferris (1991): *general political behaviours*, *go along to get a head* and *pay and promotion policies*.

5.4.1 General political behaviours

Organisational politics researchers agree that political activities exist in abundance in organisations in which there is a scarcity of rules and regulations to govern actions (Ferris & Hochwarter, 2011; Ferris et al., 1996; Rosen et al., 2006). In the absence of clear rules and regulation to adopt a course of action in a workplace, individuals are left with limited indications of legitimate behaviours and, therefore, they develop their own course of action. This provides them an opportunity to devise rules and policies which are predominantly self-serving and better fulfil their personal interests. Those who are proficient in handling uncertain situations impose a greater influence on others and are successful in promoting their own rules.

It was found in this study that "politics" is considered an illegitimate and illegal practice which negatively influences the overall organisational performance. Most of the participants reported that, overall, the environment in this organisation is highly political. They further mentioned that employees' union representatives give undue favour to their own group and create hurdles for non-union employees, which ends in tension between the two

groups and negatively impacts the overall environment. Pointing towards self-serving general political behaviours, one participant commented:

The overall political environment is quite bad as the association which wins the employees union elections do undue favours to its supporters, resulting in the bad functioning of the organisation as a whole. You can say the person who does hard work will not get rewarded if he is not in the association that wins the election. This disheartens the worker and he/she loses interest in work and in the longer term, the organisation suffers. (T01)

It was found that employees have their own union which works for the welfare of the employees. Most of the time, union representatives are involved in illegitimate activities and give undue favour to their in-group members. When top management is not willing to fulfil their demands (which are, most of the time, illegitimate) they strike, which negatively influences the overall performance of the organisation. One participant said: *"because it creates hurdles for smooth running of the office matters and most of the time employees go on strikes for their illegitimate demands"* (E01).

Findings of the study revealed that most of the participants identified that general political activities are in abundance in the focal organisation. In addition, they identified that political activities are illegitimate, illegal and most of the time counterproductive for the organisation.

5.4.2 Go along to get ahead

Political behaviours in organisations are self-serving in nature and, thus, have the potential to make vulnerable the self-interests of others. Organisational politics literature (e.g. Poon, 2002; Ferris et al., 2002; Ferris & Hochwarter, 2011) illustrates a consistent relationship between organisational politics and conflict which results in retaliation. This contaminates the overall organisational environment, which in turn negatively influences organisational performance. However, some people bear the pressures exerted by political

groups, and thus avoid potential conflict. Avoidance can appear to be a non-political act; however, it comes under the umbrella of political behaviours (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997) because individuals who "don't rock the boat" are the hidden supporters of political groups and are welcomed in the "in-group". Being a "yes-man" and going along to get ahead (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997) are reasonable efforts taken to advance one's personal interests, particularly in a political organisational culture. The term "yes-man" is used here as a genderless phrase, referring to a person who agrees with everything that is said by their associate or superior. Most of the participants in this study were of the view that there is a yes-man culture in this organisation and there is no room for new ideas. They further revealed that change is always resisted in public sector organisations as it brings responsibilities with it, as illustrated by one participant:

No new ideas are appreciated. There is yes-man culture. For instance, a batch of masters of mathematics in 2013 had a few spelling mistakes in it. I gave them suggestions that the scheme should be cross-checked and the difference in the spelling mistakes and codes should be eliminated, but it was not accepted. Change is always resisted in public sector organisations. (E04)

Overall, it was found that most of the participants said that there is a yes-man culture in the focal organisation, where new ideas are not encouraged. This kind of environment can then negatively influence the overall organisational performance.

5.4.3 Pay and promotion policies

This is the final dimension of organisational politics, focusing on how organisations incentivise and sustain political behaviours through the implementation of pay and promotion policies. In order to do so, human resource management systems are developed in a way to patronise those individuals who are engaged in political behaviours and penalise those who avoid influencing behaviours. This approach results in a culture in which political activities

are considered as legitimate and are found in almost every aspect of human resource decisions, specifically in pay and promotion (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997). For example, individually oriented rewards persuade individually oriented behaviours, which are most often self-centred and political in nature. In order to incentivise influential individuals, organisations develop an environment which promotes political behaviours. This encourages those who have not been actively involved in political behaviours in the past to engage in political behaviours in the future. Findings of this study predominantly show that pay is uniform in the case organisation, as the government pay scale is implemented. However, promotion rules are violated most of the time by those who made the rules. This happens in order to promote some individuals who are affiliated with political groups or with top management. For example, one participant explained it in this way: *"The salary is uniform but there is a lot of favouritism in the promotion. Promotion is based on personal relations and political affiliation"* (EFA01).

Overall, it was found that pay is uniform in the focal organisation as the government pay scale is implemented in public-sector universities. However, it was found that a lot of discrepancies occur in employees' promotions, as rules are often violated by top management and union representatives.

5.5 Summary of the chapter

As described at the beginning of this chapter, the purpose of this qualitative study was to explore whether or not servant leadership behaviours are prevalent in the case organisation – a university in Pakistan. In addition, the study also strived to explore POP in the focal organisation. Results confirmed the existence of a high political environment in the organisation, with evidence of servant leadership behaviours. These findings provided assurance that it was appropriate to conduct the follow-up quantitative study in this case organisation, the results of which follow in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6. QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

6.1 Descriptive statistics

There were a total of 236 participants who were included in the final analysis of this study. Although 300 survey instruments were distributed among the respondents, 64 respondents did not fill in the questionnaires appropriately and were therefore excluded from the final analysis. In addition to the main variables of this study, there were seven demographic variables for which data were collected: age, gender, marital status, educational qualification, department, position in organisation level and tenure with organisation and current supervisor. A slight majority of the participants were male (66.1% male, 33.9% female). Participants' age ranged from 20–60 years (where, 1 = 20–25, 2 = 26–30, 3 = 31–35, 4 = 36–40, 5 = 41–45, 6 = 46–50, 7 = 51–55, 8 = 56–60). Respondents of the age group 30–35 years were the highest in number (46.2%), followed by the age group 35–40 (23.3%) and the lowest percentage of respondents came from the age group 20–25 (0.4%). These variables were used as control variables in the main analyses in order to rule out the possible confounding role played by these variables.

Table 6 presents the Mean, Standard Deviation, Cronbach's alpha and correlations among the study variables. Means and standard deviations of the study variables are as follows: servant leadership (M= 4.1153, S.D = .479), trust in leader (M= 4.1764, S.D = .958), LMX (M = 4.0315, S.D = .378), POP (M = 2.9271, S.D = .556), leader effectiveness (M = 3.8867, S.D = .706), OCB-I (M = 3.8729, S.D = .483), OCB-O (M = 3.7950, S.D = .508) and task performance (M = 3.8959, S.D = .421).

Table 6. *Descriptive statistics, Cronbach's alpha and correlations for variables in this study*

	Means	SD	Alpha	SL	TL	LMX	POP	LE	OCB-I	OCB-O
SL	4.1153	.479	.948							
TL	4.1764	.699	.958	.523**						
LMX	4.0315	.378	.763	.535**	.767**					
POP	2.9271	.556	.936	-.203**	-.178**	-.13*				
LE	3.8867	.706	.942	.428**	.325**	.382**	-.218**			
OCB-I	3.8729	.483	.768	.639**	.475**	.495**	-.115	.463**		
OCB-O	3.7950	.508	.766	.646**	.503**	.499**	-.189**	.421**	.778**	
TP	3.8959	.421	.711	.631**	.456**	.455**	-.227**	.508**	.606**	.573**

Note: SL = Servant leadership; TL = Trust in Leader; LMX = Leader-member exchange; POP = Perceptions of politics; LE = Leader effectiveness; OCB-I = Organisation citizenship behaviours directed towards individuals; OCB-O = Organisation citizenship behaviours directed towards organisation; TP = Task performance.
*p <.05, **p <.01, ***p <.001

SEM was conducted to test the hypotheses H1a, H1b, H4, H5, H6, H7, H8a and H8b by using AMOS 23. Hypothesised moderated effects for H3, H6, H11a and H11b were tested using moderated multiple regression in SPSS. Conditional indirect effects were tested using PROCESS in SPSS.

Table 7, *Demographic characteristics of respondents (study 2)*

Demographic	Number of people (frequency)	% of total n
Gender		
Male	156	66.1
Female	80	33.9
Age		
20-25	1	0.4
26-30	46	19.5
31-35	109	46.2
36-40	55	23.3
41-45	23	9.7
46-50	2	0.8
Education		
HS	1	0.4
HSSE	31	13.1
BA/BSc	162	68.6
Masters	35	14.8
MS/MPhil	7	3.0
PhD	0	0
Managerial position		
Non-management	231	97.5
Middle-management	5	2.1
Department		
R&D	20	8.5
A&F	25	10.6
HRM	31	13.1
ADMN	50	21.2
PR	20	8.2
Transport	20	8.2
Exam	15	6.4
Degree section	10	4.2
Purchase	10	4.2
Psychology	5	2.1
QEC	10	4.2
Library	5	2.1
IT	15	6.4
Note: n=236		

6.2 SEM testing

6.2.1. Hypothesised direct effects from servant leadership to task performance (H1a), organisational citizenship behaviours (H1b) and leadership effectiveness (H2)

Initially, the direct impact of servant leadership on OCB-I, OCB-O and task performance was examined by assessing the direct effect of both these variables on task performance within SEM. It was found that servant leadership significantly influenced task performance (β=0.55, p<0.01), OCB-I (β=0.64, p<0.01) and OCB-O (β=0.68, p<0.01), hence H1a and H1b were supported. A direct relationship between servant leadership and leadership effectiveness was also found (β=0.43, p<0.01) which supported H2.

6.2.2 Hypothesised direct and indirect effects (H4, H7a, H7b, H9a, H9b, H10a and H10b)

An important practice for testing indirect effects involves assessing both full and partial mediations in order to compare the magnitude of the indirect effect (Newman, Rose et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2010; Zhu et al., 2013). To examine the hypothesised mediated/indirect effects, this study examined the proposed full and partial mediating role of trust in leader and LMX between servant leadership and the outcome variables. H9a, H9b, H10a and H10b were therefore tested by assessing a full mediation model, whereby paths were drawn from the independent variable (servant leadership) to the mediating variables (trust in leader, LMX), and from the mediating variable to the outcome variables (task performance, OCB-I and OCB-O). Following this, partial mediation models were tested by adding direct paths from servant leadership to respective outcome variables.

All hypothesised direct and indirect (mediated) effects were tested within four SEM models (Figures 3–6). Regarding direct effects, results indicated that direct effects from servant leadership to trust in leader (H4) (β=0.52, p<0.01), and LMX (H5) (β=0.53, p<0.01) were significant. Direct effects from trust in leader to task performance (β=0.48, p<0.01)

(H7a), and OCB-I (β=0.50, p<0.01) and OCB-O (β=0.46, p<0.01) (H7b) were also significant. Direct effects from LMX to task performance (β=0.46, p<0.01) (H8a), and OCB-I (β=0.49, p<0.01) and OCB-O (β=0.50, p<0.01) (H8b) were also significant.

Regarding the indirect effects, H9 proposed that LMX mediates the relationship between servant leadership and task performance (H9a) and between servant leadership and OCB (H9b). As indicated in Figure 3, the direct effects underlying this mediation were significant. In support of mediation, once the direct paths from servant leadership to outcome variables were added, the path coefficients from LMX to outcome variables were reduced (see Figure 4). Specifically, the relationship between LMX and task performance dropped from (β=0.46, p<0.01) to (β=0.16, p<0.01). The relationship between LMX and OCB-I dropped down from (β=0.49, p<0.01) to (β=0.21, p<0.01) and the relationship between LMX and OCB-O dropped down from (β=0.50, p<0.01) to (β=0.21, p<0.05). The fit indexes for the full mediation model are: Chi-square = 3278.407, df = 2145, $P < .01$, CFI = .91, TLI = .91, RMSEA = .045 and SRMR = .063; and for the partial mediation model are: Chi-square = 3268.402, df = 2140, $P < .01$, CFI = .90, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .048 and SRMR = .064.

