THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SERVANT LEADERSHIP, FOLLOWER TRUST, TEAM COMMITMENT AND UNIT EFFECTIVENESS

ZANI DANNHAUSER

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Promoter: Prof. A. B. Boshoff

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this dissertation is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

Signature: ____________________________________

Z. Dannhauser

Date: ____________________________________

ABSTRACT

A study of the literature revealed that the content and the structure of several constructs that are used in research in the framework of Positive Organisational Behaviour are subject to doubt. It also became clear that the relationship between the constructs (servant leadership, trust, team commitment, and unit effectiveness) could profitably be investigated further. A study to obtain more clarity about these aspects was therefore planned and executed. In order to conduct this exploratory survey research, an electronic web-based questionnaire was used as the method of data gathering. The questionnaire was programmed and posted for a period of three weeks on the portal of the company where the survey was conducted. A total of 531 respondents from the vehicle sales division of the particular organisation participated in the study. Sales persons (n=417) who were working in 100 dealerships in the automobile business completed three questionnaires. The three questionnaires were the rater version of the *Servant Leadership Questionnaire* of Barbuto and Wheeler (a self-report version also exists), the *Workplace Trust Survey* developed by Ferres, the *Team Commitment Survey* of Bennett. The sales persons assessed the level of servant leadership of their superiors (sales managers) and their own levels of trust and of team commitment. The sales managers (n=114) assessed the effectiveness of the sales persons who reported to them by completing the *Team Effectiveness Questionnaire* developed by Larson and LaFasto. The Directors who were responsible for the marketing of the products of the organisation completed an internal questionnaire on the performance of the sales function in the dealerships. Answers were sought to five research questions, dealing with the content of the constructs, their configurations, their interrelations and biographic and organisational variables that could possibly have an influence on the constructs.

The content and structure of the constructs that were measured by the questionnaires is where possible investigated by means of confirmatory factor analysis and exploratory factor analysis. These analyses indicated that the content of the Barbuto and Wheeler instrument was the same as that proposed by the developers but that the configuration of the measurements differed from what was in this connection found in the United States of America. The same finding was made with regard to the Ferres instrument for the measuring of trust. In the case of

Bennett's questionnaire for the measurement of team commitment it was found that the content as well as the configuration of the measure differed from the findings of the author of the instrument. The Larson and LaFasto instrument's structure and content, when applied to the respondents of the present study, appeared to be similar to what was found in the USA.

To determine the relationships between the variables Pearson product-moment correlation, multiple regression, ANOVA, and discriminant analysis were used. Two structural equation models were built to test the relationships between the elements of servant leadership, trust, and team commitment. Satisfactory fit of the models on the data was obtained. The results of the different analyses indicated that strong relations existed between some of the variables. The relationship between aspects of servant leadership, trust and team commitment of sales persons was clearly shown by the results of the statistical analysis. In contrast to the original expectation no relationship between team effectiveness and the other variables were found.

The contribution of the study to the existing theory is seen in the greater clarity about the portability of the constructs and the instruments that are used for measuring the concepts, as well as in the findings regarding the pattern of relationships between servant leadership, trust, and team commitment. Cross validation of the results is recommended and longitudinal studies for future research proposed.

OPSOMMING

‘n Studie van die literatuur het aan die lig gebring dat die inhoud en struktuur van verskeie konstrukte wat in navorsing binne die raamwerk van Positiewe Organisatoriese Gedrag gebruik word aan twyfel onderhewig is. Dit het ook duidelik geword dat die verwantskap tussen die konstrukte (dienende leierskap, vertroue, spanbetrokkenheid, en eenheidseffektiwiteit) verdere ondersoek regverdig. ‘n Studie om meer duidelikheid oor hierdie aspekte te verkry is dus beplan en uitgevoer. Data vir hierdie verkennende opnamenavorsing is versamel deur middel van ‘n elektroniese webgebaseerde-vraelys. Die vraelys is geprogrammeer en vir ‘n tydperk van drie weke op die portaal van die organisasie geplaas waar die opname gedoen is. ‘n Totaal van 531 respondente van die motorverkope afdeling van die betrokke organisasie het aan hierdie studie deelgeneem. Drie vraelyste is deur 417 verkoopspersone, wat in 100 handelaarskappe in die motorbedryf werksaam was, voltooi. Hierdie vraelyste is die beoordelaarsvorm van die *Servant Leadership Questionnaire* van Barbuto en Wheeler, die *Workplace Trust Survey* wat deur Ferres ontwikkel is, die *Team Commitment Survey* van Bennett. Die verkoopspersone het die vlak van dienende leierskap van hul hoofde (verkoopsbestuurders) en hul eie vlak van vertroue en van spanbetrokkenheid beoordeel. Die verkoopsbestuurders (n=114) het die effektiwiteit van die verkoopspanne wat aan hulle rapporteer beoordeel deur die *Team Effectiveness Questionnaire* van Larson en LaFasto te voltooi. Die direkteure wat vir die bemarking van die produkte van die organisasie verantwoordelik is, het ‘n interne vraelys oor die funksionering van die verkoopsfunksie in die handelaarskappe voltooi. Antwoorde is gesoek op vyf navorsingsvrae wat gehandel het oor die inhoud van die konstrukte, hul konfigurasies, hul onderlinge verwantskappe en biografiese en organisatoriese veranderlikes wat moontlik ‘n invloed op die konstrukte kon hê. Die inhoud en struktuur van die konstrukte wat deur die vraelyste gemeet is, is waar moontlik deur middel van bevestigende faktorontleding en eksploratiewe faktorontleding ondersoek.

Hierdie ontledings het aangedui dat die Barbuto en Wheeler instrument se inhoud dieselfde is as wat die opstellers vasgestel het maar dat die konfigurasie van die metings verskil van wat in die Verenigde State van Amerika in hierdie verband bevind is. Dieselfde bevinding is gemaak met betrekking tot die Ferres instrument vir die meting van vertroue. In die geval van Bennett se vraelys vir die meting van spanbetrokkenheid is gevind dat die inhoud sowel as die konfigurasie van die meting verskil van die bevindings van die opsteller van die instrument. Die Larson en LaFasto instrument se struktuur en inhoud het, wanneer toegepas op die huidige studie se respondente, ooreengekom met wat in die VSA in hierdie verband gevind is.

Om die verwantskappe tussen die veranderlikes vas te stel is van Pearson produk-moment korrelasie, meervoudige regressie, ANOVA en diskriminantontleding gebruik gemaak. Twee struktuurvergelyking modelle van die verwantskappe tussen die elemente van dienende leierskap, vertroue en spanbetrokkenheid is gebou en getoets. Bevredigende passings van die modelle op die data is verkry. Die resultate van die verskillende ontledings het aangetoon dat daar sterk verwantskappe tussen sommige van die veranderlikes bestaan het. Die verwantskap tussen aspekte van dienende leierskap, vertroue en spanbetrokkenheid van verkoopsmense is duidelik deur die resultate van die statistiese ontledings illustreer. In teenstelling met die oorspronklike verwagting was daar nie 'n verband tussen spaneffektiwiteit en die ander veranderlikes gevind nie.

Die bydrae van die studie tot die bestaande teorie word gesien in die groter duidelikheid oor die oordraagbaarheid van konstrukte en die meetinstrumente wat vir die meting daarvan gebruik word asook in die bevindings oor die patroon van verwantskappe tussen dienende leierskap, vertroue, en spanbetrokkenheid. Kruisvalidasie van die resultate word aanbeveel en longitudinale studies vir toekomstige navorsing voorgestel.

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What we call the beginning is often the end, and to make an end is to make a beginning. The end is where we start from … yet we shall not cease from exploration. And the end of all our exploring will be to arrive where we started – And know the place for the first time.

Adapted from T.S. Elliot

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

Declaration ii

Abstract iii

Opsomming v

Acknowledgements vii

Table of contents x

Acronyms and abbreviations xiii

List of tables xv

List of figures xviii

List of appendices xx

Chapter 1: The problem and its setting **1**

1.1 Introduction and problem statement 1

1.2 Theoretical framework for the research 9

1.3 The history and notion of servant leadership 12

1.4 Towards a definition of servant leadership 18

1.5 The variable of trust and its definitions 30

1.6 The variable team commitment and its definitions 44

1.7 The reason for, and contribution of, investigating the relationship between servant leadership behaviour, trust, team commitment, and unit effectiveness 54

1.8 Structure of chapters 56

Chapter 2: Literature review **59**

2.1 Introduction 59

2.2 Major leadership theories and the servant leadership model 66

2.3 Overview of major leadership theories: Past, present, and emerging research on leadership studies 67

2.4 Clarifying servant leadership 99

Page

2.5 Previous research on servant leadership: Antecedents, correlates, and variables of servant leadership 127
2.6 Previous research on servant leadership: Models and measures 132
2.7 Addressing servant leadership at the organisational and individual level: Measuring instruments 149
2.8 The necessity for further and continued research in the domain of servant leadership 156
2.9 Summary of the leadership construct 158
2.10 Trust theory 158
2.11 Commitment theory 184
2.12 Team commitment 200
2.13 Measures of commitment 211
2.14 Summary of the commitment construct 215
2.15 The construct unit effectiveness 216
2.16 Conclusions and theoretical support based on the literature review 230
2.17 Research questions and propositions 231

Chapter 3: Research methodology 235

3.1 Introduction 235
3.2 Overview of research design 235
3.3 Sample design and participants 236
3.4 Measuring instruments 241
3.5 Procedure 255
3.6 Summary 269

Chapter 4: Presentation of results 270

4.1 Introduction 270
4.2 Investigation of the servant leadership construct and questionnaire (SLQ) 270
4.3 Examination of the trust construct and Workplace Trust Questionnaire (WTS) 286

Page

4.4 Examination of the team commitment construct and Team Commitment Survey (TCS) 301
4.5 Examination of the team effectiveness construct and questionnaire (TEQ) 316
4.6 Testing of relationships between POB variables (Research question 2) 327
4.7 Testing of relationships between POB variables and unit effectiveness (Research question 3) 333
4.8 Testing the relationship between POB variables, biographical, and organisational variables (Research question 4) 336
4.9 Building a model of relationships among the study variables (Research question 5) 342
4.10 Summary 350

Chapter 5: Discussions, conclusions, contributions, limitations, and recommendations 351

5.1 Introduction 351
5.2 Discussion and conclusions of the main findings 351
5.3 Contributions of the study 366
5.4 Limitations and shortcomings of the present study 369
5.5 Recommendations 375
5.6 Concluding remarks 382

References 384

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACS	Affective Commitment Scale
AGFI	Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index
AL	Authentic Leadership
BARS	Behavioural Anchored Rating Scale
BOS	Behavioural Observation Scale
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CLC	Corporate Leadership Council
CSM	Covariance Structure Modelling
ECVI	Expected Cross-Validation Index
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EI	Emotional Intelligence
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
GOF	Goodness of Fit
HR	Human Resources
I/O	Industrial and Organisational
IFI	Incremental Fit Index
ISR	International Survey Research
ITS	Interpersonal Trust Scale
LMX	Leader- member Exchange Theory
NFI	Normed Fit Index
OB	Organisational Behaviour
OC	Organisational Commitment
OCB	Organisation Citizen Behaviour
OCQ	Organisational Commitment Questionnaire
OCS	Organisational Commitment Scale
OLA	Organisational Leadership Assessment
OTI	Organisational Trust Inventory
PAI	Psychological Attachment Instrument
PFA	Principal Factor Analysis
PMR	Root Mean Residual
POB	Positive Organisational Behaviour

POS	Perceived Organisational Support
POS	Positive Organisational Scholarship
PTS	Perceived Team Support
RFI	Relative Fit Index
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SL	Servant Leadership
SLAI	Servant Leadership Assessment Instrument
SLM	Situational Leadership Model
SLQ	Servant Leadership Questionnaire
SOLA	Servant Organisational Leadership Assessment
TC	Team Commitment
TCB	Team Citizenship Behaviour
TCS	Team Commitment Survey
TEQ	Team Effectiveness Questionnaire
WTS	Workplace Trust Survey