H10 proposed that trust in leader mediates the relationship between servant leadership and task performance (H10a) and servant leadership and OCB (H10b). As indicated in Figure 5, the direct effects underlying this mediation were significant. In support of mediation, the direct paths from servant leadership to outcome variables were added, the path coefficients from trust in leader to outcome variables were reduced (see Figure 6). Specifically, the relationship between trust in leader and task performance dropped from (β=0.48, p<0.01) to (β=0.17, p<0.01). The relationship between trust in leader and OCB-I dropped from (β=0.50, p<0.01) to (β=0.19, p<0.01), and the relationship between trust in leader and OCB-O dropped from (β=0.46, p<0.01) to (β=0.23, p<0.05). The fit indexes for the full mediation model are: Chi-square = 3368.405, df = 2245, $P < .01$, CFI = .92, TLI = .92, RMSEA = .042 and SRMR

= .061; and for the partial mediation model are: Chi-square = 3362.401, df = 2140, *P* < .01,

CFI = .91, TLI = .90, RMSEA = .045 and SRMR = .062.
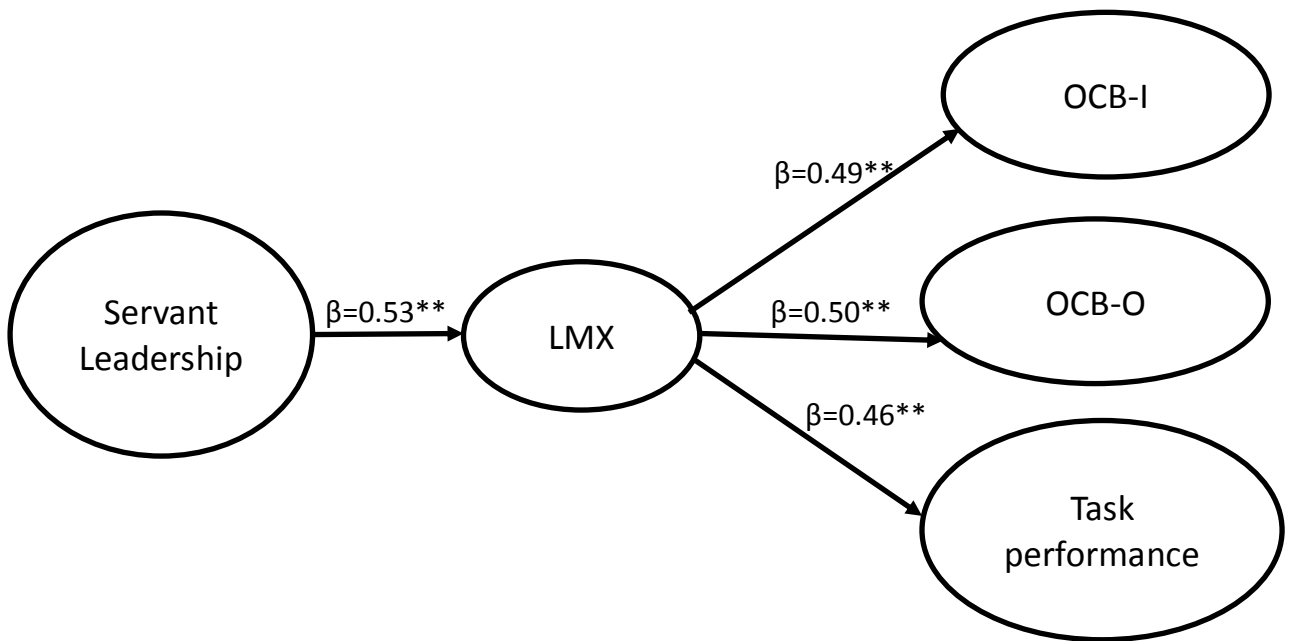
Figure 3. Full mediation model of LMX between servant leadership and task performance
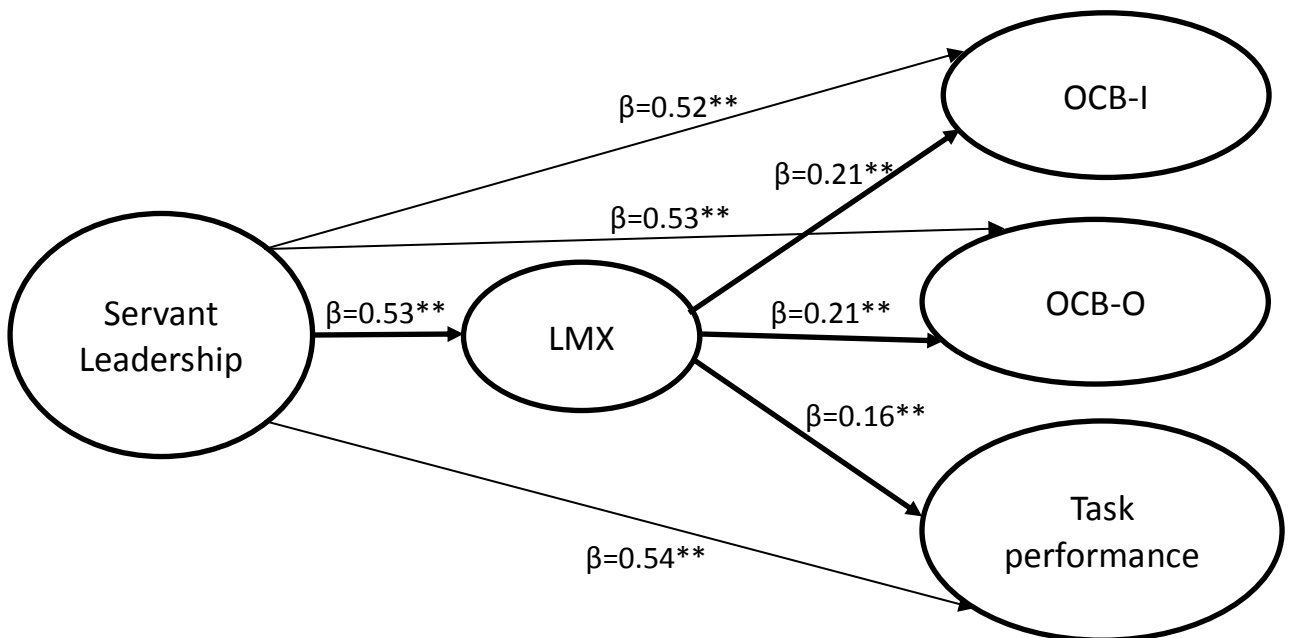
and OCB

Figure 4. Partial mediation model of LMX between servant leadership and task performance
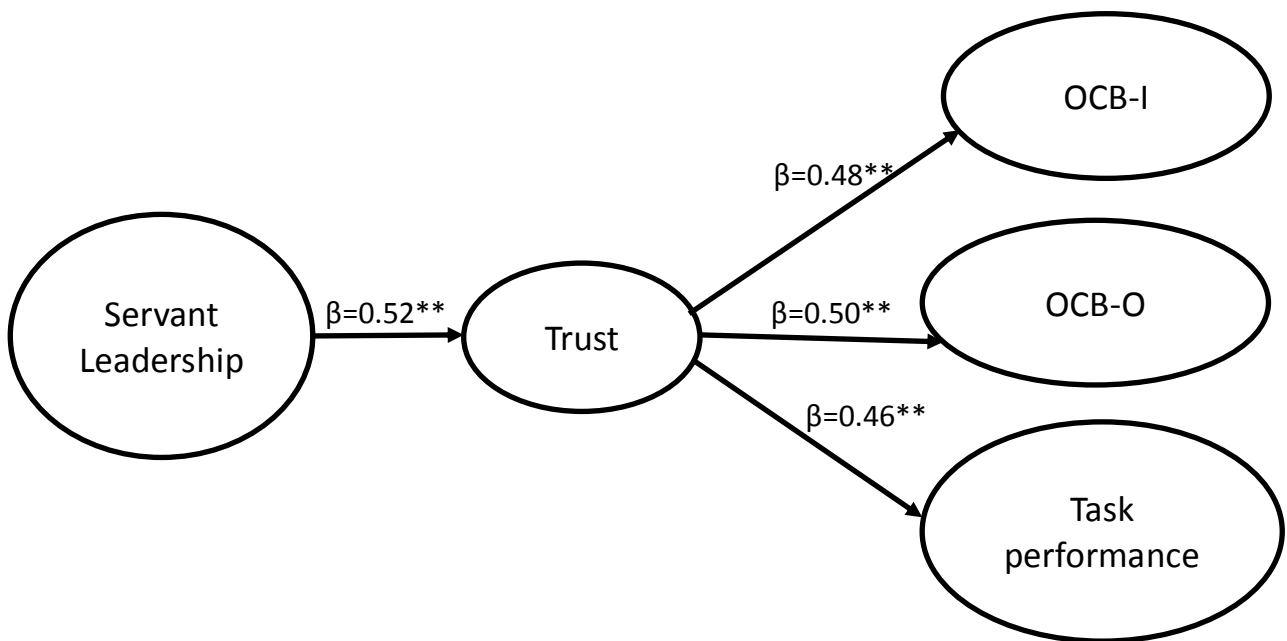
and OCB

Figure 5. Full mediation model of trust between servant leadership and task performance and

OCB
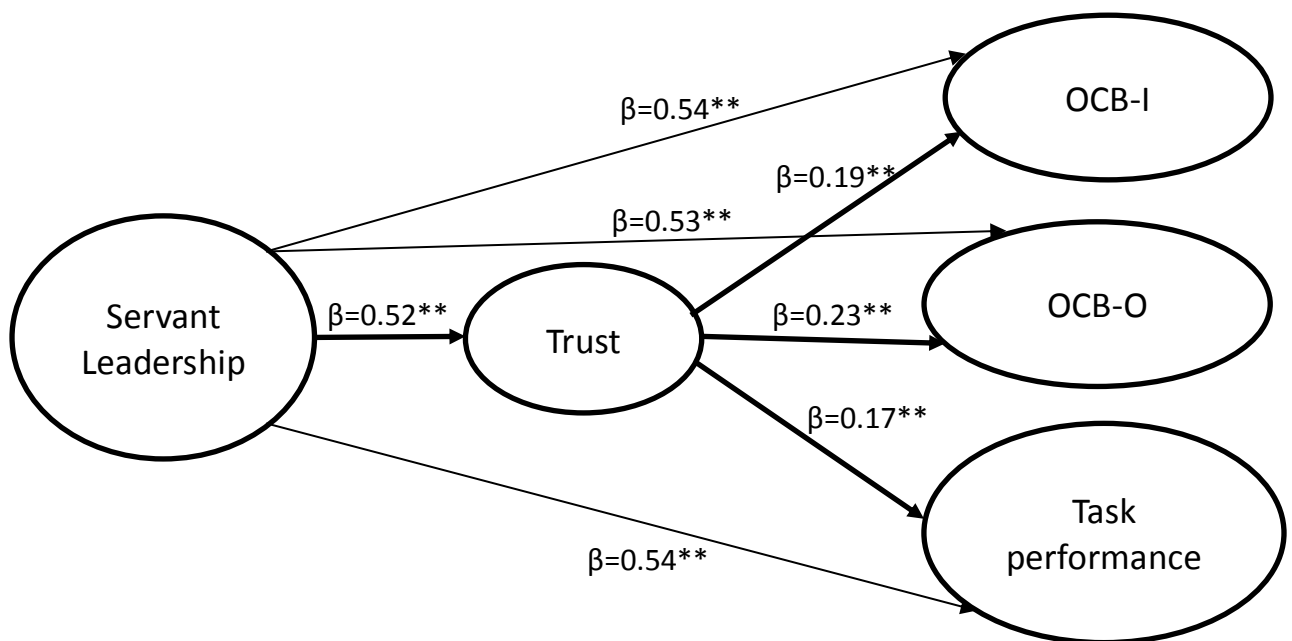
Figure 6. Partial mediation model of trust between servant leadership and task performance

and OCB

The above results provide support for mediation in the proposed model; however, to provide more confidence in the mediation results, parametric bootstrapping (Preacher & Hayes, 2008) was used to find the indirect effects of servant leadership on task performance, OCB-I and OCB-O via the effects of trust in leader and LMX. Instead of using conventional three-step regression analysis (Baron & Kenny, 1986) and Sobel's (1982) test, this study used bootstrapping because of its biased corrected confidence interval (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). The results are presented in Table 8, showing that the indirect effects of servant leadership through LMX on task performance ($\beta=0.243$, $p<0.05$), OCB-I ($\beta=0.265$, $p<0.05$) and OCB-O ($\beta=0.267$, $p<0.05$) were significant, which lends support for H9a and H9b. In addition, the indirect effects of servant leadership through trust on task performance ($\beta=0.238$, $p<0.05$), OCB-I ($\beta=0.248$, $p<0.05$) and OCB-O ($\beta=0.263$, $p<0.05$) were also significant, which lends support for H10a and H10b.

Table 8. *Mediation of the effect of servant leadership on follower outcomes through trust and LMX*

	Estimate	S.E.	Est./S.E.	p-value	Lower limit	Upper limit	Sig or not
From SL to task performance							
Sum of indirect effect	.481	.061	7.88	.003	.17	.37	Yes
Through trust in leader	.238	.055	4.32	.002	.14	.32	Yes
Through LMX	.243	.057	4.26	.002	.14	.33	Yes
From SL to OCB-I							
Sum of indirect effect	.513	.063	8.14	.003	.19	.41	Yes
Through trust in leader	.248	.059	4.20	.002	.15	.34	Yes
Through LMX	.265	.061	4.34	.002	.16	.37	Yes
From SL to OCB-O							
Sum of indirect effect	.53	.067	7.91	.003	.20	.40	Yes
Through trust in leader	.263	.057	4.61	.002	.17	.35	Yes
Through LMX	.267	.058	4.60	.002	.17	.36	Yes

Note: SL = Servant leadership; LMX = Leader-member exchange; OCB-I = Organisation citizenship behaviours directed towards individuals; OCB-O = Organisation citizenship behaviours directed towards organisation.

6.3 Moderation analysis

In order to test the moderating role of POP on the relationship between trust in supervisor, LMX and outcome variables (OCB and task performance), hierarchical moderated regression analysis was used. Prior to running the moderation analysis, in order to avoid multi-collinearity, both independent and moderating variables were mean-centred (as recommended by Aiken & West, 1991). Interaction terms were created for the independent variables and the moderating variable in the hypothesised relationships.

6.3.1. Hypothesised moderated effects of perceptions of politics on the relationship between servant leadership and leader effectiveness

In order to test H3, that POP moderates the positive relationship between servant leadership and leader effectiveness such that the relationship will be weaker in a high political environment, hierarchical moderated regression analysis was used. Results revealed that the two-way interaction term created between servant and POP has no significant effect on leadership effectiveness, hence H3 was not supported. It was also hypothesised that trust in leader is a significant predictor of the quality of the exchange relationship (H6). Analysis revealed that trust has a positive significant relationship with LMX (β=0.67, p<0.01), supporting H6.

6.3.2. Hypothesised moderated effects of perception of politics on the relationship between leader-member exchange and task performance and leader-member exchange and organisational citizenship behaviours.

Moderated regression analysis was used to test H11 (H11a and H11b), which is that POP moderates the relationship between LMX and task performance (H11a) and OCB (H11b) such that the relationship will be weaker in a high political environment. Controlling the effects of age, gender, qualification and tenure with organisation and supervisor, two-way moderated

regression analyses were conducted for mean-centred composite variables of LMX and POP on

task performance, OCB-I and OCB-O. Results for these analyses are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. *LMX and task performance and OCB moderated by POP*

	OCB-I		OCB-O		Task Performance	
	β	ΔR²	β	ΔR²	β	ΔR²
Step 1						
Age	-.02		-.08		-.03	
Gender	.15*		.13*		.03	
Education	-.13		-.09		-.17**	
Tenure	.04	.05*	.08	.04*	.15*	.05*
Step 2						
Age	.02		-.04		.003	
Gender	.17**		.14**		.02	
Education	-.06		-.02		-.11	
Tenure	.07		.11		.17**	
LMX	.49***		.48***		.44***	
POP	-.03	.23***	-.11	.25***	-.16**	.22***
Step 3						
Age	.01		-.04		-.01	
Gender	.17**		.14*		.02	
Education	-.06		-.03		-.11*	
Tenure	.08		.11		.18**	
LMX	.47***		.46***		.38***	
POP	-.07		-.12*		-.19**	
LMX x POP	.05	.002	.08	.005	.19**	.03**

Note: LMX = Leader-member exchange; POP = Perceptions of politics; OCB-I = Organisation citizenship behaviours directed towards individuals; OCB-O = Organisation citizenship behaviours directed towards organisation.

Control variables, described above, were entered in the first step, followed by the

independent and moderating variable in the second step. In the third step, the product term of the

independent and moderating variables was entered. In step one, gender was found to have a

significant positive relationship with OCB-I (β=.15, p<.05) and OCB-O (β=.13, p<.05) and a

non-significant relationship with task performance. Education was found to have a significant

negative relationship (β= -.17, p<.05) with task performance. In step two, LMX was found to be

positively related with OCB-I (β=.49, p<.05), OCB-O (β=.48, p<.05) and task performance

(β=.44, p<.05); however, POP was found to have a significant negative relationship only with

task performance (β=-.16, p<.05). Step three shows that the two-way interaction term created between LMX and POP had no significant effect on OCB-I. Similarly, the interaction term of LMX and POP was not significant for OCB-O, as shown in Table 9; however, the interaction term of LMX and POP was significant for task performance (β=.19, p<.01). This significant interaction is followed-up and interpreted in section 6.3.4.

6.3.3 Trust and task performance and organisational citizenship behaviours moderated by perceptions of politics

Moderated regression analysis was used to test H12 (H12a and H12b), which is that POP moderates the relationship between trust in leader and task performance (H12a) and OCB (H12b) such that the relationship will be weaker in a high political environment. Controlling the effects of age, gender, qualification and tenure with organisation and supervisor, two-way moderated regression analyses were conducted for mean-centred composite variables of trust in supervisor and POP on task performance, OCB-I and OCB-O. Results for these analyses are presented in Table 10.

Table 10. *Trust in supervisor and task performance and OCB moderated by POP*

	OCB-I		OCB-O		Task Performance	
	β	ΔR²	β	ΔR²	β	ΔR²
Step 1						
Age	-.03		-.08		-.03	
Gender	.15*		.13*		.03	
Education	-.13*		-.09		-.17**	
Tenure	.04	.05**	.08	.04*	.15*	.05**
Step 2						
Age	.02		-.03		.007	
Gender	.13*		.11		-.007	
Education	-.07		-.03		-.11	
Tenure	.06		.09		.16**	
Trust	.46***		.48***		.43***	
POP	-.01	.20***	-.09	.24***	-.14**	.22***
Step 3						
Age	.01		-.04		-.006	
Gender	.15**		.12*		.02	
Education	-.08		-.04		-.13*	
Tenure	.06		.10		.16**	
Trust	.47***		.46***		.41***	
POP	-.07		-.10*		-.16**	
Trust x POP	.14**	.02**	.16**	.03**	.25***	.06***

Note: POP = Perceptions of politics; OCB-I = Organisation citizenship behaviours directed towards individuals; OCB-O = Organisation citizenship behaviours directed towards organisation.

Control variables, described above, were entered in the first step, followed by the independent and moderating variable in the second step. In the third step, the product term of the independent and moderating variables was entered. In step one, gender was found to have a significant positive relationship with OCB-I (β=.15, p<.05), OCB-O (β=.13, p<.05), and a non-significant relationship with task performance. In addition, education was found to have a significant negative relationship with OCB-I (β=-.13, p<.05) and task performance (β= -.17, p<.05), and a non-significant relationship with OCB-O. In step two, trust was found to have a positive relationship with OCB-I, OCB-I and task performance; however, POP was found to have a negative significant relationship with task performance and non-significant relationship with OCB-I and OCB-O. Step three shows that the two-way interaction term created between

trust in supervisor and POP has a significant effect on OCB-I (β=.14, p<.01), OCB-O (β=.16, p<.01) and task performance (β=.25, p<.01).

6.3.4 Slope analysis

Simple slope analyses were conducted on the significant interactions between LMX and POP on the outcome variables (H11a and H11b). In order to interpret the interaction effects the simple slopes for the significant interactions effects (i.e. for the low and high values of the moderating variables) were plotted and assessed for significance. Plots for the interactions are presented in Figures 7–12. A process macro (Hayes, 2013) was used for simple slope analysis. Figures 7 and 8 confirm that POP did not moderate the relationship between LMX and OCB (OCB-I and OCB-O). Figure 9 illustrates the relationship between LMX and task performance for high and low levels of POP. Analysis revealed that the slope for a low level of POP was not significant, b=.17, t (228) =1.5, p=.14; however, the slope for a high level of POP was positive and significant, b=.68, t (228) =7.8, p<.001. In addition, analysis also revealed that the slope for a medium level of POP was also positive and significant, b=.42, t (228) =6.5, p<.001.

Simple slope analyses were then conducted on the significant interactions between trust and POP on outcome variables (H12a and H12b). Figure 10 shows the plot of a simple slope for OCB-I. Results demonstrate that the slope for high, medium and low levels of POP was significant; however, the slope was highly significant at a higher level of POP, b=.42, t (228) =7.07, p<.001 compared to the lower level of POP, b=.20, t (228) =3, p<.005. Figure 11 shows the plot of the simple slopes relating to the interaction between trust and POP. The relationship between trust in supervisor and OCB-O was significant for high, medium and low levels of POP; however, the slope was highly significant at a higher level of POP, b=.47, t (228) =7.7, p<.001 compared to a lower level of POP, b=.19, t (228) =2.9, p<.005. Lastly, Figure 12 shows the plot