LIST OF TABLES, FIGURES AND APPENDICES

List of tables

Page

Table 2.1 Assumptions about human nature that underlie McGregor’s Theory X and Theory Y 73
Table 2.2 Comparison of transformational and servant leadership attributes 124
Table 2.3 Operational themes of servant leadership 134
Table 2.4 Servant leadership attributes: Functional and accompanying 135
Table 2.5 A conceptual framework for measuring servant leadership 139
Table 2.6 Dimensions, sub-dimensions, and behavioural attributes associated with servant leadership 145
Table 2.7 Theoretical approaches to studying trust 161
Table 3.1 Employee figures for the period December 2005 237
Table 3.2 Mean item scores, standard deviations (SD), reliabilities (α), and split-half reliabilities *(rho)* for WTS 248
Table 3.3 Alpha coefficients for the research scales 254
Table 4.1 FIT INDICES obtained from CFA of original structure of SLQ (N=417) 271
Table 4.2 FIT INDICES obtained from CFA of original structure on the 23 individual items of the SLQ (N=417) 274
Table 4.3 Structure matrix 276
Table 4.4 Principle components matrix 277
Table 4.5 Factor matrix 278
Table 4.6 Indices obtained from CFA on uni-dimensional (new) SLQ structure (N=417) 280
Table 4.7 Indices obtained from CFA on SLQ responses (N_1 = 208, N_2 = 209) 282
Table 4.8 Indices obtained from CFA (Independent samples: Constrained/Unconstrained) 284
Table 4.9 Comparisons of χ^2 values when variances are constrained/ not constrained 286
Table 4.10 FIT INDICES obtained from CFA of original structure of WTS (N=417) 287

Page
Table 4.11 Structure matrix 290
Table 4.12 Factor correlation matrix 291
Table 4.13 Structure matrix 291
Table 4.14 Structure matrix 292
Table 4.15 Indices obtained from CFA on two-factor WTS structure – new structure (N=417) 295
Table 4.16 Indices obtained from CFA on WTS responses (N_1 = 208, N_2 = 209) 296
Table 4.17 Indices obtained from CFA on responses to WTS (Independent samples: Constrained/unconstrained) 300
Table 4.18 Comparison values of χ^2 and other fit indices when variances are constrained/not constrained 301
Table 4.19 FIT INDICES obtained from CFA of original structure of TCS (N=417) 303
Table 4.20 Structure matrix 306
Table 4.21 Factor correlation matrix 307
Table 4.22 Structure matrix 307
Table 4.23 Structure matrix 308
Table 4.24 Indices obtained from CFA on two-factor TCS structure: New structure (N=417) 310
Table 4.25 Indices obtained from CFA on TCS responses (N_1 = 208, N_2 = 209) 312
Table 4.26 Indices obtained from CFA (Independent samples: Constrained/unconstrained) 314
Table 4.27 Comparisons of χ^2 values when variances are constrained/not constrained 316
Table 4.28 Fit statistics of TEQ measurement model 317
Table 4.29 Structure matrix of TEQ 319
Table 4.30 One-factor solution factor matrix 320
Table 4.31 Scores on scales and sub-scales of measuring instruments 321
Table 4.32 General guidelines for interpreting reliability coefficients 326
Table 4.33 Summary of characteristics of measuring instruments 327
Table 4.34 Correlations between POB variables (N = 417) 327

Page

Table 4.35 Scale for interpreting correlation coefficients 328

Table 4.36a Results from multiple regression analysis: Trust and team commitment 330

Table 4.36b Results from multiple regression analysis: Servant leadership, trust and team commitment 330

Table 4.37 Results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis 331

Table 4.38 Pearson product-moment correlations between TEQ and POB variables (n=67) 334

Table 4.39 Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients between POB variables and assessment by the organisation’s marketing executives (n = 84) 335

Table 4.40 Results of t- and Mann-Whitney tests 336

Table 4.41 Pearson correlations between POB variables, age, and years in current position (N=417) 340

Table 4.42 Results of ANOVA on scores of religious groups 340

Table 4.43 Correlations between POB variables, age, and years in current position 341

Table 4.44 Significant differences between groups 341

Table 4.45 Fit statistics with variables in structural models treated as measurement models 348

Table 4.46 Fit statistics structural models one and two 349

Table 5.1 Summary of results regarding content and structure of constructs 352

List of figures

Page

Figure 1.1 Proposed model integrating the relationships between servant leadership, follower trust, team commitment, and unit effectiveness 55

Figure 2.1 Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory leader behaviour options 76

Figure 2.2 Transactional leadership focuses on leaders managing day-to-day business operations 89

Figure 2.3 Transformational leadership model 93

Figure 2.4 A framework for stewardship 98

Figure 2.5 The leadership choice: From self-serving to serving according to the APS model 101

Figure 2.6 Continuum of leader-follower relationships: From authoritarian manager to servant leader 102

Figure 2.7 The comparative model of transformational and servant leadership 121

Figure 2.8 Russell and Stone's servant leadership model 135

Figure 2.9 Page and Wong's conceptual framework for measuring servant leadership effectively 137

Figure 2.10 Expanding circles of servant leaders 140

Figure 2.11 Servant leadership (cyclical) variable model 143

Figure 2.12 Patterson's servant leadership model of constructs 147

Figure 2.13 Model of servant leadership with Winston's extension added 148

Figure 2.14 Six key areas of healthy organisations 150

Figure 2.15 Great leader: Exemplary followership through servant leadership model 155

Figure 2.16 Supervisory view of effectiveness 222

Figure 2.17 Managerial view of effectiveness 223

Figure 2.18 Proposed model integrating the relationships between servant leadership, follower trust, team commitment, and unit effectiveness 234

Figure 4.1 Measurement model: SLQ original structure 271

Figure 4.2 Measurement model: SLQ original structure – on the 23 individual items 273

Page

Figure 4.3 Scree plot of eigenvalues: Servant leadership (N=417) 276
Figure 4.4 Measurement model: SLQ new structure 280
Figure 4.5 Measurement model of servant leadership: Random sample one 283
Figure 4.6 Measurement model of servant leadership: Random sample two 284
Figure 4.7 Measurement model: WTS original structure 287
Figure 4.8 Scree plot of eigenvalues: Trust (N=417) 289
Figure 4.9 Measurement model: WTS new structure 294
Figure 4.10 Measurement model of trust: Random sample one 298
Figure 4.11 Measurement model of trust: Random sample two 299
Figure 4.12 Measurement model: TCS original structure 302
Figure 4.13 Scree plot of eigenvalues: Team commitment (N=417) 305
Figure 4.14 Measurement model: TCS new structure 310
Figure 4.15 Measurement model of team commitment: Random sample one 313
Figure 4.16 Measurement model of team commitment: Random sample two 314
Figure 4.17 Measurement model of the TEQ: Original structure 317
Figure 4.18 Scree plot of responses to TEQ 319
Figure 4.19 Total servant leadership scores 322
Figure 4.20 Trust in organisation/manager scores 322
Figure 4.21 Trust in colleague/co-worker scores 323
Figure 4.22 Total trust scores 323
Figure 4.23 Team commitment: Emotional scores 324
Figure 4.24 Team commitment: Rational scores 324
Figure 4.25 Total team commitment scores 325
Figure 4.26 Total team effectiveness scores 325
Figure 4.27 Performance appraisal: Total adjusted scores 326
Figure 4.28 Graphic representation of prediction of total team commitment 332
Figure 4.29 Graphic representation of prediction of emotional team commitment 332
Figure 4.30 Graphic representation of prediction of rational team commitment 333
Figure 4.31 Original proposed theoretical model 342
Figure 4.32 Proposed empirical model one 343
Figure 4.33 Proposed empirical model one in text format 344

Page
Figure 4.34 Proposed empirical model two 345
Figure 4.35 Proposed empirical model two in text format 345
Figure 4.36 Measurement model one 346
Figure 4.37 Measurement model two 347

List of appendices

Appendix A: Briefing letter to sales managers
Appendix B: Covering letters
Appendix C: Questionnaire to sales persons (web-based)
Appendix D: Questionnaire to sales managers (web-based)
Appendix E: Follow-up correspondence
Appendix F: Sales department performance evaluation questionnaire – sales executives

CHAPTER 1: THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

1.1 Introduction and problem statement

With the dawn of the twenty-first century, traditional, autocratic and hierarchical styles of leadership were (and still are) slowly yielding to a newer and contemporary type of model, one that attempts to simultaneously enhance the personal and professional growth of employees, while at the same time improving the quality and caring of many organisations through (a) the combination of teamwork and community; (b) seeking to personally involve others in decision making; and (c) is strongly based in ethical and caring behaviour. This emerging approach to leadership and service is called servant-leadership (Spears, 1996).

In a recent study on effective leadership, Higgs (2003) concludes that the past 50 years of research have steered society down the road of ineffective measures of "leadership effectiveness". Higgs (2003) associates the problem with the erroneous leadership determinants, that were largely used during this period, to define leadership success. Instead of using short-term determinants such as market share growth, financial improvement, decreased turnover, and reduced absenteeism, real leadership success should be measured by the degree to which it contributes to creating and building a sustainable long-term asset – follower capacity (Higgs, 2003). This view of leadership effectiveness constitutes the foundation of the servant leadership notion.

Pirola-Merlo *et al.* (2002) propose that the need for research into the emotional aspects of work is urgent and the lack of it is hampering progress in understanding organisational behaviour. Johnson and Indvik (1999) explain that in past decades employees were expected to leave their emotions at home as rationality was the tone of most organisational environments. Scholars propose leadership research has focused quantitatively on the leader's external behaviour (Yukl, 2002) and emphasised cognitive traits (Lord & Brown, 2001), while the investigation of the emotional processes of leaders has been largely neglected. Albrow (1992) suggests that feelings may be viewed as interfering with rationality and effective decision making which probably causes it to be ignored in the literature. Advances in understanding emotions have challenged this view. Researchers have determined that emotional processes precede, or at least accompany cognition (Dickman & Stanford-Blair, 2002; Massey, 2002). Concerning this, Massey (2002, p. 20) states: "it is generally the case that unconscious emotional thoughts will precede and strongly influence our rational decisions". Evidently the organisational literature has therefore been cognitively dominated and inundated by numerous research covering this area (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005a, b; Ilgen & Klein, 1989).

In light of the above-sketched situation, one of the meaningful, more recent developments within the field of industrial and organisational (I/O) psychology, and more specifically in the area of organisational behaviour (OB), has been the identification of new approaches to research to add to the existing body of knowledge. The positive organisational scholarship (POS) movement, as new development in the organisational behaviour domain, is such an approach. Researchers have recently begun to investigate dynamics in organisations that lead to the development of human strength, resiliency, and extraordinary performance (Cameron & Caza, 2002). The focus of this work centres on life-giving, elevating elements in organisations that have been ignored largely by organisational scholars. According to Cameron, Dutton and Quinn (2003) POS is largely (and primarily) concerned with the investigation of positive outcomes, processes, and attributes of organisations and their employees. Contrary to traditional organisational studies, POS studies focus on employees' strengths, and psychological capabilities. This emphasis parallels the new positive psychology movement that has shifted from the traditional emphasis on illness and pathology, toward a focus on human strengths and virtues (Seligman, 2000). According to Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) the consideration of issues such as joy, happiness, hope, faith, and the worth of living represents a shift from reparative psychology to a psychology of positive experience (Cameron & Caza, 2002). In this regard, Seligman (2000, p. 8) states the following:

> [Positive] psychology is not just the study of disease, weakness, and damage; it is also the study of strength and virtue. Treatment is not just fixing what is wrong; it is also building what is right. [It] is not just about illness or health; it is about work, education, insight, love, growth, and play.

Thus, POS takes classic questions, such as those of organisational leadership and design, and uncovers new understanding by examining positive processes that emphasise the realisation of potential patterns of excellence. Consistent with this new movement, a group of organisational scholars has begun to investigate the positive side of organisational processes and performance, including how individuals in organisations, as well as the organisations themselves, become exceptional and virtuous (Cameron & Caza, 2002). Regarding this Cameron *et al.,* (2003, p. 10) state the following:

> …by unlocking capacities for elements such as meaning creation, relationship transformation, positive emotions cultivation, and high quality connections, organisations can produce sustained sources of collective capability that help organisations thrive.

Although implied in the abovementioned statement, some deliberation is needed to establish the nature of the link between POS and other OB constructs, as well as the application thereof in the organisational context.

Furthermore, and of central importance for the present study, is whether the concept of servant leadership (SL) could be considered a feasible research avenue to be pursued within the field of POS. Literature within the POS paradigm indicate that research on positive constructs and emotions, as applied in this domain, have been relatively recent. Concerning this, Bagozzi (2003, p. 176) argues:

> …there is still much to be learned from positive organisational scholarship into what it is about work that makes life worth living and how positive emotions and outcomes contribute to this.

However, within the developing positive psychology movement, and parallel with the positive organisational behaviour/scholarship field (Luthans, 2001; 2002a,b; Luthans & Jensen, 2001), it is reasoned that the notion of servant leadership fits with the positive approach to leadership or PAL, as advocated by Luthans, Luthans, Hodgetts and Luthans (2002) and Peterson and Luthans (2003). This seems to be true due to the relationship between the behaviour of servant leadership and the development of positive emotions in people. Emotions play a substantial role in the thinking of scholars working in the POS frame of reference.

Previous research indicate that the overall balance of people's positive and negative emotions is reflective of their subjective well being (Ashkansky, Härtel & Daus, 2002; Bagozzi, 2003; Diener, 2003; Fredrickson, 2003). In this sense Fredrickson (2003) argues that positive emotions signal, and could also produce, optimal individual functioning that may consequently contribute to optimal organisational functioning. Fredrickson (2003, p. 164) states: "Organisational members should consider cultivating positive emotions in themselves and others, not just as end-states in themselves, but also as a means to achieving individual and organisational transformation and optimal functioning over time". In this regard Fredrickson (2003) postulates the 'broaden-and-build' theory, suggesting that positive emotions broaden people's modes of thinking and action. Over time this capacity fosters people's ability to pursue personal and social resources. These resources function as "reserves" which people can later draw on to help them survive and succeed. In addition, individuals' experiences of positive emotions can be reaffirmed through other organisational members, and across interpersonal transactions with customers. As a consequence, positive emotions may also fuel optimal organisational functioning, helping organisations to thrive as well in the process (Fredrickson, 2003).

In addition to research conducted by Fredrickson, Bagozzi (2003) has attempted to demonstrate the importance of emotions within the field of POS by investigating the important consequences for people and organisations of certain positive and negative emotions, the action tendencies, and the coping responses functioning to manage them. In a study by Verbeke, Belschak and Bagozzi (cited in Bagozzi, 2003, p. 191) the emphasis was on emotional competence (conceived as a configuration of seven proficiencies), which described a person's working model of managing emotions within interpersonal situations. It was found that people differ in their emotional competencies, and that these competencies enhance coping with emotions, promote social capital, and positively influence performance. Furthermore, subsequent to this research, Bagozzi (2003, p. 193) accentuates the need for continued research in this domain by stating that:

> Emotional self-regulation and managerial responses to emotions and the things that produce them promise to be new frontiers for research and practice in the years ahead. More thought and research are needed into individual

> differences, interpersonal, small-group, organizational and cultural forces shaping this generation and management of emotions in the workplace.

Therefore, the aim of positive psychology is “to begin to catalyse a change in the focus of psychology from preoccupation only with repairing the worst things in life to also building positive qualities” (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000, p. 5). Positive psychology is thus seen in stark contrast to what Maslow (1954, p. 354) lamented as psychology’s main preoccupation with disorder and dysfunction:

> The science of psychology has been far more successful on the negative than on the positive side. It has revealed to us much about man’s shortcomings, his illness, his sins, but little about his potentialities, his virtues, his achievable aspirations, or his full psychological height. It is as if psychology has voluntarily restricted itself to only half its rightful jurisdiction, and that, the darker, meaner half.

Since Maslow’s (1954) view, positive psychology has emerged as a reaction to the preoccupation with what is wrong with people and their weaknesses, instead of what is right with people and building on their strengths. Positive organisational behaviour is therefore based on positive psychology.

Concluding from the above, it seems evident that social scientists, traditionally, have treated any "deviance" as a negative incongruity from normal or acceptable behaviour (Cameron & Caza, 2002). These “deviants” have traditionally been viewed as requiring treatment or correction (Durkheim, 1938; Becker, 1963). The idea of positive deviance has largely been ignored as a phenomenon for investigation (Starbuck, 2001; Pondy, 1979). Yet, according to Cameron and Caza (2002) positive deviance, in the form of virtuousness, captures some of humanity's highest aspirations. Virtue, in the Aristotelian sense, is an attribute that leads to a flourishing state exceeding normal happiness and excellence – analogous to ecstasy – while demonstrating the highest form of humanity (Cameron & Caza, 2002). Drawing on this, positive organisational scholarship (POS) emerged, where POS is: ‘‘concerned primarily with the study of especially positive outcomes, processes, and attributes of organizations and their members’’ (Cameron *et al*., 2003, p. 4). It seems as if servant leadership is aimed at creating a positive view of life among individuals in organisations.

In considering the above, as well as evidence of the limited research that has been conducted within the field of POS with a specific emphasis on different OB constructs, further research into the constructs of servant leadership, trust, and team commitment, as a means to add to the advancement and development of POS in organisational context, seemed justified. With this view in mind, the present study was formulated.

Since servant leadership is an approach to leadership that is firmly grounded in ethical principles, it has captured increased interest, and has grown greatly in popularity in the private and public sector, among consultants and practitioners (Spears, 1998). While this interest culminated in a wide range of research initiatives in the domain, it seems that it is a leadership concept that continues to remain elusive, for it has attracted limited thorough scholarly attention (Reinke, 2004). In recent years, greater attention has been paid to the conceptual underpinnings and development of servant leadership as a viable construct (Graham, 1991; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). However, the empirical examination of servant leadership has been hampered by a lack of theoretical underpinnings and the absence of a suitable measure (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). A practical concern appears to have generated increased attention to servant leadership. The vision of principled, open, caring leadership that servant leadership inspires, is deeply appealing to an apathetic, cynical public tired of scandal and poorly performing bureaucracies and stands in sharp contrast to the "ethics of compliance" so popular with governments today (Gawthrop, 1998; Reinke, 2004). However, this demand stems entirely from the intuitive appeal of the philosophies surrounding servant leadership, because no empirical operationalisation yet exists (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006).

For servant leadership to be established as a psychometrically acceptable and empirically sound construct, it ought to be viewed as a paradigm, that with time, evolves. However, scrutinising and researching certain constructs within the realm of paradigm-thinking, often limit researchers in their attempts to confirm a certain construct. This could be ascribed to their inability to reason and search outside the known parameters and boundaries. Kühn (1962) describes scientific development as the piecemeal process by which facts, theories, and methods collected in prevalent text have been added, singly and in combination, to the ever growing supply that constitutes scientific technique and knowledge. A paradigm, according to Kühn (1962, p. 23) is: “an object for further articulation and specification under new or more stringent conditions”. Kühn (1962, p. 91) also states that once a model or paradigm has been contrived, the signs of scientific vivacity include “the proliferation of competing articulations, the willingness to try anything, the expression of explicit discontent, the recourse to philosophy and to debate over fundamentals”. According to Kühn (1970, p. 64): "in the development of any science, the first received paradigm is usually felt to account quite successfully for most of the observations". However, Kühn (1970) also indicates that when there are phenomena not explained with existing theory, new theory emerges. This may subsequently lead to a major change in the structure of thinking about a construct – representing a scientific revolution.

This concept of a revolutionary paradigm-approach is *vis-à-vis* to the notion of *systems thinking* and *systems approach*. In short, *systems thinking* imply that individuals are imprisoned by the deeper structures and habits which they are unaware of (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997). According to Johns and Lee-Ross (1998, p. 23): “the systems approach is probably one of the most useful theoretical tools currently available for the management researcher. It assumes that the world is made up of identifiable systems – sets of components working together, producing a total effect greater that the sum of its parts”. Johns and Lee-Ross (1998, p. 24) also state that: “the essential problem in any management research is to understand the full complexity of the situation. General systems theory provides a framework for doing this, and is thus the most compelling paradigm in current management thinking and research”. For example, if defined as a purely single construct, servant leadership might be deceptive and suggest that leadership is not a relationship but a set of attributes or traits alone. This however, is contrary to what servant leadership recognises as a widely accepted truth in leadership theory, i.e. leadership is a relationship, *not* a set of attributes or traits (Reinke, 2004). In line with this thinking, McGregor (1960) states that leadership is not a property of the individual, but a complex relationship between the characteristics of the leader, the attitudes and needs of the followers, the organisation and its characteristics, and the environment. Notwithstanding, leadership has been characterised by particular personal qualities and traits, specifically one's ability to influence others' thoughts, energies, emotions, feelings, or behaviours (Farrall & Kronberg, 1996).

However, Jolly and Kettler (2004) maintain that the existing leadership assessment instruments are largely either inter-rated or self-report instruments. Due to this nature of these instruments, they often fail to define a specific set of behaviours linked to leadership. Furthermore, Jolly and Kettler (2004) indicate that very few of the instruments specifically assess leadership in an authentic setting. Reinke (2004) contemplates that with its stress on building community, listening, empathy, foresight, and awareness, it is evident that servant leadership is based on the idea that leadership is a relationship, and not based on a position. This ties to the notion of emergent leadership (Guastello, 1995, 1998; Farrall & Kronberg, 1996; Cattell & Stice, 1954; Roach, Wyman, Brookes, Chavez, Heath & Valdes, 1999; Zaror & Guastello, 2000). According to this theory a leader emerges in a situation in which one was not formally appointed (Guastello, 1995, 2002). The type of leader that develops in an emergent situation could typically be seen as a servant leader. A servant leader it is postulated will emerge from a group of people because such a person will serve the interests of the group whose members will then become the followers of the servant leader.

In this view, the body of knowledge regarding servant leadership could be viewed as a scientific paradigm that has been articulated as a result of “deviant” research efforts by various researchers and scholars. As paradigms mature, specific theories within the paradigm begin to emerge and differentiate, as occurred since the first formal formulation of servant leadership by Greenleaf (1970). Khün (1962) points out that scientific research is directed to the articulation of those phenomena and theories that the paradigm already supplies. Such articulation is seen in the current debates in the area of servant leadership that reflect intentional efforts of researchers to clarify, explain and demonstrate the full notion, purpose and nature of servant leadership.

However, given the concerns stated with regard to current leadership assessment instruments, specifically servant leadership, a new light needs to be shed on the assessment of leadership behaviours, relationships, and traits. This is an indication of the difficulty in finding the best “pivotal point” with which to focus the investigation into a construct. As a result, it elicits the complexity of finding the best level of detail and attributes in defining constructs with which to build a paradigm (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998; Ackerman & Heggestad, 1997).

This study therefore endeavoured to contribute to the ongoing articulation of the servant leadership concept. To this end, it aimed to address important prevalent issues associated with the defining and measurement of the concept to assist with its application in the field of POS.

The assumption for this study is that certain unit-level variables influence unit-level performance, and, it is therefore important to gain an understanding of these antecedents of unit-level effectiveness.

The study aimed to investigate the respective relationships that exist between the positive organisational psychological constructs, namely servant leadership, follower trust, team commitment, team effectiveness, and the potential influence of these variables on unit effectiveness. Also, investigating how these POS constructs can help explain the contributions of the (positive) emotional dimension of OB, and the potential impact of these constructs on unit effectiveness.

1.2 Theoretical framework for the research

1.2.1 The importance of definitions and precision

Rost (1993) attends to the challenge of providing precise definitions in addressing the overall study and discipline of leadership. Rost (1993) asserts that despite a vast number of leadership studies conducted over the decades – leadership is admittedly everywhere – but no one seems to be able to determine or discern what constitutes effective leadership, suitable for a modern age. In his work Rost (1993) reaffirms Burns's (1978) concern that no central concept of leadership has yet emerged in modern times, and without a modern philosophical tradition one lacks the very foundations for understanding a phenomenon that powerfully shapes peoples' lives. Rost (1993) ascribes this situation to the lack of consistent, useable, and precise definitions of leadership terms by writers, practitioners and scholars. Rost (1993, p. 6) boldly challenged the leadership academic world, stating that: "leadership studies as an academic discipline has a culture of definitional permissiveness and relativity

… there are almost no arguments about definitions in the literature on leadership. There are almost no critiques of other scholars' definitions".

In addressing this concern, Rost (1993), like Burns (1978), Greenleaf (1978), and Bennis and Nanus (1997) called for a new school of leadership – a group of scholars and practitioners who would intentionally work to challenge, define, and clarify concepts so that the discipline could progress in a systematic manner, entailing compelling and creative leadership thinking. This is probably what Greenleaf (1978, p. 77) described with: "the leadership crisis – schools, universities, colleges, and seminaries' failure in the responsibility to prepare young people for leadership roles in society".

Laub (2004) believes a similar approach is needed in the sub-field of servant leadership, since it is critical to raise these issues while new research efforts are constantly emerging.