of the simple slope relating to the interaction between trust and POP. The relationship between trust in supervisor and task performance was significant for a high level of POP, $b=.68$, t (228) $=7.8$, $p<.001$, and non-significant for a low level of POP, $b=.17$, t (228) $=1.5$, $p=.13$. These analyses lend no support for H12a and H12b, however the interactions were significant at high POP, in contrast to what was hypothesised. Therefore, POP did not break down trust, and on the contrary, trust became more important in high POP environments.
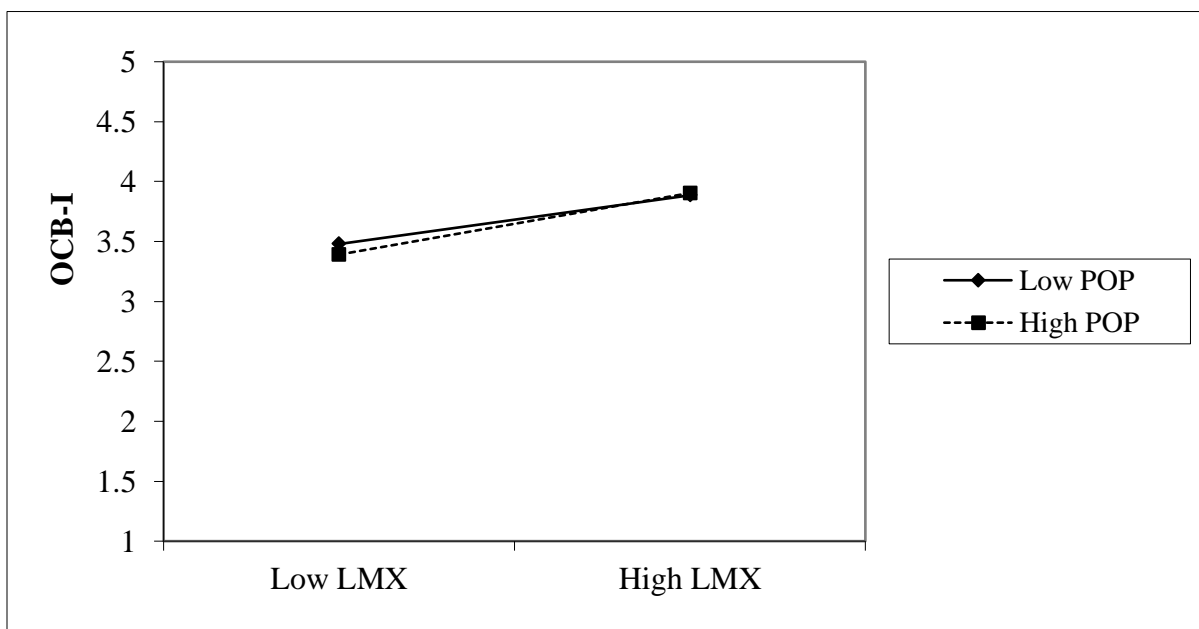
Figure 7. Moderating impact of POP on LMX and OCB-I
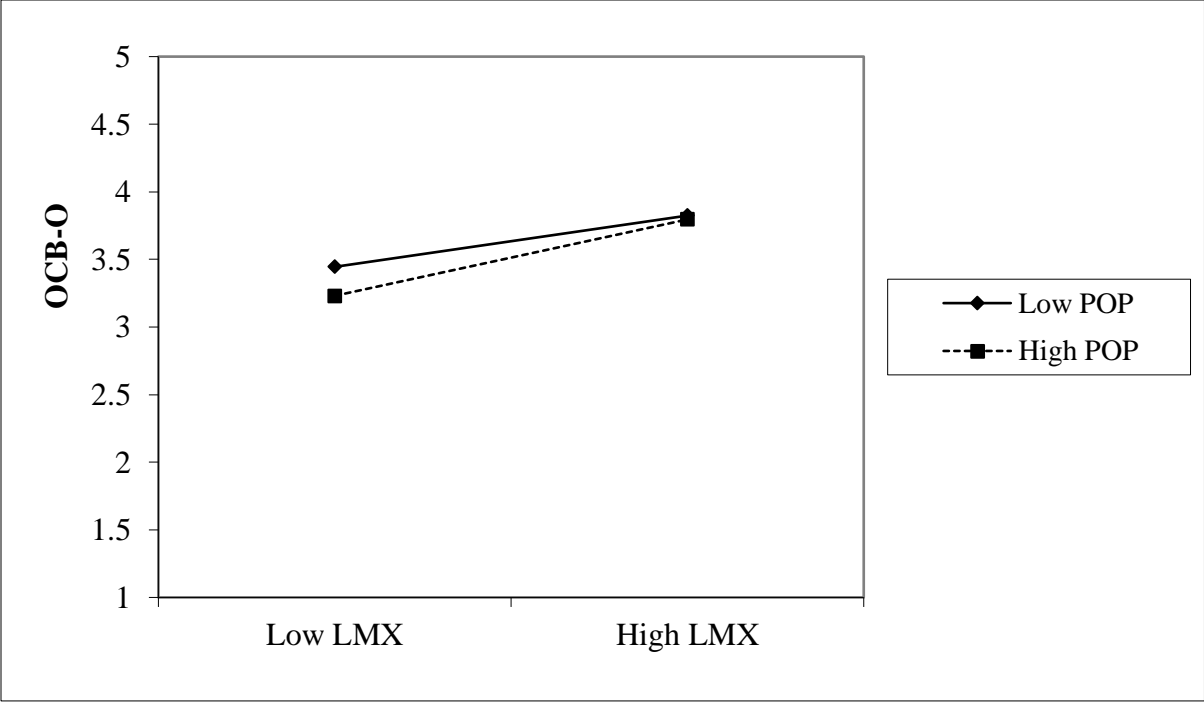
Figure 8. Moderating impact of POP on LMX and OCB-O
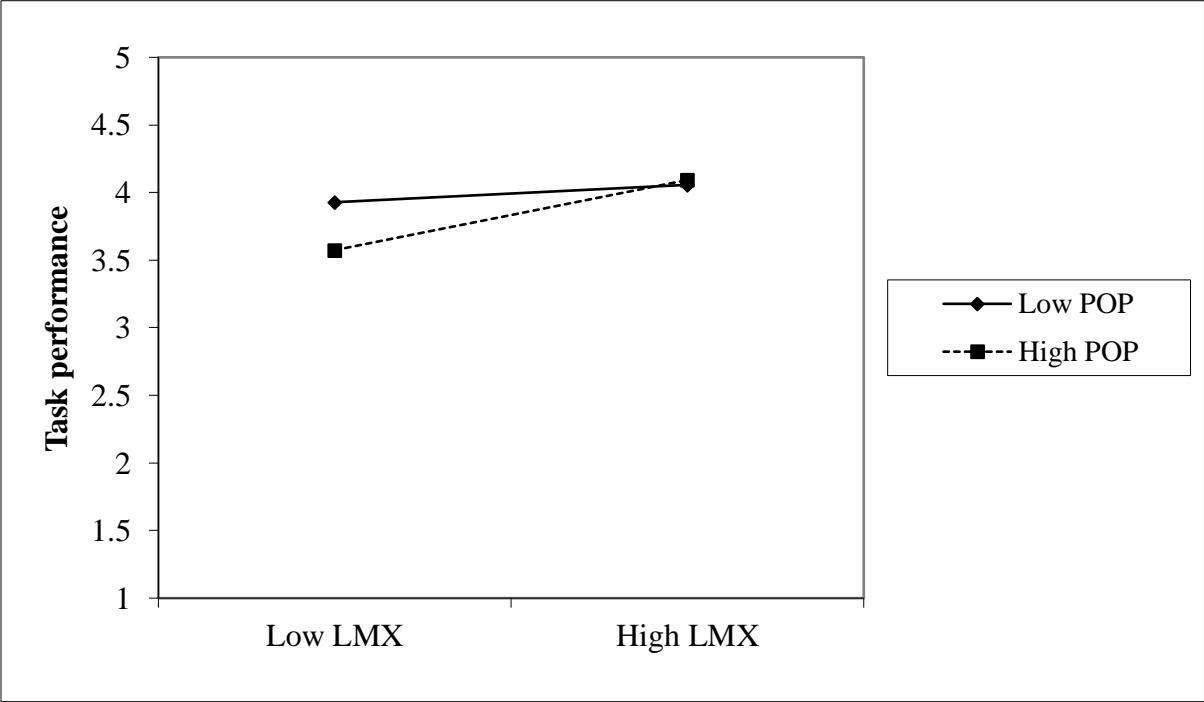
Figure 9. Moderating impact of POP on LMX and task performance
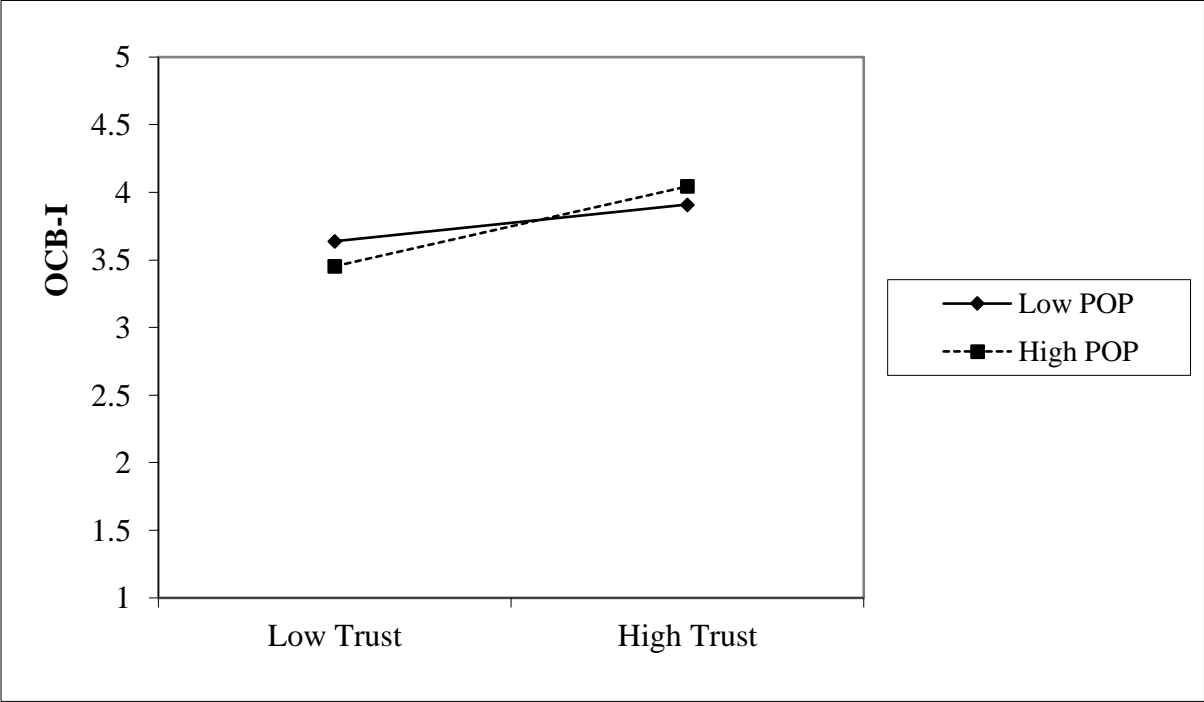
Figure 10. Moderating impact of POP on trust in supervisor and OCB-I
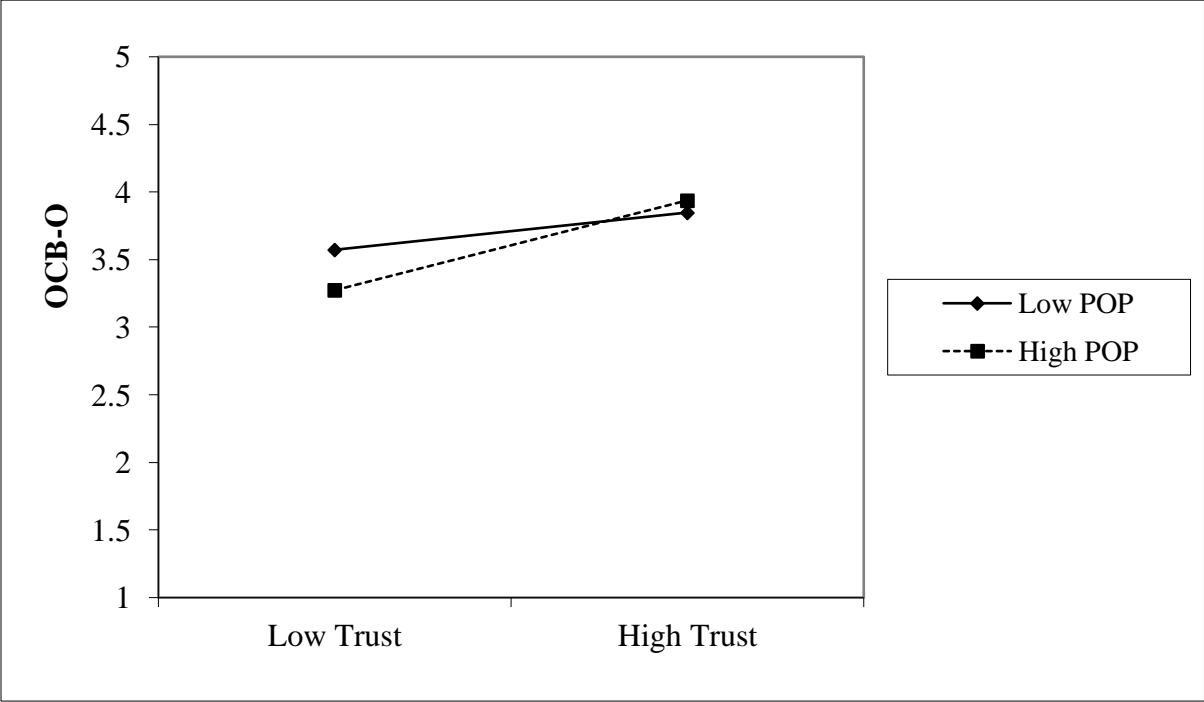
Figure 11. Moderating impact of POP on trust in leader and OCB-O
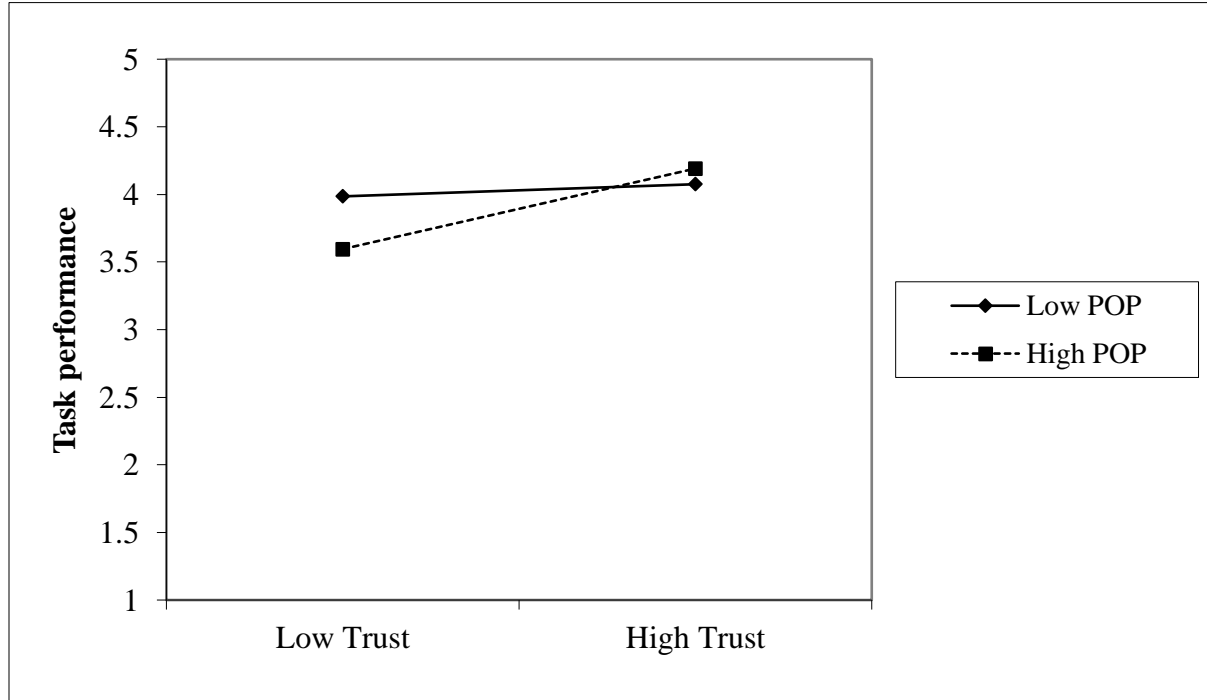
Figure 12. Moderating impact of POP on trust in leader and task performance