This section addresses this need, and therefore attempts to create a benchmark for future challenges and revisions related to the defining of the specific terminology included for purposes of this particular study. A series of definitions are presented for the terms; *positive psychology, positive organisational behaviour (POB), positive organisational scholarship (POS), leader, leadership, follower, management, servant leadership, trust, team, team commitment, and unit effectiveness* – working towards an understanding how servant leadership can be related to these concepts, and other concepts of leadership and leading.

1.2.2 Defining industrial and organisational (I/O) psychology

Schneider (1984, p. 206) describes industrial and organisational (I/O) psychology as:

> an approach to understanding organizational functioning and effectiveness by focusing first on individuals and relationships between individual attributes and individual job behavior. The hallmark of I/O has been a concern for discovering what individual characteristics (abilities, needs, satisfactions) are useful for predicting work behavior required for the organization to be effective (productivity in terms of quality and/or quantity, absenteeism, turnover, sales, and so forth). I/O work is based on the simple assumption that when accurate

> predictions about the effectiveness of individuals are made, then it follows that the organization will be more effective.
>
> For example, I/O researchers assume that when assessments of individuals at the time of hire are significantly related to some performance standard on the job two or five or ten years later, then utilization of the assessment technique for hiring people will yield a higher proportion of effective workers and the organization will be more effective. Issues surrounding the definition and measurement of effectiveness are a major focus for I/O psychologists because we believe that if we fail to grapple with what we want to predict, it will be terribly difficult to predict it.

1.2.3 Defining positive psychology

Linley, Joseph, Harrington and Wood (2006, p. 8) give an integrative definition for positive psychology as follows:

> Positive psychology is the scientific study of optimal human functioning. At the meta-psychological level, it aims to redress the imbalance in psychological research and practice by calling attention to the positive aspects of human functioning and experience, and integrating them with our understanding of the negative aspects of human functioning and experience. At the pragmatic level, it is about understanding the wellsprings, processes and mechanisms that lead to desirable outcomes.

1.2.4 Defining positive organisational behaviour (POB)

Using the positive psychology movement as the foundation and point of departure, Luthans (2002b, p. 59) specifically defines positive organisational behaviour (POB) as:

> …the study and application of positively-oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today’s workplace.

Luthans (2002b) indicated that constructs that could be profitably studied by researchers in POB include leadership.

1.2.5 Defining positive organisational scholarship (POS)

Cameron *et al.* (2003, p. 4) define POS as being:

> …concerned primarily with the study of especially positive outcomes, processes, and attributes of organizations and their members. POS does not represent a single theory, but it focuses on dynamics that are typically described by words such as excellence, thriving, flourishing, abundance, resilience, or virtuous. … It encompasses attention to the enablers (e.g. processes, capabilities, structures, methods), the motivators (e.g. unselfishness, altruism, contribution without regard to self), and the outcomes or effects (e.g. vitality, meaningfulness, exhilaration, high-quality relationships) associated with positive phenomena.

According to Luthans (2002b) the key conceptual difference from positive psychology, *per se*, and most of the macro-level POS phenomena, is that POB as defined above, focuses more on the micro level and focuses on the state-like, and open-to-development psychological capacities. According to Luthans (2002b) these states of POB are in contrast to the more trait-like dispositional characteristics given emphasis in positive psychology (Sandage & Hill, 2001; Seligman, 1999; Snyder & Lopez, 2002) and other positively-oriented concepts in the OB field, such as the “Big Five” personality traits, positive self-evaluation traits, hard-wired positive emotions, and the emphasis on identifying people’s natural talents. Luthans (2002b) states that these variables are more concerned with the dispositional, trait-like positive characteristics, virtues, talents, and emotions of people, in contrast to the more situational, state-like, positive capacities of POB.

1.3 The history and notion of servant leadership

Because the focus of this study is on unit level effectiveness within the field of POS, the conceptualisation of leadership at the unit-level is the most appropriate point of departure.

Laub (2004) stresses the importance of limiting indefinable, intrinsically vague, and an openness to broad interpretation with regards to servant leadership – since human interaction is thereby defined – but that the social sciences have struggled with the ability to clearly define terminology. Servant leadership seems to suffer from the same limitation as leadership studies in general, i.e. writers on servant leadership seem to lack the precision of effort to clearly define the concept. The challenge almost seems insurmountable – adding scholars who will disagree on points of emphasis and focus. Laub (2004) claims that if the intention and emphasis are to conduct proper scholarly work in expanding servant leadership, it must be defined clearly and effectively. This apparently leads to an issue largely ignored in the servant leadership literature. If servant leadership is “an understanding and practice of leadership …”, then what is leadership? If servant leadership is a mindset; a way of viewing leadership, then how is the term defined that servant leadership is drawn from? Laub (2004) states that the terms “leadership” and “servant leadership” are not the same thing and that clear definitions of both terms are required. This would be simpler if there was a clear, accepted definition of leadership, but there seems not to be. Regarding this, Rost (1993, p. 6) states that: “the reality is that, as of 1990, scholars and practitioners do not know, with certainty, what leadership is”. A review of (even recent) leadership literature depicts the same definitional problems identified by Rost in 1993.

Laub (2004) argues that the majority of the definitions of leadership used in today’s leadership textbooks are conceptually vague, fail to clearly distinguish between related concepts such as management, and make no attempt to establish a generally accepted definition of terms. Related to this concern, Yukl (2002, p. 6) states that: “It is neither feasible nor desirable at this point in the development of the discipline to attempt to resolve the controversies over the appropriate definition of leadership. Like all constructs in social science, the definition of leadership is arbitrary and very subjective”. Several other leadership textbooks reveal the same ambiguity and hesitancy in dealing with this issue of defining terms (e.g. Daft, 1999, 2005; Hughs, Ginnett & Curphy, 2002; Lussier & Achua, 2001; Pierce & Newstrom, 2003).

From Rost’s (1993) challenge to the field of leadership, it may be concluded that it went almost unheeded. Nonetheless, Rost’s (1993) work is critical to the understanding of the issues involved in defining the terminology of leadership. His summary of the criteria for an effective definition serves as an essential guide. In summary he believes that: “a good definition of leadership must be understandable, usable, researchable, and comprehensive while possessing the ability to discriminate" (1993, p. 99). Laub (2004) posits that it appears that the discipline of leadership is lacking the discipline to clearly define its terms.

1.3.1 The need to define leadership

Laub (2004) claims that a peril of failing to create effective definitions, is that it might lead to non-definitions posing as definitions. This is often detected in the leadership literature, e.g. Maxwell (1998, p. 17) states that: "leadership is influence – nothing more, nothing less". This arguably pertains to an important aspect of leadership, but it is not a definition *per se*. This lack of critical thinking and writing on leadership poses peripheral issues to become central and central issues to become peripheral, creating a situation where leadership becomes whatever one wants it to be (Laub, 2004). To this extent Laub (2004, p. 4) contends: "Eventually an incredibly valuable term means anything and everything, and then, it means nothing". Definitions therefore serve to create clarity that research questions can be accurately stated, decisions be made correctly about the presence or absence of leadership, and that the essential ingredients are clear and measurable. It therefore seems salient that conceptual work needs to be done and developed, especially while the body of servant leadership research and knowledge is still busy to grow. Only from a strong foundation can support be built regarding the emerging structure of servant leader scholarship.

1.3.2 Defining leader

It is important that the definition of the term "leader" be distinguished from the *position* of leader, since positional leaders do not necessarily lead (Laub, 2004). It is important then to maintain the difference between leading and simply holding a position, that some would call "the leader." The following definition seems to accomplish that purpose – for it focuses not on a positional role but on what the leader does. It has furthermore an action basis of leading versus a trait or a positional approach. Terry (1993, p. 53) states that action is: "the human universe within which leadership must exist". He suggests that: "leadership has always been considered action, even if that connotation was unexamined and intuitive" (p. 53).

Thus, the person who “takes the lead” is the one who acts within a situation (Laub, 2004).

According to Laub (2004, p. 5): “a leader is a person who sees a vision, takes action toward the vision, and mobilizes others to become partners in pursuing change”. This encompasses the e*ssential elements of vision, action, mobilisation, and change.* Rost (1993, p. 115) contends that: “change is the most distinguishing characteristic of leadership” because without vision, action, and the mobilisation of people toward change, leading will not occur.

1.3.3 Defining leadership

As mentioned earlier, Laub (2004) interprets the concept of leadership different to that of “a leader” or the act of “leading.” This seems challenging, since these terms are often used interchangeably. To this point, Laub (2004) points out that leadership refers to the process through which leaders and followers engage to produce change. Laub’s (2004) definition therefore includes the four key essentials that make up the term “leader” but it expands the concept to include the leadership process. The concept of mobilisation is assumed in this definition, as followers have responded to the initiation of the leader. **“**Leadership is an intentional change process through which leaders and followers, joined by a shared purpose, initiate action to pursue a common vision” (Laub, 2004, pp. 5-6).

1.3.4 Defining follower

It is not common in leadership studies to define the word follower. But the term “follower” is essential to the definition of “leadership”, as indicated above. Both leaders and followers are doing something different while overlapping their efforts and roles within the leadership process. Laub (2004, pp. 6-7) offers the following definition of a follower: “Followers voluntarily and actively engage in the leadership process by responding to the leader’s initiative to identify shared purpose, vision and pursue shared action toward change”.

1.3.5 Defining management

In continuing to develop this typology of definitions one has to deal with the concept of management since it is one of the ongoing confusions in the use of these terms. In this regard, it is proposed that Daft's (2005) definition for management be used. It utilises the traditional and accepted meanings of the term while showing a clear contrast with the definitions offered here on leadership. Daft fortunately avoids the common mistake made by recent textbooks on management of presenting leadership as a sub-set of management. Leadership is not a part of management. It is a separate process altogether with different functions and outcomes.

According to Daft (2005, p. 16): "Management is the attainment of organisational goals in an effective and efficient manner through planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and controlling organizational resources". Notice the very different outcomes envisioned from the process of management compared to the process of leadership. These are not the same things and should not be confused, and yet they are confused with regularity. It is even more confusing due to the use of these terms for positional roles. The manager or leader is usually seen as the person in charge and therefore the terms are used interchangeably. This is a habit that will die hard, if at all, but it would be more appropriate to call someone a positional leader or a positional manager instead of using the same terms to refer to the position as well as the function. Leadership is about action toward change while management is about making things run well and stabilising them to work more efficiently. These are both essential processes in any organisation and one is not more valuable than the other. Any group or organisation needs both processes to be running effectively and consistently. To be sure, they sometimes seem to be working at odds with each other, but that tension is healthy and must be maintained to allow for anything worthwhile to be accomplished and maintained over time. Unfortunately, some leadership writers have slipped into the habit of denigrating management in order to enable leadership. For instance, Daft (1999, 2005) felt the need of contrasting the personal qualities of management and leadership such that leadership is shown to have the stronger qualities of listening, character and heart while management is portrayed as talking, only concerned about the organisation and emotionally distant (2005, p. 18). This is an unfortunate way of drawing a distinction between these two concepts since it reinforces the positive stereotype of leaders and the negative stereotype of managers. Let's affirm that leading and managing are both important and different functions that bring value to an organisation.

1.3.6 Mainstream versus critical approach to (organisational) leadership analysis

In their treatment of leadership Bratton, Grint and Nelson (2005) identify two leadership standpoints: *mainstream* and *critical.* According to Bratton *et al.* (2005) mainstream, or orthodox, leadership analysis makes two basic assumptions. First, leadership takes place in rationally designed organisations, typically business organisations to, in order to accomplish collective goals. Second, the basic concern of the leadership process is mobilising followers for formal organisational ends (Bratton *et al.,* 2005). Thus, the mainstream perspective seems inseparable from a notion of efficiency. Therefore, finding optimal ways through which more managers can become leaders. According to Chomsky (1968, 1999), common to all variations of the mainstream leadership perspective, is a failure to connect organisational leadership policies, and procedures to the larger prevailing political/economic discourse on neoliberalism.

Conversely, those with a *critical perspective* on organisational leadership, employ a distinctive range of sociological concepts, including social structure, processes, cultures, and norms, in their search to discover the ways in which power, control, conflict, and legitimacy have an effect on leader-follower dynamics (Bratton *et al.,* 2005). Critical theorists give greater substance to the notion of a "dialectical" process as means of explaining these leader-follower interactions. Such dialectical processes are reciprocal interactions between management systems, and people (or conflicting parties) (Bratton *et al.,* 2005). Though mainstream and critical perspectives are based on several theoretical ideas, the starting point is critique: identification of the limitations, paradoxes, contradictions, and ideological functions of orthodoxy (Thompson & McHugh, 2002).