6.4 Tests of hypothesised conditional indirect effects

In order to test H13 and H14, a moderated mediation model process macro (Hayes, 2013) was used. This model tests both moderating and mediating effects simultaneously by assessing whether indirect (mediated) effects are significantly different at different levels of moderators. Additionally, the PROCESS macro allows for the inclusion of multiple mediators and control variables. Another important characteristic of this program is that it centres the variables prior to calculating interaction terms, which reduces multicollinearity. Table 11 presents the outcomes for all the three of the moderated-mediations hypotheses, with each of the performance indicators (OCB-I, OCB-O and task performance) for two different levels of POP: +1SD and -1SD. Results confirm the existence of conditional indirect effects in some of these models. Specifically, the mediation of servant leadership on performance via trust received a significant index of

moderated mediation (index=.14, 95% CI [.04-.24]), indicating that this mediation is conditional on POP. Specifically, the positive mediation effect was significant only at high levels of POP. However, the mediation of servant leadership on OCB (OCB-I and OCB-O) via trust did not receive a significant index of moderated mediation, indicating that the mediation does not depend on POP. The mediation of servant leadership on performance via LMX received a significant index of moderated mediation (index=.13, 95% CI [.03-0.30]), indicating that this mediation is conditional on POP. Specifically, the positive mediation effect was again only significant at high levels of POP. Finally, the mediation of servant leadership on OCB via LMX did not receive a significant index of moderated mediation (see Table 11 for details). Thus, partial support was found for both H13 and H14.

Table 11. *Moderated mediation analysis (conditional indirect effect at POP= +SD)*

Variables	OCB-I			OCB-O			Task performance		
Via LMX	Effect	LLCI	ULCI	Effect	LLCI	ULCI	Effect	LLCI	ULCI
-1SD POP	.13	.03	.23	.11	.03	.22	-.004	-.09	.08
+1SD POP	.10	.01	.21	.13	.05	.22	**.13**	**.07**	**.23**
Via Trust									
-1SD POP	.08	.002	.17	.09	.007	.17	.006	-.06	.07
+1SD POP	.10	.007	.22	.14	.07	.24	**.14**	**.07**	**.25**

n = 236
unstandardised regression coefficients are reported.
Following variables were centred: LMX (leader–member exchange), trust in supervisor and POP (perceptions of politics)
Bootstrap sample size = 1,000 bias corrected; LL = lower limit, UL = upper limit, CI = confidence interval
Level of confidence 95%

6.5 Summary of the chapter

This chapter provided the detailed description of the analysis and findings of the quantitative study of this thesis. It was found that trust in supervisor and LMX work as

underlying mechanisms between servant leadership and employee task performance and OCB. In addition, the correlations among the study variables were also found in the expected direction. Lastly, the findings also demonstrated the moderating effect of POP which indicated that, in contrast to what was hypothesised, POP did not break down the social exchange effect created by servant leadership, but actually made the effect of servant leadership more pronounced. The next chapter discusses the results from study one and study two in combination in the light of previous research and literature.

CHAPTER 7. DISCUSSION

7.1 Overview of the chapter

The previous chapter provided a detailed description of the quantitative results of this mixed-method research. This chapter presents the overall findings from both studies, and discusses them in relation to the relevant literature. In addition, the various contributions of this study towards theory and practice are also discussed. Finally, this thesis concludes by identifying the limitations and proposing future research directions.

7.2 Qualitative findings discussion

As described in Chapter 4, the main objective of the first qualitative study was to explore the existence of servant leadership behaviours and perceived organisational politics in the focal organisation. It was found in the qualitative study that both servant leadership and politics were highly prevalent in the focal organisation.

Analysis revealed that most of the participants (14 out of 20) identified that their supervisors exhibit servant leadership behaviours in the workplace. Previous research has identified that servant leadership is pervasive and effective in countries such as the US, Australia, Holland, South Africa and Arab countries (Dannhauser & Boshoff, 2006; Dillman, 2004; Laub, 1999a; Sarayrah, 2004). Additionally, a few other studies have found that the servant leadership model is equally applicable in different industries, for example education, business, government and not-for-profit sectors (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Dannhauser & Boshoff, 2006; Joseph & Winston, 2005; Reinke, 2004). Consistent with this, the key finding of the first qualitative study is the evidence that servant leadership themes are present in a non-western sample.

As described in Chapter 5, *altruistic calling* represents a leader's desire to improve the lives of others. Leaders high in altruistic calling put the interests of subordinates above their own and exert a higher degree of effort to satisfy subordinates' needs. Analysis revealed that most of the participants were of the view that their supervisors have high concerns about their needs which positively influences their lives.

In addition, most of the participants identified that their supervisors help them whenever they encounter difficulties in the workplace. Furthermore, they mentioned that their supervisors have the necessary skills and capabilities to help them to recover from hardships or traumas they confront in the workplace. This indicates that their supervisors are high in *emotional healing*, an important attribute of servant leadership, which helps individuals to recover from trauma.

It was also found that most of the participants identified that their supervisors were high in *wisdom,* which is another important attribute of servant leadership. Wisdom is an individual's ability to be aware of the surroundings and appropriately anticipate the consequences of their current actions. Analysis revealed that most of the participants identified that their supervisors have a greater awareness of the surroundings and have the capability to forecast some functions and their implications for their followers and the organisation.

A leader's ability to influence their followers is regarded as a fundamental skill in leadership literature. Leaders who are high in *persuasive mapping* influence and motivate their followers to see the organisational big picture and persuade them to encourage others to do the same in order to develop a serving culture. It was found in this study that most of the participants reported that their supervisors show a high level of concern regarding the organisation's development. They further reported that their supervisors are hopeful, optimistic and have a clear

vision for the betterment of the organisation. This indicates that supervisors in this organisation are high in persuasive mapping, which helps create a servant culture.

Lastly, the servant leadership attribute of *stewardship* was also identified in the focal organisation. It is not possible for organisations to exist in isolation as there is a high degree of interdependence between organisations and society. Therefore, leaders keenly observe the community's needs and help in satisfying these needs. Results of this study reveal that most of the participants believe that organisations do not stand alone in a vacuum; rather, they are part of the extended society. Therefore, their leaders strive to prepare the organisation to contribute towards the development of the broader society. They present a positive image of their organisation in society and educate people about the positive role of education in nation-building. Hence, it is evident that supervisors in this organisation are high in stewardship, which build's the organisation's reputation and presents a positive image of it in the extended society.

The qualitative analysis also indicates that most of the respondents (12 out of 20) perceived a high level of politics in their respective departments and across the organisation overall. In addition, six respondents perceived a moderate level of politics within the organisation, and the remaining two perceived a low level of politics in the organisation.

Interviews with direct reports (supervisors) and subordinates revealed that political activities were in abundance in the focal organisation, and there was consensus among the participants that these activities are counterproductive for overall organisational performance. A few participants identified positive aspects of politics by identifying that political activities can be positive in a way if undertaken for the welfare of employees; however, this rarely happens. It was also identified that top management and employee unions are the primary sources of

political activities within the organisation and are mostly involved in rule-bending in regard to promotions and employee recruitment. These phenomena discourage employees to go the extra mile for the organisation.

It is also evident from organisation politics literature that political activities are deemed as negative and counterproductive for the organisation (Bozeman, et al., 1996; Cropanzano et al., 1997; Ferris et al., 1996; Kimura, 2013). High political organisations are characterised by self-serving, illegitimate and harmful activities (Hochwarter et al., 2002), which hamper the development of the employee–organisation exchange relationship (Keeley, 1988; Rosen, 2006). These self-serving political activities are often time-detrimental for organisations and their members (Ferris et al., 1989b; Kacmar & Baron, 1999).

In conclusion, the qualitative phase of this thesis provided a preliminary investigation into the servant leadership behaviours and the perceptions of organisational politics in the focal organisation. It was found that most of the participants (subordinates) believe that their supervisor exhibits servant leadership behaviours. In addition, the findings also revealed that political activities were in abundance in the organisation, and were deemed as counterproductive for the organisation, negatively influencing the overall organisational performance. These findings contribute to the literature in a small, but important way. They suggest that the various phenomena studied in this thesis (servant leadership, organisational politics) which have been primarily studied in western cultures are also relevant in non-western cultures. Indeed the fact that these phenomena have been observed in a range of different cultures suggest that they are not culture-specific, but rather relate to universal aspect in human behaviour. Indeed this is consistent with the theoretical framework of this thesis – social exchange theory – which itself is a universal theory of behaviour not dependent on cultural norms.

Once it was established that servant leadership behaviours and POP were present in the focal organisation, the organisation was deemed an appropriate context for the quantitative study. This quantitative study attempted to explore the relationships among the study's constructs and also investigated the moderating impact of POP on the relationships between social exchange indicators (trust and LMX) and employees' task performance and OCB.

7.3 Quantitative findings discussion

The main objective of the quantitative study was to understand how effective servant leaders are in a political environment where, most of the time, employees are engaged in self-centred behaviours. To understand this, the quantitative component of this study strived to investigate three important phenomena: first, the nature of the underlying mechanism between servant leadership behaviours and performance outcomes (task performance and OCB); second, the impact of POP on the relationship between social exchange indicators (trust and LMX) and performance outcomes (task performance and OCB); and, third, servant leaders' effectiveness in a high political environment.

As described in the literature review, the basic philosophy of servant leaders is to place others' interests above their own, which results in higher growth and wellbeing of their followers and motivates them to engage in behaviours that are beneficial for the organisation and co-workers (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Liden et al., 2008; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008). This research aimed to understand why, and under what contextual environments, servant leaders motivate their followers to engage in higher task performance and citizenship behaviours. In particular, this study proposed that servant leadership enhances followers' trust in their leaders and builds high LMX relationships, which in turn transform into

higher task performance and citizenship behaviours. Moreover, it was proposed that POP, conceptualised as self-centred activities at the cost of organisational performance, might work as a hindrance stressor on the translation of servant leaders' behaviours into high task performance and citizenship behaviours through social exchange indicators (trust and LMX).