In critical theory, historical and contextual considerations are underscored. To this end, Bratton *et al.* (2005) claim that leadership theory and practice can only be understood as something *in process* within a structural and contextual setting (the issue of the importance of context in leadership is further discussed in Chapter 2).

The critical perspective thus demand multi-dimensional causal explanations, requires deeper level of analyses of the specific context, i.e. economic, political, cultural, and communities (Bratton *et al.,* 2005). To this end, servant leadership seems to incorporate some useful concepts from the mainstream approach to complement its evident critical approach. The notion of servant leadership (which will be discussed in the next section) seems to critically evaluate sociological considerations and analysis, employing the idea of dialectical processes, and attempts to provide the conceptual method to make informed leadership decisions.

1.4 Towards a definition of servant leadership

The following definitions and viewpoints of servant leadership terminology are proffered as a point of departure and a possible benchmark for future and further research on this topic. Based on the literature review of servant leadership, the author proposes a definition of servant leadership, which is interpreted as an applied, contextual, operational, and organisational-specific definition of servant leadership.
Though some theorists believe that any leadership style is acceptable, as long as it leads to obtaining the planned results and set objectives (McGee-Cooper & Looper, 2001), Greenleaf (1970; 1996) claims that the antithesis is true, since it is the very means that determine the ends. This implies that one cannot advocate an adaptable and learning organisation through inflexible means.

Increasingly, organisations are expected to serve both those who produce goods and services and those who purchase and use them (Banutu-Gomez, 2004). Contemporary complex organisations are increasingly expected to provide meaning and significance in individual members' lives. Thus, business achievements depend on success in learning and development (Masalin, 2003). Achieving to do so, organisations have to become, what Masalin, (2003) calls the "learning organisation of the future" – meaning transforming organisational emphasis on production, to "growing" people. Most educators agreed that individual personality traits provide at least part of the basis upon which leadership skills are built, and such characteristics reach stability by adolescence (Doh, 2003). In the "learning organisation of the future", leadership's primary task will no longer be to motivate people to be productive, since the experience of personal growth will generate individual motivation (Banutu-Gomez, 2004). Outside input is important for keeping a broad mind and for inspiring creative and innovative thinking (Masalin, 2003). In the "learning organisation of the future", instead of managing people as the solution to organisational problems, leaders will manage *the process* by which the best solution can be found. In this regard, unlearning is necessary to make room for new learning (Masalin, 2003).

Regarding this observation, Warren (2002) claims that service is the pathway to creating significantly different leaders. Many influential business and leadership theorists therefore regard the attribute of service as one of the most critical, most important leadership requirements for the 21st century leader (Dennis & Winston, 2003; Marquardt, 2000). Alluding to this, Nair (1994, p. 59) however proclaims:

> As long as power dominates our thinking about leadership, we cannot move toward a higher standard of leadership. We must place service at the core; for even though power will always be associated with leadership, it has only one legitimate use: service.

This specific approach to supervision is called *servant leadership.* The core focus of servant leadership is embedded in the concept that supervising has less to do with directing other people and more to do with serving them. This implies that the servant leader has to abandon his/her personal perceptions of how to serve followers, and wait, listen and involve others to define their own needs and view of what service means – and then state them clearly (Whetstone, 2002). Service is then at the core of servant leadership (Block, 1993; De Pree 1997; Fairholm, 1997, 1998; Ford, 1991; Gaston, 1987; Greenleaf, 1977; McKenna, 1989; Oster, 1991; Pollard, 1996; Rinehart, 1998; Russell & Stone, 2002).

The approach to leadership that will be followed in this study is servant leadership. This construct has developed in the applied literature on management and organisations (Greenleaf, 1977; Spears, 1995, 1998) and is related to the concept of transformational leadership (Burns, 1978) and other "ethical perspectives" on leadership (Northouse, 2001). A basic idea behind servant-leadership is that the servant leader recognises his or her moral responsibility not only to the success of the organisation but also to his or her subordinates, the organisation's customers, and other organisational stakeholders (Greenleaf, 1977).

It was the businessman and essayist, Robert Greenleaf, who coined the term servant leader, and first began to lecture and write about the concept, some thirty years ago (Polleys, 2002). Since introducing the servant leader concept in the 1970s, Greenleaf's work has "sparked a radical rethinking of leadership" (Marquardt, 2000, p. 235) and inspired many modern organisational theorists (Spears, 1996). Additional to Greenleaf advocating the servant leader concept, numerous leadership writers and scholars endorse servant leadership as a "valid, modern theory for organizational leadership" (Russell, 2001, p. 78).

According to Stone, Russell and Patterson (2004) servant leadership is mainly about focus. The focus of the leader is on followers and his/her behaviours and attitudes are congruent with this follower focus. Arising from this view, Patterson and Stone (2004) argue that servant leadership theory is a virtuous theory, since the servant leader leads by example, and not command (Spears, 2003). The servant leader is compelled to help others, by means of service. Servant leaders are individuals who selflessly devote a lifetime to serving others in their field. They are servants first, who have become notable leaders through their service to their fellows, enriching those around them (Greenleaf, 1977; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Spears, 1995).

Banutu-Gomez (2004, p. 147) echoes this notion by stating his view on servant leadership:

> If we teach members of organizations to become exemplary followers, we should not be surprised if they begin to respond positively only to able servants who would lead them. The two roles of servant and leader can and should be fused. The servant leader needs to have a sense of the unknowable and be able to foresee the unforeseeable. Therefore, the central role of the servant leader is establishing sustainable strategic vision for the organization or community. The effective leader must articulate the mission of the organization in a convincing and inspiring fashion. Thus, the most important commitment a leader makes in relation to a vision is the commitment to continuously model the vision through one's own behavior in a visible and

> consistent manner in the organization or community. In all cultures, great leaders emerge *first* as servants.
>
> Culture enables humans to develop civilizations and technology by supporting and maintaining shared meanings thus empowering collective action on a scale unheard of in any other species of living being. If we teach members of organizations to become exemplary followers, we should expect them to freely respond only to individuals who have been chosen to lead because they have first proven themselves as servants… (because) leaders embed attributes in their organizational cultures by their actions. Thus, in the future, the only truly viable organizations will be those that are servant-led. All great leaders report that they experienced the feeling of wanting to serve *first*. This experience is what led them to the aspiration to lead. They inspire hope and courage in others by living out their convictions, facilitating positive images, and by giving love and encouragement. By doing this, their actions will reflect appropriate, unconditional love and caring in the workplace and they will build long last relationships in the organization or community.

Drury's (2004, p. 8) operational definition of servant leadership encompasses much of Banutu-Gomez's (2004) view and role of the servant leader, by claiming that servant leadership is:

> An understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self interest of the leader. Servant leadership promotes the valuing and development of people, the building of community, the practice of authenticity, the providing of leadership for the good of those led, and the sharing of power and status for the common good of each individual, the total organization, and those served by the organization.

Greenleaf (1977) summarises the above argument regarding servant leadership very briefly, by claiming that great leaders are seen as servants first, and that simple fact is the key to their greatness. Greenleaf's (1977, pp. 13-14) own definition (and litmus test) of the servant leadership concept is often quoted today:

> 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 ... [servant leadership] manifests itself in the care taken to make sure that other people's highest priority needs are being served. The best test, and difficult to administer, is: Do those served grow as persons? Do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? And what is the effect on the least privileged in society; will they benefit, or, at least, not be further deprived?.

This focus on objectives is balanced by a deep commitment to the growth of people, and the building of community within the organisation. Greenleaf thus presumes that leaders either create, or profoundly influence organisational culture. However, according to Morgan (1990) and Reinke (2004) this is a presumption that is not shared by many scholars in this field. Greenleaf (1977) states that the servant leader's behaviour is therefore grounded in his or her concept of self as a steward of the organisation, and its people. This has the implication that the servant-leader holds the organisation in trust to the public it serves. Although Greenleaf (1977) did not provide a specific definition of servant leadership (Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko, 2004), he evidently described the influence servant leader *behaviour* has on followers – attributing to the ontological and axiological characteristics of the servant leadership paradigm (Winston & Ryan, 2006). Consequently others have attempted to define the construct from this viewpoint (Humphreys, 2005). Thus, many have defined servant leader behaviour as actions that honour the individual self-esteem and self-worth of followers, and increase the desire to become servant leaders as well (Spears, 1998).

Therefore, in an attempt to clarify the concept of servant leadership Spears (1995) draws upon Greenleaf's definition and proposes ten key elements of servant leadership. According to Spears (1995, pp. 4-7) these elements or characteristics include:

> “listening – servant leaders clarify the will of a group by listening receptively to what is being said;
>
> empathy – servant leaders strive to understand and empathize with others;
>
> healing – servant leaders have the potential for healing self and others;
>
> awareness – servant leadership is strengthened by general awareness, of situations, of others, and especially self-awareness;
>
> persuasion – servant leaders rely upon persuasion, rather than positional authority, in making decisions within an organization;
>
> conceptualization – servant leaders seek to nurture their abilities to dream great dreams;
>
> foresight – servant leaders have the ability to foresee the likely outcome of a situation in the future;

> stewardship – servant leaders' first and foremost commitment is to serve the needs of others;
>
> commitment to the growth of people – servant leaders are deeply committed to the personal, professional, and spiritual growth of each and every individual within the institution; and
>
> building community – servant leaders seek to identify means of building community among those who work within a given institution”.

Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) combined these ten characteristics of Spears (1995) with a dimension termed calling – the natural desire to serve others, which was fundamental to servant leadership in the early writings of Greenleaf (1977). Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) included this eleventh dimension of servant leadership in their research aimed at developing operational definitions and scales to measure the eleven characteristics of servant leadership identified by Spears (1995).

Barbuto and Wheeler’s (2006) research on the concept of Servant Leadership resulted in the refinement of the servant leadership notion as a five-dimensional construct.

The results indicated that five dimensions of servant leadership: (1) altruistic calling, (2) emotional healing, (3) persuasive mapping, (4) wisdom, and (5) organisational stewardship could be derived empirically.

Barbuto and Wheeler (2006, pp. 318-319) define these five dimensions as follows:

> *Altruistic calling* describes a leader’s innate desire to make a positive difference in others’ lives. It is a generosity of the spirit consistent with a benevolent purpose in life. Since the ultimate goal is to serve, leaders high in altruistic calling will put others’ interests ahead of their own and will diligently work to meet followers’ needs.
>
> *Emotional healing* describes a leader’s commitment to and skill in fostering spiritual recovery from hardship or trauma. Leaders using emotional healing are highly empathetic and excellent listeners, making them adept at facilitating the healing process. Leaders create environments that are safe for employees to voice personal and professional problems and concerns. It is argued that followers that experience personal traumas will turn to leaders high in emotional healing.
>
> *Wisdom* can be understood as a combination of awareness of surroundings and anticipation of consequences, similarly described by classic philosophers

> (Kant, 1978; Plato, 1945). When these two characteristics are combined, leaders are adept at picking up cues from the environment and understanding their implications (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Leaders high in wisdom are characteristically observant and anticipatory across most functions and settings (Bierly, Kessler & Christensen, 2000).
>
> *Persuasive mapping* describes the extent that leaders' use sound reasoning and mental frameworks. Leaders high in persuasive mapping are skilled at mapping issues and conceptualising greater possibilities, and are compelling when articulating these opportunities. They encourage others to visualise the organisation's future and are persuasive, offering compelling reasons to act and complete tasks.
>
> *Organisational stewardship* describes the extent that leaders' prepare an organisation to make a positive contribution to society through community development, development programmes, outreach and corporate social responsibility. Organisational stewardship involves an ethic or value for taking responsibility for the well-being of the community and making sure that the strategies and decisions undertaken reflect the commitment to give back and improving on the status quo. They also work to develop a community spirit in the workplace, one that is preparing to leave a positive legacy.

Covey (1998, p. xiv) translates his understanding of Greenleaf's servant leadership definition as:

> …the servant-leadership concept is a principle, a natural law, and getting our social value systems and personal habits aligned with this ennobling principle is one of the great challenges of our lives.

Reinke (2004) sees the servant leader as someone who is committed to the growth of both the individual and the organisation, and who works to build community within organisations.

Cunningham (2002) aptly describes servant leadership as a paradox, that is, that one would be a servant while leading, and a leader while serving. Cunningham (2002, p. 1) elaborates on his statement, by claiming that:

> …serving, receiving, following, and leading are all intertwined, and offers two assumptions that are implicit in this understanding. Firstly, that one's life is more fulfilling if the roles of leading, following, serving, and receiving are integrated rather than segmented, and secondly, that the spiritual journey is more important than a physical need.

Similarly, Sendjaya and Sarros (2002, p. 57) posit that the notion of "servant as leader" is an oxymoron, and could probably explain the scarcity of research on servant leadership up to now – for: "it may be difficult to think and act both as leader and servant at the same time – a leader who serves and a servant who leads". Even so, Sendjaya and Sarros (2002) assert that, the dynamic conceptual relationships and complementary roles between servanthood and leadership have attracted in recent years the attention of numerous leadership scholars and practitioners. An inexhaustive list of some of these scholars include, amongst others, Bass (1999); Bowman (1997); Buchen (1998); Chappel (2000); Choi and Mai-Dalton (1998); De Pree (1990); Farling, Stone and Winston (1999); Graham (1991); Pollard (1996, 1997); Russell (2000); Senge (1990, 1995); and Spears (1995).

Patterson (2003) identifies seven defining components of servant leadership, including (a) *agapao* love (unconditional/spiritual/wilful brotherly love), (b) humility, (c) altruism, (d) vision, (e) trust, (f) service, and (g) empowerment. Patterson's (2003) theory suggests that *agapao* love is the cornerstone of servant leadership.

Laub (1999) echoes Greenleaf (1977) and Smith *et al.*'s (2004) sentiment by interpreting servant leadership as an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader. Laub (1999, p. 83) further expands his interpretation of servant leadership, by adding the following descriptive framework:

> Servant leadership promotes the valuing and development of people, the building of community, the practice of authenticity, the providing of leadership for the good of those led and the sharing of power and status for the common good of each individual, the total organization and those served by the organization.

According to Laub (2004, p. 9) these six key areas stand as the main constructs that he describes as "servant leadership in action" and that servant leaders value people, develop people, build community, display authenticity, provide leadership and share leadership. Correspondingly to Laub's interpretation, Birkenmeier, Carson and Carson (2003, p. 375) assert that: "servant leaders transcend personal self-interest and aspire to fulfill the physical, spiritual, and emotional needs of others". However, Horsman (2001, p. 3) claims that: “Laub’s definition addresses the main characteristics of servant-leadership, but it does not address a most critical aspect – spirit and the motive to serve”.

Servant leadership is therefore regarded as a practical philosophy that supports people who choose to serve first, and then lead as a way of expanding service to individuals and organisations (Autry, 2001). Russell (2001, p. 78) endorses servant leadership as a “valid, modern theory for organizational leadership”.

Russell (1999, p. 14) provides a working definition of servant leadership, illustrating the intertwined nature of values, attitudes, and actions:

> Servant leaders *seek not to be served, but rather to serve*. They view leadership positions as opportunities to help, support, and aid other people. Servant leaders create *trusting* work environments in which *people are highly appreciated*. They *listen* to, and *encourage* followers. Servant leaders *visibly model* appropriate behavior and function as effective *teachers.* They have a high degree of *credibility* because of their *honesty, integrity*, and *competence.* These persons have a clear leadership *vision* and implement *pioneering* approaches to work. Servant leaders are also conscientious *stewards* of resources. They have good *communications* with followers and exercise ethical *persuasion* as a means of *influence*. Servant leaders invite others to participate in carrying out their leadership vision. They *empower* people by enabling them to perform at their best and by *delegating* decision-making responsibilities. Overall, servant leaders provide direction and guidance by assuming the role of attendant to humanity.

Linking onto Russell’s above description of a servant leader, Melrose (1996, p. 20) adds that:

> …[servant] leadership is not a position at all. Instead, it is a combination of something we *are* (he calls this “character”) and some things we *do* (he calls this “competence”) ... if we think of leadership in terms of position, it is impossible to develop an atmosphere of trust.

Frick (1998, p. 354) regards the above with a degree of caution, clarifying servant leadership to be rooted in an awareness of one’s own identity, by describing servant leadership as:

> … a process of inner growth and outer consequences that, though based on some universal principles, must necessarily take unique expression within particular individuals and institutions … [When] servant leadership is reduced

> to a collection of admirable qualities and learned skills that are displayed in organizational settings, it is all too easy to forget that servant leadership is, first, about deep identity.

In the light of the above, Fryar (2002, p. 26) succinctly defines the servant leader as:

> … beginning from a foundation of authentic, heartfelt respect [the servant leader] moves outward toward building habits of trustworthy behaviors.

Bryant's (2005, p. 9) view on servant leadership is that it: "emphasises increased service to others; adopts a holistic approach to work; promotes a sense of community; and shares the power in decision making". Bryant (2005) identifies six criterions of United States companies that have successfully adopted servant leadership practices. These include openness and fairness, camaraderie, friendliness, opportunities, pride in work and company, and pay/benefits and security. From this, the ideas of serving, helping, self-effacing, and effectiveness seem to permeate the servant leadership concept. Birkenmeier, Carson and Carson (2003, p. 375) declare that: "Servant leaders transcend personal self-interest and aspire to fulfill the physical, spiritual, and emotional needs of others".

Linking to this, Polleys (2002, p. 120) states that servant leadership is: "leadership that puts the needs of others and the organization first, is characterized by openness, vision and stewardship, and results in building community within organizations".

With this view on servant leadership behaviours growing outward from the leader's core identity, Fryar (2002) ascertains that *being* leads to *doing* (and not *vice versa*). Fryar (2002) believes this to be possibly linked to the required proposed leader characteristics, claimed by DePree (1997); Orlikoff and Totten (1999); Melrose (1996), and Wheatley (1997), that builds follower trust and commitment.

This soul call implies that the servant leader puts serving others above self-interest and in so doing the leader as servant is, no more and no less, creating the conscious act that creates a true and dedicated follower. Servant leaders achieve in making people feel that they are at the very heart of things, not at the periphery (Greenleaf, 1977; Nair, 1994; Pollard, 1996; Whetstone, 2002; Wilkes, 1996).

However, merely serving is *not* the means by which to get results, but the behaviour of serving is the result (Farling, Stone and Winston, 1999). Thus, the (servant) leader's behaviour is grounded in a strong sense of values or virtue – which according to Hursthouse (1999) resembles virtue ethics – and the substantive justice stage of ethical development (Rest & Narvaez, 1994). The aspect of stewardship ensures that the servant leader does not accept mediocre performance, but keeps employees focused on achieving organisational objectives within the constraints of shared organisational values (Reinke & Baldwin, 2001; Reinke, 2004). This view coincides with Gawthrop's (1998) call for a public service staffed with ethical public servants as opposed to relying an ethics based on conformity to rules.

According to Brody (1995); Buchen (1998, 2002) and Rowe (2003) the serving inclination of a servant leader, where the leader leads future leaders, is based on the employment of the old Roman standard of *primus inter pares* – each is first among others. Maxwell (1998) refers to this aspect, of a leader raising and developing another leader, as the “Law of reproduction” (p. 133). Stone *et al.* (2004) proffer servant leadership as a marked distinctive notion due to the leader’s focus on followers. Therefore, in the realm of servant leadership, both leadership and followership are emphasised and indistinguishable (Rowe, 2003).

This leader-follower emphasis within the servant leadership framework is illustrated by Berry, Parasuraman and Zeithaml’s (1994, p. 43) following definition:

> Improving service involves undoing what exists as much as creating what doesn't. Delivering excellent service requires a special form of leadership … called servant leadership. Servant leaders serve the servers, inspiring and enabling them to achieve. Such leaders fundamentally believe in the capacity of people to achieve, viewing their own role as setting a direction and a standard of excellence, and giving people the tools and freedom to perform. Because these leaders believe in their people, they invest much of their personal energy coaching and teaching them, challenging them, inspiring them, and, of course, listening to them.

To this similar end, Lytle, Hom and Mokwa (1998, p. 460) give their view on servant leadership by the following statement:

> Servant-leaders set service standards by their own behaviors and management styles. They lead by doing. They are actively engaged in helping, assisting, and meeting the needs of employees within the work setting. In short, they are a model of service to all employees — serving the servers, inspiring, motivating, and enabling them to achieve service excellence. These managerial service behaviors are a conspicuous way of directing and shaping the service climate through example rather than simply dictating service policy for the organization. If employees receive excellent service from their own managers, they are more likely to provide excellent service to customers.

Derived form the views on servant leadership, it seems to emphasise the importance of appreciating and valuing people, listening, mentoring or teaching, and empowering followers. Servant leaders gain influence from servanthood itself, as opposed to other leadership paradigms (as discussed in Chapter 2). It is the latter aspect that differentiates servant leadership from other forms of leadership (Russell & Stone, 2002). In so doing, they allow freedom for followers to exercise their own abilities. They also place a much higher degree of trust in their followers than would be the case in any leadership style that require the leader to be directive to some extent.

In sum, the servant leader is a steward who holds the organisation in trust to the public it serves, while remaining intimately attuned to the needs and situations of those who work in the organisation – being sincerely committed to empowering others to succeed professionally and personally (Reinke, 2004). Osland, Kolb and Rubin (2001, p. 297) probably encapsulate this view most accurately with their statement that: “servant leaders are stewards who are responsible for serving, developing, and transforming the organization and its people”.

Having looked into the Latin root of the word servant and exploring the existing literature on servant leadership, the present researcher deduced a definition regarding servant leadership. Servant (from the Latin *Servo*) means to make safe, save, keep unharmed, preserve, guard, keep, protect, deliver, rescue. Thus, servant leadership, operationally and organisational-specifically defined by the researcher is:

> No more, and no less than, the conscious act *that creates and inspires a follower.* The servant leader leads by building shared trust, encouraging individuals to balance through the creation of meaningful work, meeting commonly agreed objectives, sharing commonly held values, and through the unconditional acceptance of others. Consequently, the servant leader is seen

> *as truly effective* by her/his followers when s/he as leader, *through transmitting values of service* to followers, provides *conspicuous evidence of truthful commitment* to her/his followers by *lifting (developing) others* to new levels of possibility.

1.5 The variable of trust and its definitions

Despite trust receiving considerable attention in recent organisational literature, Mistzal (1996, p. 13) indicated that: "confusion continues with an increased mixture of approaches and perspectives." Earlier, Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) stated a concern regarding researching the topic of trust. Mayer *et al.* (1995, p. 709) posit: “that while organisational studies are showing an increased interest in researching the topic of trust, there are problematic areas”. They identify difficulties with defining trust, such as “vagueness between the trust and risk relationship. Furthermore, the lack of trust referents in the studies leads to confusing analysis in some research” (p. 709).

Clearly the literature on trust seems substantial, but neither straightforward, nor clearly defined (Büssing, 2002; Hay, 2002). Reinke (2004) argues that, trust, like leadership, is a complex topic that does not easily lend itself to empirical study. Likewise, Basso (2004) states that like so many concepts related to organisational effectiveness and leadership, trust is difficult to define – therefore probably explaining why efforts to improve it have been infrequent or difficult to initiate. Maister, Green and Galford (2000) reason that there seems to be a sense that trust is not well understood, claiming that many professionals do not know how to think about or examine trust relationships. As Harvey and Drolet (1994, p. 18) state that: "Trust is much like love - we know it when we see it, but we are not sure what creates it ... Trust is not an act or set of acts, but the result of other actions or variables”. The reason for this lack of understanding may simply be due to the complexity of trust: Trust has a natural attraction. It is good to trust and to be trusted. But what is trust? What are the aspects of trust? A cursory overview of trust literature suggests that trust is a multi-faceted and complex concept (Hoy & Tshannen-Moran, 1999; Tschannen-Moran, 2004).

In addition to the abovementioned concerns regarding research on trust, is that real world organisations have in recent decades increasingly been faced with rapid changes and complexity (Hay, 2002). According to Fryar (2002) this often give rise to situations where leaders have limited time to amass all the facts before having to make a decision. Thus, due to the increased complexity, and often 'forced' change under which decisions need to be made, limited control over the consequences of such decisions prevail. This leads to the manifestation of excessive and continued distrust, which in turn severely limits leaders' options – crucially at the same time when rapid change makes the generation of multiple options necessary (Fryar, 2002). Given this depiction, time has probably become one of the most invaluable resources of the 21st century – where leaders are increasingly forced with limited time to make decisions – even momentous problems and choices require prompt decision-making.