As described above, servant leaders are highly concerned about the wellbeing and development of their followers. Studies have found significant positive relationships between servant leadership behaviours and employees' satisfaction (Donia et al., 2016), engagement (Klein, 2014), commitment (Miao et al., 2014), in-role performance and extra-role performance (Ehrhart, 2004; Liden et al., 2014). This study corroborates the findings of previous research, indicating that servant leader behaviours are generally positively accepted by their subordinates, which ultimately transforms into higher organisational performance.

Consistent with the prior research findings and expectations of this study, it was found that servant leadership is positively related to OCB and task performance. Theoretically, this relationship stems from the reciprocity norm; if a leader demonstrates high concern for the welfare of their followers, then theoretically followers should respond in a positive way in terms of good performance and citizenship behaviours. In addition, significant positive relationships were found between servant leadership and trust in supervisor, LMX and leader effectiveness. This indicates that servant leaders form high-quality social exchange relationships with their followers, which provide them an opportunity to work effectively in their position.

It is noted, however, that not all research is consistent with the current finding that servant leadership is associated with OCB. For example, a recent study conducted in Pakistan by Donia et al. (2016) found that servant leadership is unrelated to OCB. Consistent with Donia et

al., however, it is argued here that the possible reason for this null relationship might be the measurement of citizenship behaviours through supervisors. When OCB are measured through employees, it is likely that a more accurate measure will be obtained and consequently should be more likely to correlate with OCB. Indeed this is what was found in the current study. Nevertheless, future research is required to confirm the relationship reported in the current study.

Van Dierendonck (2011) proposed that trust and high-quality exchange relationships can be the possible mediators between servant leadership and employee performance. This proposition was a major hypothesis in the current thesis and was supported by the results of the quantitative study. It was found that trust in supervisor and LMX partially mediate the positive relationship between servant leadership and employees' task performance and OCB. As suggested in the introduction, therefore, it seems that the relationship between servant leadership and employee performance can be attributed to the high levels of trust and LMX experienced by employees who have servant leaders.

Organisational politics is a prevalent aspect in almost every organisational context, and the quantitative study in this thesis confirmed this was the case in a Pakistani organisation. The basic objective of political behaviour is to gain power and influence over others, which is considered as being important for the success of employees (Vigoda & Cohen, 2002). However, research shows that individuals who do not directly benefit from politics consider it to be counterproductive for the work environment (Ferris et al., 1989a). In corroboration with previous research findings (Abbas et al., 2014; Chang, Rosen, Siemieniec, & Johnson, 2012; Kapoutsis, Papalexandris, Nikolopoulos, Hochwarter, & Ferris, 2011; Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann, & Birjulin, 1999a), this study provides empirical support for the notion that POP negatively influences employees' task performance and OCB. Employees are of the view that, most of the

time, political activities are self-centred, negatively influencing their task performance and reducing citizenship behaviours directed either towards individuals or the organisation. However, in contrast to what was predicted, highly political cultures did not seem to break down the social exchange relationship between leaders and employees. On the contrary, it was found that trust in supervisor and LMX gain importance in environments where POP is high. Hence, it is evident that trust in supervisor and LMX, which stem from servant leadership, play an important role in achieving higher employee performance in a political environment.

Previous research findings (Poon, 2006), found that the positive relationship between trust in supervisor and employees' task performance, OCB-I and OCB-O were not present in highly political organisations. The current results are not consistent with this finding. Contrary to this, the beneficial effects of servant leadership on performance and OCB are enhanced in political environments (see Figures 11–13 for details). This indicates that, in political environments, it is essential that trust exists between leaders and employees. Alternatively, in situations where trust is low between leaders and employees, it is important that there are low perceived politics in the organisation.

The quantitative study also found that the moderating effect of POP on LMX was not significant for citizenship behaviours; however, it was significant for task performance. One possible explanation for these results relates to the fact that citizenship behaviours are purely discretionary in nature. Specifically, engaging in OCB, such as helping co-workers or promoting the positive image of the organisation, will be negatively affected by both low LMX and high politics; however, only performance will be affected by the interaction between these variables. This is because employees' task performance is low in a context with high POP when subordinates are in a low exchange relationship with their supervisor. However, employees' task

performance is high even in a high political environment when there is a high exchange relationship between subordinates and their supervisors. It seems logical that this occurs, because employees experiencing difficulties in undertaking their job responsibilities in highly political environments can turn to their supervisor for help. If they have a good relationship with their supervisor this will buffer the negative effect of POP.

The interaction effect of trust in leader and POP was significant on both task performance and citizenship behaviours. Previous research demonstrating that trust is a delicate phenomenon that needs to be handled with the utmost care and that once it is broken it takes a very long time to rebuild (Martins, 2002). Trust is considered as an essential element for all substantial social relationships (Blau, 1964). When employees perceive that political activities are prevailing in their surroundings, and the organisation is unable to curb these extra-legal activities, their trust starts shattering which negatively influences their task performance and citizenship behaviours. Failure to eradicate political activities therefore is a type of psychological contract breach by the organisation which diminishes employees' trust in their leaders and leads them to withdraw their contributions towards the organisation. Contrary to expectations, the reported findings demonstrate that employees' trust in their supervisor is important to motivate them to exert discretionary effort in high POP environments.

It was also found that servant leadership behaviours lead to a higher LMX relationship between supervisors and subordinates, which in turn transforms into higher task performance. This mediational mechanism was significant only when POP was high rather than low. Secondly, servant leadership behaviours lead to higher subordinates' trust in their leader, which in turn transforms into higher task performance. This mediational mechanism was significant only when POP was high rather than low. However, results did not support the indirect effect of servant

128

leadership behaviours on citizenship behaviours (OCB-I and OCB-O) through LMX and trust, both at high and low levels of POP (see Table 9). Collectively these findings suggest that employees who have a higher level of trust in their leader and a high LMX relationship are more likely to engage in higher task performance if they perceive that political activities are in abundance in their surroundings. These findings further illustrate that the relationship between social exchange indicators (LMX and trust) and task performance might not be as straightforward as assumed in the extant research, rather; contextual factors (perceived politics) might moderate this relationship.

7.4 Theoretical contributions

This study makes theoretical contributions to the leadership and organisational behaviour literature regarding servant leadership, trust, LMX, subordinates' performance and leader effectiveness. First, it was found in the first qualitative study that servant leadership behaviours were prevalent in a Pakistani organisation, and it was also confirmed that there was a high political organisational culture in the case organisation. As noted earlier, this represents an important theoretical contribution, as this study identified that servant leadership and organisational politics are equally important phenomena in non-western cultures as they are in western cultures. This provides support for the argument that these phenomena are not culture-specific, but rather relate to universal aspects in human behaviour. This is indeed consistent with the overarching theory of this thesis – social exchange theory – which has universal acceptance as a theory of behaviour and is not dependent on cultural norms.

Second, this study was undertaken in a very different population to the majority of research on servant leadership. The majority of studies on servant leadership have been carried out in western cultures such as North America and Australia. Of these numerous studies, many have found that servant leadership has a positive relationship with employee job satisfaction, commitment, task performance and citizenship behaviours. Only a few studies on servant leadership have been conducted in South Asian societies, for example Donia et al. (2016) and Chightai (2016). A major feature of the current research, therefore, is the fact that it was carried out in a very different context to the majority of research on this topic.

Third, servant leadership has received much attention in the leadership literature over the past few decades, but limited attention has been given to how servant leadership promotes positive employee attitudes and behaviours. This study answers calls from Senjaya and Pekerti (2010) and van Dierendonck (2011), who suggest future researchers investigate the relationship between servant leadership, trust, fairness, LMX and performance outcomes. Therefore, using the broader framework of SET, this study found that social exchange indicators (trust and LMX) are not only strong predictors of subordinates' task performance and OCB, but also act as the underlying mechanism between servant leadership and subordinates' task performance and OCB. These findings lend support to the importance of social exchange as a primary mechanism underlying the positive outcomes of servant leadership. High levels of both of the social exchange indicators (trust and LMX) indicate that this process motivates employees to exert higher levels of effort to go the extra-mile for their organisation and their co-workers.

Fourth, it is known from the literature that contextual factors have an influence on the effectiveness of leader behaviours, which is in line with the contingency theory of leadership (Fiedler, 1964). In Fiedler's model, leadership effectiveness is the outcome of the interaction

between leadership style and the workplace environment. This represents the importance of contextual factors which may influence a leader's effectiveness. Servant leaders are more likely to share all kinds of information with followers, have a higher trust in followers and disseminate power and incentives (Humphreys, 2005). A high political environment sometimes demands bold decisions in order to ameliorate organisational performance. Servant leaders who are high in altruism, have high moral standards and focus primarily on followers' needs fulfilment have the potential to develop high LMX relationships with their subordinates; likewise, subordinates have higher trust in leaders who exhibit servant leadership behaviours, which is more likely to positively influence employees' performance even in a high political environment. In line with this, the current study found that subordinates' trust and LMX get more importance in a high political environment where self-centred activities are in abundance.

Fifth, organisations that are high in politics are characterised by an environment focusing on self-serving, illegitimate and harmful activities for the organisation and its members (Hochwarter et al., 2002). This in turn hampers the development of the employee-organisation exchange relationship (Keeley, 1988; Rosen, 2006). Keeping in view the negative impact of organisational politics on positive employees' attitudes and behaviours, this study argued and verified that servant leaders are successful in building trust and developing high-quality exchange relationships, which ultimately transform into higher task performance and OCB-even if perceived politics is high in the workplace. Social exchange theory posits that individuals develop exchange relationships with others on the basis of their experiences and reciprocate in the same tone as they receive from others. Servant leaders are highly concerned about the wellbeing of their followers and believe in the development of the extended community. Individuals working under a servant leader, are in a high LMX relationship and have a higher

trust in their leader who is seen as high in ability, benevolence and integrity which are the building blocks of trustworthiness. Contrary to expectations, perceived politics did not break the social exchange relationships and results showed that employees working under servant leaders exhibit high task performance in high political environment. This indicates that servant leaders develop social exchange indicators (trust and LMX) with their employees which ultimately transforms into high task performance even in a high political environment.

7.5 Practical contributions

This research has several practical contributions for managers and practitioners. First, it is well-established in the literature that the positive relationship between leaders and employees positively predicts performance, and it is known that competence, benevolence and integrity (trustworthiness) predict trust. The current research has added to this literature by specifically demonstrating that servant leaders establish this positive relationship with subordinates by demonstrating high ability, benevolence and integrity. The current research also demonstrated that these characteristics of leaders induce their followers to consider them trustworthy. This finding reinforces previous research attesting to the importance of placing individuals in supervisory positions who are deemed as trustworthy in the eyes of employees in order to achieve higher organisational performance. It also demonstrates that servant leaders are particularly likely to be perceived as trustworthy and this provides HR managers a more specific set of qualities for which to look when appointing managers in positions requiring trust in subordinates.

Second, leaders are the true representatives of organisations, and a proximal source of interaction with employees on behalf of the organisation. Skarlicki and Latham (1996) found that

leaders can be trained to adopt fair and ethical manners. Hence, findings of this study have implications for practitioners in that they further demonstrate that a trainable set of characteristics (related to servant leadership) that are associated with a range of positive outcomes (trust, LMX, positive performance). Therefore, it is suggested that organisations seek to foster servant leader behaviours in managers and supervisors through specific training programs and targeted interventions. It is likely that enhancing servant leadership throughout organisations will transform into higher organisational performance.

Third, the current study demonstrated that high-quality exchange relationships between supervisors and subordinates were a major reason servant leaders are effective leaders. Therefore, supervisors who wish to enhance their subordinates' performance are encouraged to improve the quality of their exchange relationships with subordinates, which the current research found directly predicts positive subordinate outcomes. In addition, it is recommended that organisations incorporate supervisory mentoring programs in order to enhance person–supervisor fit, which is the building block of high-quality exchange relationships. This recommendation is consistent with Payne & Huffman, (2005) who proposed that organisations can offer training and guidance to ensure that supervisors have the necessary skills required for effective mentorship which play a key role in developing supervisor-subordinate relationship.