It is argued by many researchers, that in order for a 21st century leader to function effectively under these circumstances, trust is crucial to an organisation's success (Dunford, 1999; Martins, 1999). This notion is supported by Melrose's (1996, p. 20) statement that: "people perform best in an atmosphere of freedom and trust". Wheatley (1997) echoes Melrose's claim, saying that by honouring and trusting people, startlingly high levels of productivity and creativity are unleashed. Similarly, Peters (1994, p. 145) refers to trust as: "the oft ignored glue that holds the new fangled virtual organization together". However, when the opposite is present, due to prevailing distrust, decisions-making becomes even harder because options and alternatives become much more limited (Fryar, 2002). Distrust easily provokes second-guessing that stimulates grousing and gossip, creating more distrust – leading to a workplace characterised by chronic and unhealthy levels of distrust (Kouzes, 1998; Lowe, 1998). This leads to a dysfunctional situation where distrust breeds distrust (Fryar, 2002).

More recent reviews and definitions of trust have also emphasised the role of risk in defining trust, for without any risk, there is no need for trust (Dirks, 2000; Dirks & Ferrin, 2001; Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Mayer *et al.,* 1995). Without uncertainty, choices can be rational without any need to risk. Wicks, Berman and Jones (1999, p. 99) regard the peril of the aforementioned in a serious light, because they claim that trust involves: “taking not-so-calculated risks … part of what it is to trust is not to have too many thoughts of possible betrayals”. They furthermore view trust not as a static, permanent state of mind, but as a dynamic and continuously changing variable. They claim trust not to be an either/or phenomenon, because in fact: “one can both trust and distrust people at the same time” (p. 101). To this end, most recent researchers agree that trust is not dispositional but rather a result of social exchange processes between two parties (Brower, Schoorman & Tan, 2000, Currall & Judge, 1995; Deluga, 1994; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Ruppel & Harrington, 2000; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard & Werner, 1998). Since social exchange "requires trusting others to reciprocate, the initial problem is to prove oneself trustworthy" (Blau, 1964: p. 98). Then, the expectation is that the other party will reciprocate so that relationships eventually reach equilibrium in terms of the exchange between parties (Emerson, 1964). However, the scope of the present study is within the domain-specificity of positive organisational behaviour, therefore focussing on performance drivers instead of inhibitors, like distrust. Due to the focus in this study on positive constructs and outcomes, entering into the dysfunctional nature of trust, or an absence thereof, lies beyond the scope – and positive focus – of this study.

The perplexing situation surrounding trust sketched above probably explains why researchers studying trust in organisations cannot seem to agree on one commonly accepted definition of trust – creating a lack of clarity as to what trust is (Fryar, 2002; Hay, 2002). It seems, however, as if researchers do agree on giving recognition to the *context* being critical in attempting to understand trust in an organisational-setting (Blomqvist, 1997; Sitkin, Rousseau, Burt & Camerer, 1998; Hay, 2002). Since trust takes different forms, it may differ in important ways depending on the context, including who is trusting and who or what is trusted (Goold, Fessler & Moyer, 2006).

To this end, Kramer and Tyler (1996) identify the following three contextual “types” of trust: Expectant or presumptive trust refers to the predisposition an individual brings to a new relationship, while experiential trust develops with knowledge of the trustee over time, and identification-based trust is based on a sense of shared values. Kramer and Tyler (1996) maintain that trust in individuals can be profoundly influenced by trust in general, through previous experiences, secondhand knowledge from others, or general trusting tendencies. Trust in individuals can also be influenced by trust in relevant organisations, whether it is a small business enterprise or a multinational corporation (Joffe 2001; O'Malley & Forrest, 2002).

Like interpersonal trust, expectations are directed toward an organisation (and are future-directed), and not so much toward the services the organisation may deliver or the outcomes one expects (Goold *et al.,* 2006). Although it can be tempting to concentrate on expected outcomes rather than perceived motivations, there is evidence that the assessment of intent, character, or values is more important to trusting parties than the outcomes of trustees' decisions (Corbie-Smith, Thomas, Williams & Moody-Ayers, 1999; Wynia, Zuker, Supran & Selker, 2002). Trust in organisations differs in some respects from trust in persons (Goold 2001). Perceptions of shared values, fair decision making processes and/or fair treatment, and judgements about administrative competence are likely to be important aspects of trust in an organisation, while they may be minimal or absent features of interpersonal trust relationships (Goold *et al.,* 2006).

Due to trust being included in the present study, various definitions of trust, espoused by different scholars will be entered into, in an attempt to determine parameters, and define delineations, suitable for the purposes of researching trust within this specific study, i.e. trust in an organisational setting. This appears imperative, given the difficulty to see how trust can be properly understood, viewed out of context (Hay, 2002).

In defining trust, Webster (1828) clarifies it as: "Confidence; a reliance or resting of the mind on the integrity, veracity, justice, friendship or other sound principle of another person".

Deutsch (1958, p. 266) defines trust as:

> An individual may be said to have trust in the occurrence of an event if he expects its occurrence and his expectations leads to behavior which he perceives to have greater negative emotional consequences if the expectation is not confirmed than positive motivational consequence if it is confirmed.

Rotter (1971, p. 444) defines trust as an: “expectancy held by an individual or group that the work, promise, or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon”. Golembiewski and McConkie (1975, p. 133) have expanded on the topic of trust and confidence by observing that it: “implies reliance on, or confidence in, some event, process, or person”. Gabarro (1987, p. 104) defined trust in terms of consistency of behaviour and posited that: “judgments about trust in working relationships become specific based on accumulation of interactions, specific incidents, problems, and events”. Griffin (1967, p. 105) defined trust as: “the reliance upon the characteristics of an object, or the occurrence of an event, or the behavior of a person in order to achieve a desired but uncertain objective in a risky situation”. Rempel, Holmes, and Zanna (1985) found that trust develops from interpersonal relationships between supervisors and subordinates based on the mutual degree of reliability, confidence, and security. Similarly, McAllister (1995) suggested that the complexity and uncertainty inherent in managerial work often require trust in order to achieve coordinated action.

Despite trust being presented in the literature as a complex, continuous, dynamic, and multi-faceted construct (Butler & Cantrell, 1984; and Farling *et al.,*1999; Hay, 2002; Mechanic, 1996; Wicks *et al.,* 1999) existing studies in this area indicate negligence in regarding the context when researching trust, as mentioned earlier. The majority of studies, however, seem to focus on hypothetical or artificial situations (Butler, 1999; Dirks, 1999; Hay, 2002; Porter & Lilly, 1996; Zand, 1972). According to Hay (2002) studies of trust in real-world or applied settings seem very limited. Consequently, these concerns make generalisability to applied settings dubious and difficult. In support of this concern, Lane (2000, p. 2) states that: “the consequences of trust for organisational performance have so far not received systematic study”. Viewed in this light, the study of trust in applied organisational-settings, can be deemed essential and necessary. Hay (2002) is of the opinion that how one defines trust varies accordingly with the context. In this regard, Blomqvist (1997) reasons that the inadequate conceptualisation of trust can possibly be attributed to the fact that trust is always situation-specific. This implies that trust is contextual – it is shaped by the dynamics and interactions involved in particular social and applied settings.

However, Reinke (2004) claims that a number of definitions of trust have emerged in the empirical literature. Most of these 'empirical-trust- definitions' can be categorised as deterrence or calculus-based trust, knowledge-based trust, and identification-based trust (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Deterrence or calculus-based trust is primarily based on the consistency of behaviour, i.e. that people do what they say they are going to do (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Punishment is the most frequent consequence for failure to maintain consistency (Reinke, 2004). Knowledge-based trust is based on behavioural predictability. This kind of trust is possible when people have enough information about each other to be able to reasonably predict what the other will do under various circumstances. The third type of trust, identification-based trust, is based on empathy. This occurs when people understand, agree with, empathise with, and take on the other's values (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996).

Lewicki and Bunker (1996) propose that these three types of trust occur in sequence. Relationships begin with deterrence-based trust. Over time, as communication develops and the parties get to know one another, relationships proceed to knowledge-based trust (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). Kramer (1999) points out that individuals' perceptions of others' levels of trustworthiness is largely history-dependent. Finally, when mutual understanding is achieved, trust can reach the final stage, i.e. identification-based trust (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996). It is this final stage that Fairholm (1994) refers to, when he stresses the importance of shared values and organisational culture in his concept of the culture of trust (as referred to earlier).

Lewicki and Wiethoff (2000) view trust as an individual's ability to be consistent in words, and actions as well as in the ability to understand and appreciate the wants of others.

Hosmer (1995) reviewed definitions of trust and found that risk is imperative to trust. Hosmer (1995, p. 3) subsequently offers a definition of trust, stating that trust is "an individual's optimistic expectation about the outcome of an event". Congruently, Shaw (1997, p. 21) approaches the concept with simplicity, by defining trust to be: "the belief that those on whom we depend will meet our expectations". *Vis-à-vis* Fryar (2002, p. 20) asserts that: "trust assumes [that] others will not deliberately hurt us or take advantage of our reliance on them". This aspect of trust can be related to

Zand's (1972, p. 230) emphasis on vulnerability, and a division of trust into: "personal behavior and individual expectations". Likewise Wicks *et al.* (1999, p. 100) define trust in the following way:

> …[trust is] the expectation by one [entity] of ethically justifiable behavior - that is, morally correct decisions and actions based upon ethical principles of analysis – on the part of the other [entity] in a joint endeavor or economic exchange.

Shaw's (1997, p. 559) more comprehensive definition on trust states:

> ... [that] trust is the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other will perform a particular action important to the trustor, [whether or not the trustor can] monitor or control that other party.

From the literature it seems whether other researchers affirm Shaw's (1997) definition, offering several additional dimensions. Such definitions include trust to be centered on risk-taking and assessing the probability of beneficial outcomes (Coleman, 1990; Deutsch, 1958; Gambetta; 1988; Luhmann, 1988), reciprocity (Maister, Green & Galford, 2000), dependence (Zand, 1972), expectation, reliance, and vulnerability (Hoy & Tshannen-Moran, 1999; Rotter, 1967; Wicks, Berman & Jones, 1999). Some authors define trust metaphorically as the glue that holds relationships together (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Rosen, & Brown 1996). While Butler and Cantrell (1984) emphasise the multi-faceted nature of trust, proposing five key components of trust, or characteristics of people, four of which comprise moral values. These components involve the concept of trust as it relates to (a) integrity (Daft, 2005; Shaw, 1997; Wilson & Rhodes, 1997), (b) competence (Jones, 1996; Moorman, Deshpande & Zaltman, 1993; Yukl, 1998), (c) consistency/reliability (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Giffin & Patton, 1971), (d) loyalty/concern (Block, 1993; Greenleaf, 1977; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Snodgrass, 1993), and (e) openness (Bardwick,1996; Kouzes & Posner, 1987; Nanus, 1989, 1992; Ouchi, 1981). The extent of the individual components "would differ depending upon the position [being a superior or subordinate] of the person" (Butler & Cantrell, 1984, p. 13). Kramer and Tyler (1996) also propose a multidimensional definition of trust – specifically for the development of the Organisational Trust Inventory. Kramer and Tyler (1996, p. 304) contend that these dimensions are:

> (a) belief that an individual or group makes good-faith efforts to behave in accordance with any commitments both explicit and implicit, (b) belief that an individual or group is honest in whatever negotiations (more generally, any interactions) preceded such commitments, and (c) belief that an individual or group does not take excessive advantage of another even when the opportunity is available.

However, not only are there multiple faces of trust, there are also multiple referents of trust. In their study, Hoy and Tshannen-Moran (1999) claim that no existing measure of trust was found that accurately dealt with the diverse facets of trust or complied to the specific referents of interest. Consequently there has been emerging agreement that trust should be viewed as a complex multidimensional construct (Gillespie & Mann, 2000, 2003; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt & Camerer, 1998).

In addition to the aforementioned claims of Mayer *et al.* (1995) concerning the difficulty of defining trust in the literature, together with the abovementioned multidimensionality of trust, others such as Mishra (1996) cautions that there are problems associated with studying trust as a unidimensional construct, rather than a multidimensional construct. This therefore implies the need to examine trust from a multidimensional perspective as opposed to a unidimensional construct (Mishra, 1996).