Fourth, the current research demonstrated that servant leadership behaviours are important in highly political environments. It is therefore recommended that high political organisations need to focus more heavily on employing servant leaders than non-political organisations because high political organisations are at risk of lower employee task performance and OCB which adversely influences the overall goals of the organisation. Servant leaders are concerned about the wellbeing of their subordinates which helps in developing social exchange

133

relationships with followers, which translate into positive employee attitudes and behaviours. However, high political environments in organisations adversely influence employee attitudes and behaviours and leader effectiveness. Such a political environment demands some bold steps in order to buffer the negative impact of politics on employees' performance and a leader's effectiveness. Therefore, organisations are encouraged to keep in mind the contextual environment when making important decisions and to focus on developing a servant leadership culture to buffer the negative effect of politics inside the organisation.

7.6 Limitations and future research directions

This thesis makes valuable theoretical and practical contributions; however, there are a few limitations associated with this thesis that are worth mentioning here. First, the objective of the qualitative study was to explore the existence of servant leadership behaviours and POP, using a qualitative study to provide in-depth information about the participants' views. Nonetheless, the exploratory nature of this study confines its generalisability to the participants only, which curtails the scope of the study.

Second, confidentiality of data was assured by the researcher; however, a few participants seemed reluctant to disclose information about their supervisors and political activities in the organisation; this may contaminate the findings of the qualitative study. Bearing in mind the above described weaknesses, it is recommended that future researchers further explore the concepts of this study in different industries by using different research designs.

Some limitations are specifically associated with the quantitative phase of this thesis. First, this study used a convenience sampling approach to collect quantitative data, which creates issues about the representativeness of the sample and therefore confines the generalisability of

the findings. Future researchers are encouraged to gather larger samples of data by using other sampling techniques.

Second, common method variance (CMV) can be a potential problem which may inflate the results, even though data were collected from two different sources, for example data on servant leadership, trust in leader, LMX, POP and leader effectiveness were collected from subordinates, while data on task performance and OCB were collected from supervisors. It is recommended that future researchers collect data from other stakeholders, for example students, while measuring employees' performance and leader effectiveness in educational institutions, as students are the most important stakeholders of educational institutions.

Third, in this study data were collected from a single public-sector educational institution from Pakistan, which might hamper the generalisability of the study; the findings might be prone to cultural bias because Pakistan is a high collectivist and high power distance society (Hofstede, 1984). Being a high collectivistic and high power distance society, subordinates in Pakistan are more likely to give a biased (positively) opinion about their supervisor which might contaminate the overall findings. Therefore, future researchers are encouraged to test this model in other cultural settings.

Lastly, this study was conducted in the educational sector. As such, the findings might not translate to the commercial sector because servant leadership behaviours may not be perceived similarly in a university as in a manufacturing firm, a consulting company or a charity organisation (Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010). Future studies should consider other industry setups to test this model.

7.7 Conclusion

This thesis aimed to investigate the underlying mechanism between servant leadership and subordinates' task performance and OCB. In addition, it was also hypothesised that POP works as a hindrance stressor and negatively influences the positive impact of servant leadership on subordinates' task performance and OCB through social exchange indicators (trust and LMX). In order to answer the overarching research question two studies were conducted. The first study (a qualitative study) was conducted to explore the existence of servant leadership behaviours and POP in the focal organisation. Results showed that POP is high in the focal organisation and most of the supervisors exhibit some level of servant leadership behaviours in the workplace.

The second study (a quantitative study) was conducted to empirically test the proposed relationships between servant leadership and employees' task performance and OCB via social exchange indicators (trust and LMX) in a political organisational environment. This study confirmed that servant leadership has a positive impact on subordinates' trust in a leader and LMX, which results in higher task performance and OCB. Results further revealed that trust in a leader and LMX partially mediate the positive relationship between servant leadership and outcome variables. It was also found that POP moderates the indirect relationship between servant leadership and subordinates' task performance. However, POP does not moderate the indirect relationship between servant leadership and OCB.

These two studies demonstrate the importance of contextual factors and their impact on the leader's effectiveness and subordinates' performance. These studies suggest important theoretical and practical contributions for the servant leadership and organisational politics

literature. Despite its limitations, this thesis offers important insight into the understanding of servant leadership in a collectivistic country.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Interviews protocols

Subordinates interview questions

Q 1. What is your current position in this organisation?

    a) How long have you been working for this organisation?

    b) How long have you been in your current position?

    c) What are your major responsibilities in your current position?

Leadership style

Q 2. How do you get on with your supervisor?

    a) To what extent does your supervisor care about your needs?

    b) How does this affect your performance? Any example?

    c) How helpful is your supervisor when you have some difficulties at work?

    d) To what extent is your supervisor informed about what is going on in the workplace?

    e) Optimistic persons always look on the bright side of the things. Do you think that your

    supervisor is an optimistic person? How so? Any example.

    f) Does your supervisor assist others in society and community outside the organisation?

    g) Servant leaders place the good of others above their self-interest and are interested in

    the development of people and society in large. To what extent does your supervisor exhibit

    servant leadership behaviours? Examples

Trust in Leader

Q 3. Trust represents the "willingness to be vulnerable" and reflects a person's intention to

    "act on the basis of the words, actions and decisions of another".

    a) How important is trust to you?

Q 4. To what extent is your supervisor trustworthy?

  a) Do you trust your supervisor? Why? Why not?

  b) Can you think of a time you lost trust in your supervisor?

  c) How was trust lost?

  d) Did you try to regain trust in your supervisor?

  e) Was trust regained? If yes, how so?

LMX

Q 5. How would you describe your relationship with your supervisor? Good/Not good?

  a) Do you think that your supervisor treats all of his/her subordinates in the same way?

  b) How does that make you feel?

Perceptions of Politics

Q 6. Organisational politics is defined as "informal, parochial, typically divisive and illegitimate behaviours aimed at displacing legitimate power" and social influence behaviours strategically designed to maximise self-interest.

  a) What kind of politics happens in this organisation? Example?

  b) How political is the overall environment in this organisation?

  c) Do you think that politics in this organisation influences overall goals of organisation?

  d) If yes, how?

  e) Is there a yes-man culture in this organisation, are new ideas appreciated?

  f) How fair is the pay and promotion policy in this organisation?

  g) Do you think that rules are followed during pay and promotion or often violated?

  h) Do you think that top management breaks the rules on pay and promotion sometimes?

  i) Any example you want to share?

Leader Effectiveness

Q 7. How would you describe your supervisor's effectiveness in their current position?

a) Does he/she represent their group in an effective way? How?

b) How capable is your supervisor in terms of his/her job responsibilities?

c) In which aspects is he/she more capable and less capable?

d) Explain with examples please?

e) To what extent does your supervisor meet the deadlines? Any example?

f) Any distinction your supervisor has brought to your department?

Supervisors interview questions

Q 1. What is your current position in this organisation?

a) How long have you been working for this organisation?

b) How long have you been in your current position?

c) Did you work at this organisation prior to your supervisor/leadership position?

d) If so, what was that position?

e) What are your major responsibilities in your current position?

f) How many individuals report to you?

Performance Questions

Q 2. How satisfied are you with the performance of your subordinates?

a) To what extent do your subordinates go for an extra mile for you?

b) Do they like to go an extra mile without any extra gain?

c) Why do they go for an extra mile? And why not?

d) Any example?

Q 3. How adequately do your subordinates perform their job responsibilities?

a) Are you satisfied with their duties?

b) To what extent they have the essential skills for performing their duties?

c) Do they perform their assigned duties in time? How often they are punctual?

d) Any suggestions from you to enhance their performance?

e) What actions do you take against the least performers?

f) How does this affect their future performance?

g) Any example you want to share?

Perceptions of Politics

Q 4. Organisational politics is defined as "informal, parochial, typically divisive and illegitimate behaviours aimed at displacing legitimate power" and social influence behaviours strategically designed to maximise self-interest.

a) What kind of politics happens in this organisation? Example

b) How political is the overall environment in this organisation?

c) Do you think that politics in this organisation influences the overall goals of the organisation?

d) If yes, how?

e) Is there a yes-man culture in this organisation, are new ideas appreciated?

f) How fair is the pay and promotion policy in this organisation?

g) Do you think that rules are followed during pay and promotion or often violated?

h) Do you think that top management breaks the rules on pay and promotion sometimes?

i) Any example you want to share?

j) How would you describe your effectiveness in the current position?

k) Do you think that you represent your group in an effective way? How?

l) Do you think that your subordinates undertake self-serving activities most often?

m) How does this affect your performance?

n) Do you like politics within the organisation? Why and why not?

o) How can the self-serving activities be reduced in the organisation?

Subordinates survey questionnaire

SECTION ONE: SERVANT LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS

Instructions:

Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 5.

Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Altruistic calling					
1. This person puts my best interests ahead of his/her own.	1	2	3	4	5
2. This person does everything he/she can to serve me.	1	2	3	4	5
3. This person sacrifices his/her own interests to meet my needs.	1	2	3	4	5
4. This person goes above and beyond the call of duty to meet my needs.	1	2	3	4	5
Emotional healing	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. This person is one I would turn to if I had a personal trauma.	1	2	3	4	5
2. This person is good at helping me with my emotional issues.	1	2	3	4	5
3. This person is talented at helping me to heal emotionally.	1	2	3	4	5
4. This person is one that could help me mend my hard feelings.	1	2	3	4	5
Wisdom	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. This person seems alert to what's happening.	1	2	3	4	5
2. This person is good at anticipating the consequences of decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
3. This person has great awareness of what is going on.	1	2	3	4	5
4. This person seems in touch with what is happening.	1	2	3	4	5
5. This person seems to know what is going to happen	1	2	3	4	5
Persuasive mapping	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. This person offers compelling reasons to get me to do things.	1	2	3	4	5
2. This person encourages me to dream "big dreams" about the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
3. This person is very persuasive.	1	2	3	4	5
4. This person is good at convincing me to do things.	1	2	3	4	5
5. This person is gifted when it comes to persuading me.	1	2	3	4	5
Organisational stewardship	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Neutral**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
1. This person believes that the organisation needs to play a moral role in society.	1	2	3	4	5
2. This person believes that our organisation needs to function as a community.	1	2	3	4	5
3. This person sees the organisation for its potential to contribute to society.	1	2	3	4	5
4. This person encourages me to have a community spirit in the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
5. This person is preparing the organisation to make a positive difference in the future.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION TWO: TRUST IN LEADER/SUPERVISOR

Instructions:

Please indicate how willing are you to engage in each of the behaviours with your leader/supervisor

Items	Not at all willing				Completely willing	
1. Rely on your leader's work-related judgements.	1 2 3		4		5	6
	7					
2. Rely on your leader's task-related skills and abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
3. Depend on your leader to handle an important issue on your behalf.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
4. Rely on your leader to represent your work accurately to others.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
5. Depend on your leader to back you up in difficult situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
6. Share your personal feelings with your leader.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7

7. Confide in your leader about personal issues that are affecting your work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
8. Discuss how you honestly feel about your work, even negative feelings and frustration.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
9. Discuss work-related problems or difficulties that could potentially be used to disadvantage you.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
10. Share your personal beliefs with your leader.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

SECTION THREE: LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE (LMX) RELATIONSHIP

Instructions:

Read each description below and tell us the extent to which it describes your relationship with your department leader/supervisor using the scale provided.

Items	**Not at all**	**To a limited extent**	**To some extent**	**To a considerable extent**	**To a greater extent**
1. I usually know how satisfied my manager is with what I do.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
2. I feel that my manager understands my problems and needs.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
3. I feel that my manager recognises my potential.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
4. If necessary, my manager would use his or her power and influence to help me.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
5. I can count on my manager to support me even when I'm in a tough situation at work.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
6. I would support my manager's decisions even if he or she was not present.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
7. I have an effective working relationship with my manager.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

SECTION FOUR: PERCEPTIONS OF POLITICS (POP)

Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 5.

General political behaviours	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly
1. People in this organisation attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down.	1	2	3	4	5
2. There has always been an influential group in this department that no one ever crosses.	1	2	3	4	5
Go along to get ahead	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly
3. Employees are encouraged to speak out even if they are critical of well-established ideas. (R).	1	2	3	4	5
4. There is no place for "yes-men" around here. Good ideas are desired even when it means disagreeing with superiors. (R).	1	2	3	4	5
5. Agreeing with powerful others is the best alternative at this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
6. It is best not to rock the boat at this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Sometimes it is better to remain quiet than to fight the system.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling them the truth.	1	2	3	4	5
9. It is safer to think what you are told than to make up your own mind.	1	2	3	4	5
Pay and promotion policies	Disagree Strongly	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Agree Strongly
10. Since I have worked in this organisation, I have never seen pay and promotion policies applied politically. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
11. I can't remember when a person received a pay increase or promotion that was inconsistent with the published policies. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
12. The stated pay and promotion policies have nothing to	1	2	3	4	5

do with actual pay and promotions.					
13. When it comes to pay and promotions, policies are irrelevant.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Promotions around here are not valued much because how they are determined is so political.	1	2	3	4	5
15. None of the raises I have received are consistent with policies on how raises should be determined.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION FIVE: LEADER EFFECTIVENESS

Instructions:

Indicate how effective you think that your leader is. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 5.

Items	Not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Very much so
1. Your supervisor is effective in representing you to higher authorities.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Your supervisor is effective in meeting your job-related needs.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Your supervisor is effective in meeting organisational requirement.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Overall, your supervisor leads a group that is effective.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION FIVE: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

YOUR PERSONAL DETIALS		
Age _____ years	**Department**	**Industry / Sector**
	☐ Production / Operation	
	☐ Research & Development	☐ Agriculture
Gender	☐ Accounting & Finance	☐ Banking
☐ Female	☐ HRM	☐ Construction
☐ Male	☐ Sales & Marketing	☐ Food & Beverages
	☐ Administration	☐ Media
Marital Status _____	☐ Public Relations	☐ Manufacturing
	☐ Transport	☐ Hospital/Pharmacy
Formal Education	☐ Others (Please Specify)	☐ Telecommunication
	_____	☐ Education
☐ High School		☐ Others (Please Specify)
☐ Intermediate	**Designation/position in organisation**	_____
☐ Bachelors	☐ Executive	
☐ Masters		
☐ M. Phil	☐ Middle Management	
☐ Doctorate		**Tenure with supervisor ——— Years**
	☐ First line manager	
	☐ Non-Management	

Thank you very much for your participation

Appendix C

Supervisor survey questionnaire

SECTION ONE: ORGANISATION CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOURS (OCB)

Instructions:

Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 5.

1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Seldom, 4=Occasionally, 5=Often.

Please write the name of each employee at the top of the columns and write the number under employee's name.

This person……………

Items	Name of Employees				
OCB-I					
1. Help others who have been absent.					
2. Willingly give his/her time to help others who have work-related problems.					
3. Adjust his/her work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.					
4. Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.					
5. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward co-workers, Even under the most trying business or personal situations.					
6. Give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems.					
7. Assist others with their duties.					
8. Share personal property with others to help their work.					
OCB-O					
1. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organisational image.					
2. Keep up with developments in the organisation.					
3. Defend the organisation when other employees criticise it.					
4. Show pride when representing the organisation in public.					
5. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organisation.					
6. Express loyalty toward the organisation.					

7. Take action to protect the organisation from potential problems.					
8. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organisation.					

SECTION TWO: TASK PERFORMANCE

Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling a number from 1 to 5.

1=Never, 2=Rarely, 3=Seldom, 4=Occasionally, 5=Often.

Please write the name of each employee at the top of the columns and write the number under employee's name.

This person………….

Task performance items	Name of Employees				
1. Adequately complete assigned duties.					
2. Fulfil the responsibilities specified in his/her job description.					
3. Perform the tasks that are expected of him/her.					
4. Meet formal performance requirements for his/her job.					
5. Engage in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.					
6. Neglect aspects of his/her job he/she is obligated to perform. (Reverse scored).					
7. Fail to perform essential duties. (Reverse scored).					

SECTION FIVE: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

YOUR PERSONAL DETIALS

Age _____ years

Gender

☐ Female

☐ Male

Marital Status _____

Formal Education

☐ High School

☐ Intermediate

☐ Bachelors

☐ Masters

☐ M. Phil

☐ Doctorate

Department

☐ Production / Operation

☐ Research & Development

☐ Accounting & Finance

☐ HRM

☐ Sales & Marketing

☐ Administration

☐ Public Relations

☐ Transport

☐ Others (Please Specify)

_____

Designation/position in organisation

☐ Executive

☐ Middle Management

☐ First line manager

☐ Non-Management

Industry / Sector

☐ Agriculture

☐ Banking

☐ Construction

☐ Food & Beverages

☐ Media

☐ Manufacturing

☐ Hospital/Pharmacy

☐ Telecommunication

☐ Education

☐ Others (Please Specify)

_____

Tenure with organisation ——— Years

Thank you very much for your participation

Appendix D

RESEARCH TEAM

Principal Researcher: Mohammad Nisar, PhD Student, QUT.

Associate Researcher: A/Prof. Roxanne Zolin And Senior Lecturer Peter O'Connor.

QUT Business School, Queensland University of Technology (QUT).

DESCRIPTION

This project is being undertaken as part of a PhD study for Mohammad Nisar. The purpose of this study is to explore the underlying mechanism between servant leadership behaviours and employees' performance. It is proposed that social exchange indicators (trust and LMX) work as exchange deepener between servant leadership and employees' performance. In addition, this study tends to explore the moderating impact of perception of politics within the organisation on social exchange obligations and servant leader effectiveness. You are cordially invited to participate in this study because you are either a supervisor or a person directly reports to supervisor employed at International Islamic University Islamabad.

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. If you do not agree to participate, you can withdraw from the study without any comment or penalty. If you withdraw, on request, any identifiable information already obtained from you, will be destroyed. Your participation will involve an audio recording (optional) during interview at your office or other agreed location which will take approximately 30-45 minutes of your time. You will be asked about your supervisor' leadership style, effectiveness, trust in supervisor, relationship with supervisor and politics in your department.

Secondly, your direct supervisors will also be interviewed. They will be asked about their subordinates' performance, relationship with employees and political behaviours in the organisation.

Your decision to participate or not participate in this study will in no way impact upon any relationship with Queensland University of Technology or with the International Islamic University Islamabad.

EXPECTED BENEFITS

It is expected that this project will not directly benefit you in short-run; on the other hand it may be beneficial for you and International Islamic University Islamabad in the long run regarding how to maintain harmonious relationship between supervisor and direct reports. Apart from this, you will be provided the results of this qualitative study on your request in hard or soft copies as you wish. Results of this study will be available at the end of first quarter of 2016.

RISKS

I believe that there are minimal risks associated with your participation in this study. The researcher recognises, however, that for some individuals, talking about their supervisor leadership capabilities may potentially cause some minor discomforts. In this case if you experience any sort of discomfort as a result of your participation, you can withdraw at any time without judgement or penalty.

PRIVACY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

The names of participants in this project are not required in any kind of your responses. The interviews will be audio recorded only after your consent. However, you can choose to participate without being recorded, in that case taking notes option will be adopted. All audio recordings will be destroyed at the end of the study. You can verify your comments and responses given in the interviews before the final inclusion. All comments and responses will be treated confidentially, accessed only by the research team.

This study is partially funded by Queensland University of Technology but the data obtained for this qualitative study will only be accessed by the research team. Audio recorded data will be transcribed by the researcher and ultimately be destroyed. Electronic data will be stored in QUT server and researcher's personal (office) computer and protected with a password known only by the researcher. Hard copies data will be stored in locked filling cabinet in locked room (Z701) at QUT GP campus.

Please note that non-identifiable data collected in this project may be used as comparative data in future projects.

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

I would like to ask you to sign a written consent form (enclosed) to confirm your agreement to participate.

QUESTIONS / FURTHER INFORMATION ABOUT THE PROJECT

If you have any questions or require further information please contact one of the research team members below.

School of Management – QUT Business School

Name: Mohammad Nisar (Researcher)   Name: Roxanne Zolin (A/Prof)

Phone: +617 3138 6688   Phone: +61 7 3138 5092

Email: Mohammad.nisar@connect.qut.edu.au   Email: r.zolin@qut.edu.au

CONCERNS / COMPLAINTS REGARDING THE CONDUCT OF THE PROJECT

QUT is committed to research integrity and the ethical conduct of research projects. However, if you do have any concerns or complaints about the ethical conduct of the project you may contact the QUT Research Ethics Unit on [+61 7] 3138 5123 or email ethicscontact@qut.edu.au. The QUT Research Ethics Unit is not connected with the research project and can facilitate a resolution to your concern in an impartial manner.

Thank you for helping with this research project. Please keep this sheet for your information.

	CONSENT FORM FOR QUT RESEARCH PROJECT
QUT Queensland University of Technolog Brisbane Australia	**– Interview –**
	Give good, get good? Do servant leadership behaviours work in a political organisational culture? **QUT Ethics Approval Number =1500000835**

RESEARCH TEAM CONTACTS

School of Management – QUT Business School

Mohammad Nisar(researcher)   +61 7 3138 6688

A/Prof Roxanne Zolin (supervisor)   +61 7 3138 5092

STATEMENT OF CONSENT

By signing below, you are indicating that you:

By signing below, you are indicating that you:

- have read and understood the information document regarding this project
- have had any questions answered to your satisfaction
- understand that if you have any additional questions you can contact the research team
- understand that you are free to withdraw at any time, without comment or penalty
- understand that you can contact the Research Ethics Unit on +61 7 3138 5123 or email ethicscontact@qut.edu.au if you have concerns about the ethical conduct of the project
- understand that potentially re-identifiable data collected in this project may be used as comparative data in future projects
- agree to participate in the project

Please tick the relevant box below:

☐ I agree for the interview to be audio recorded
☐ I do not agree for the interview to be audio recorded

Name   _____

Signature   _____

Date   _____

Please return this sheet to the investigator.

Appendix E

Permission letter for interviews

INTERNATIONAL ISLAMIC UNIVERSITY, ISLAMABAD
(Office of the Director (Academics)
Telephone 9257918 Fax. 9257915
EMAIL: shagufta.haroon@iiu.edu.pk

No.IIU/D(Acad)-01/2008- 273   Dated:- 31-08-2015

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Subject:- Research Collaboration

This is to certify that Mr. Mohammad Nisar, doctoral candidate at Queensland University of Technology Brisbane Australia, is completely authorized and supported to conduct his study at International Islamic University Islamabad Pakistan. The title of his study is **"Give good, get good? Do servant leadership behaviors work in a political organizational culture"?**

We understand that Mr. Nisar wishes to conduct interviews with employees of different administrative departments at International Islamic University Islamabad as required for his study.

This document is being issued upon the request of Mr. Nisar.

(SHAGUFTA HAROON)
Director (Academics)

Appendix F

Permission letter for surveys

INTERNATIONAL ISLAMIC UNIVERSITY ISLAMABAD
(Office of the Director (Academics))
Telephone 0092-51- 9257918 Fax.0092-51- 9257915
Email: dir-acad@iiu.edu.pk

IIU/D(Acad)-52/2008- 236   Dated:- 26-05-2016

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that Mr. Mohammad Nisar, doctoral candidate at Queensland University of Technology Brisbane Australia, is completely authorized and supported to conduct his study at International Islamic University Islamabad Pakistan. The title of his study is **"Give good, get good? Do servant leadership behaviors work in a political organizational culture"**?

We understand that Mr. Nisar wishes to conduct surveys with employees of different administrative departments as required for his study.

This document is being issued upon the request of Mr. Nisar

If you have any further enquiries please do not hesitate to contact us.

With regards.

(Professor Dr. Muhammad Tahir Khalily)
Director (Academics)

Director (Academics)
International Islamic University,
Islamabad (Pakistan)