Cerff (2004) views trust as value-laden and therefore requires a degree of faith to attain its potential. According to Fukuyama (1990, pp. 26-27) these values require: “habituation to the moral norms of a community and, in its context, the acquisition of virtues like loyalty, honesty, and dependability”. Fukuyama (1990) equates the concept of trust with the concept of “social capital”, which he initially defines as a productive association or the ability of people to effectively work together, and goes on to observe that trust is critical not only to economic life, but to virtually every other aspect of existence as well. Therefore, Fukuyama (1990) is concerned with large scale social settings – nations, societies, and cultures and takes a correspondingly broader view of trust that includes not only personal relationships, but the norms, standards, and codes of behaviour that influence individual, and group conduct and expectations. To this end Fukuyama (1990, p. 26) defines trust as follows:

> Trust is the expectation that arises within a community of regular, honest and cooperative behaviour, based on commonly shared norms, on the part of other members of that community. Those norms can be about deep “value” questions like the nature of God or justice, but they also encompass secular norms like professional standards and codes of behaviour. That is, we trust a doctor not to do us injury because we expect him or her to live by the Hippocratic oath and the standards of the medical profession.

This view is supported by Morgan (1997), who posits that organisations seen from an organic perspective, comprise living organisms that interact with their environments to create conditions necessary for survival.

In view of the above literature Hay (2002, p. 43) accurately observes that: “it may be that when studying the concept [of trust] situational variables prevail to emphasise different components of the concept”.

Hoy and Tshannen-Moran (1999) conducted an extensive review of the literature on trust, looking for some common patterns. They reported that the literature over that past four decades revealed over 150 articles on trust. Whether the focus on trust was individual, organisational, generalised, or behavioural, they made meaning of that literature by searching out common conditions of trust. Coupled with a general willingness to risk vulnerability, Hoy and Tshannen-Moran (1999) identified five facets of trust: (a) benevolence, (b) integrity(honesty), (c) openness, (d) reliability, and (e) competence. Based on this work, Tschannen-Moran (2004), proposed a trust model where she defines trust as being an interrelated composite of these five specific elements. The first two elements deal primarily with relationships and how they are handled, while the latter two deal primarily with tasks and how they are handled.

According to Tschannen-Moran (2004) these elements entail the following:

Benevolence is about caring and good will, and the trust level generated by benevolence is the perception by others that one will act in their best interests out of that care and good will. Put simply, people who are kind and thoughtful about others tend to be trusted more.

Integrity is a similar notion, but it focuses primarily on honesty and authenticity. If one's word or promise to others is seen as not having any hidden agendas, if it can be taken at face value, then that person is perceived as having integrity.

Openness can be viewed as the connector between the relationship and task-oriented elements. Openness is making oneself vulnerable to others by sharing information, influence, and control.

Reliability is perceived when one consistently supplies what is required from them. In daily work and life, trust is built when one accomplishes a decision or the completion of a task by the time committed.

Competence, related to, but distinct from, reliability, is the ability to perform at the level of skill and expertise expected, according to standards appropriate to the task at hand.

It appears as if the search for common conditions of trust can be equated to a search for what constitutes effective working relationships that will not fail when stressed or tested. The five facets of trust identified by Hoy and Tshannen-Moran (1999) and Tshannen-Moran (2004) seem to serve as a start in identifying the dynamics of success and failure in relationships. Other authors identify a somewhat different set of conditions. For example, Bulach and Peterson (1999) base their work on Bulach's (1993, p. 2) definition of trust as: "an interpersonal condition that exists when interpersonal relationships are characterized by an assured reliance or confident dependence on the character, ability, truthfulness, confidentiality and predictability of others in the group".

Central to the notion of trust, seems to be the idea that trust is based on predictability, i.e. to trust one must believe that the other person/party will act in a predictable way which will cause one to act similarly in a situation of high trust.

Therefore this produces the assertion that trust is based on honest and open communication that frequently involves being vulnerable as well as dependent on other (employees). Giffin and Patton (1971, pp. 161-163) affirm this notion, in ascertaining that trust is important to the development of interpersonal relationships: “particularly in the interpersonal communication process”. Similarly, to Webster’s (1828) definition, other definitions of trust also elicit the relationship-aspect of trust. For example Lewicki and Bunkers' (1996, p. 129) perspective that trust is "central to relationships" is represented through the idea of friendship and confidence in another. This also reflects the views of Farling *et al.* (1999); Giffin (1967); Giffin and Patton (1971); Heckscher, Eisenstat and Rice (1994); and Kouzes and Posner (1993) concerning the importance of trust to interpersonal relationships.

In light of this conclusion, Cook and Wall’s (1980) definition of trust, based on a generally similar view of Shaw’s (1997) definition, was regarded as most appropriate in describing trust for purposes of this study. According to Cook and Wall (1980, p. 39), trust is expressed as:

> … the extent to which one is willing to ascribe good intentions to, and have confidence in the words and actions of other people.

According to Cook and Wall (1980) their definition has two dimensions associated with it, i.e. faith in the trustworthy actions of others, and confidence in the ability of others.

Mayer *et al.*’s (1995) dyadic trust model focuses on trust in an organisation between two specific parties, i.e. the trusting party (trustor) and the person/party to be trusted (trustee). In view of the above arguments, it could be reasoned that trust is built when a trustor takes a risk and acts in a trusting way, and the other party or trustee responds supportively in a trustworthy way. The key however, to building this kind of required trust, is by being trustworthy. It could therefore be argued that trust consists of a propensity to trust (trusting), and at the same time being trustworthy. Thus, in the case of the trustor, s/he exhibits the propensity to trust, and in return the trustee reveals trustworthiness. According to Lester and Brower (2003) one of the most widely accepted definitions of trust, is based on Mayer *et al.*’s (1995) definition, i.e. a willingness to be vulnerable to the actions of another party … and that this vulnerability leaves the trustor open to the possibility of disappointment or betrayal.

Drawn from the above, it could be deduced that the propensity to trust (trusting) involves three distinct, yet interacting dimensions:

a. A highly cognitive and calculative dimension. This may involve raising questions like: “Can one trust another person/party to persist and continue in the relationship/partnership?”, and: “How can one know/have certainty that the other person/party will view their partner’s/trustee’s concerns in same regard and defend it, if needs be?”

b. An emotional connection/attachment that enables a person/party to move beyond sheer rational/logical prediction. This dimension encompasses the proverbial “leap of faith”. Implying that one’s trust will be honoured and respected, and at the same time acknowledging that the leader may at times know better that his/her followers.

c. A conviction in the ethical/moral character and benevolence of the trustee.

Consequently, certain related visible behaviours associated with trusting (propensity to trust) could possibly include (and is probably inexhaustive to) openness, (information)sharing, involved/participative design-making, and transparency.

Based on these three proactive dimensions, three corresponding reactions of trustworthiness can be inferred:

a. A level of necessary competence or ability, meaning the capacity and aptitude of the trustee to deliver or perform according to the trustor’s expectations and confidence.

b. A level of willingness or cooperativeness, implying a desire on the side of the trustee to meet the above stated.

c. Character, meaning the moral commitment of the trustee to meet these concerns of the trustor, irrespective of possible difficulties or problems encountered.

Subsequently, certain related visible behaviours associated with trustworthiness could probably include (and not be limited to) the expression of acceptance, support, commitment, cooperative intentions, and constructive disagreement.

Ricketts (1997, p. 556) refers to trustworthiness as “the quality deserving of trust or confidence and being honest, faithful, reliable, and dependable”.

Studying the literature on trust, it seems evident that trust has several, largely diverse bases (e.g. Kramer, 1999). Equally, how one defines trust is likely to vary with context (e.g. Hay, 2002). It is also clear that the different dimensions of trust present a multidimensional construct that is more or less coherent with Webster's (1828) original definition. Adding to Webster's definition, Bennis and Nanus (1985, p. 153) state that: "trust involves integrity, mutual respect, reliability, competence and vision … [and that] trust is the emotional glue that binds leaders and followers together". Linking onto this Heckscher *et al.* (1994, p. 132) argue that: “if the glue of trust is not present amongst members of an organization, it is difficult to bring about important organizational changes”. Therefore, trust can be regarded as facilitating the creation of an organisational climate conducive to cooperation (Barnard, 1938, 1968). This climate of trust results in increased levels of service, both leader-to-follower and follower-to-leader (Farling *et al.,* 1999).

Therefore, based on Cook and Wall’s (1980) and Shaw’s (1997) definitions of trust, in conjunction with the above arguments and inferences on trust, trust operationally and organisational-specifically defined by the researcher is:

> [Trust is] based on the perception that a certain choice/decision can lead to gains or losses, and whether a person/party will gain or lose depends on the behaviour of the other person/party involved. Accordingly, an unambiguous awareness exists that the consequential incurred loss will inevitably be greater than the gain – therefore the assumption exists that the other person/party will likely behave in such manner that reciprocal gain, rather than loss occurs.

With reference to the specific study, it was decided to examine the interpersonal trust relationships within an organisation, i.e. trust between leaders and followers. This decision was based on research showing that, despite an increasing importance of trust awareness in organisations, a diminishing level of interpersonal trust is observed in many organisations, specifically between leaders and followers (Martins, Watkins, Von der Ohe & De Beer, 1997; Sitkin & Roth, 1993; Blackburn, 1992; Mishra & Morissey, 1990).

1.5.1 Defining a team

In recent years, work teams have emerged as a focus of special interest (Bishop, Scott, Goldsby & Cropanzano, 2005). The complexity and competitiveness of the global business community has necessitated numerous workplace innovations, including the extensive implementation of teams (Sheridan, 1997). The importance of teams has therefore been recognised by numerous authors (e.g. Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Sundstrom, De Meuse & Futrell, 1990).

Kozlowski and Ilgen (2006, p 7) define a work team as follows:

> Teams can be defined as (a) two or more individuals who (b) interact socially (often face-to-face, but increasingly virtual) (c) possess one or more common goals to perform organisationally relevant tasks (e) exhibit interdependencies with respect to workflow, goals, and outcomes (f) have a differentiated structure of roles and responsibilities, and (g) are embedded in an encompassing organisational system, with boundaries and linkages to the broader context and task environment.

Banutu-Gomez (2004) claims that exemplary followers are able to work functionally together in a team, because they focus on several essential skills required to develop and enhance an effective team. Therefore, teams with unified cultures are likely to perform better than other teams. According to Chang, Bordia and Duck (2003) a unified team culture facilitates internal communication by ensuring that all of their team members share a common understanding of the team’s purpose and goals. Once goals, structures, and norms are established and shared, a team can work more effectively, and its members conform to the group norm of high productivity (Chang *et al.,* 2003). A leader who uses supportive and serving strategies with team members, could consequently bring out their best (Dubrin, 2001).

The team literature is generally characterised by an "Input → Process → Output" model (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006). Input includes such structure and design variables as team composition, the nature of the task, and the resources available in the team's environment. Process consists of the interactions among teammates — both task and social interactions — that are frequently described as the "black box" of team research (Weingart, 1997). Output involves the results of the team experience: The quality of the team's product, the impact of the experience on individual team members, and the viability of the team as a functioning unit (Hackman, 1987, 1990, 2002). This model (and refined versions thereof) is frequently adopted in reviews and integrations of the team literature (e.g. Gist, Locke & Taylor, 1987; Guzzo & Dickson, 1996; Guzzo & Shea, 1995; Pelled, Eisenhardt & Xin, 1999). According to this model, the pattern of informal communication among teammates is generally treated as a process variable, mediating the relationship between inputs and outputs (e.g. Brown & Miller, 2000).

1.6 The variable team commitment and its definitions

An increasing number of researchers within the organisational context (e.g. Ellemers, de Gilder & ven den Heuel, 1998; Witt, Hilton & Hochwarter, 2001), emphasise the importance that employees in most modern organisations are expected to work together in teams. This has raised the collective recognition by numerous authors of the growing importance of teams and team-functioning (e.g. Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Sundstrom, De Meuse, & Futrell, 1990). According to Bishop, Scott, Goldsby and Cropanzano (2005) this probably explains why work teams have in recent years emerged as a focus of special interest. According to Ilgen and Kozlowski (2006, p. 4) organisations world-wide are: "well along a decade and a half evolution in the design of work, shifting from individual jobs in functionalized structures to teams embedded in more complex workflow systems … a variety of forces are driving this shift in work organization to teams".

Parallel with this shift in work organisation to teams is also the shift in research focus from the study of small interpersonal groups in social psychology to the study of work teams in organisational psychology (Ilgen & Kozlowski, 2006). This shift in the focal point of team research was unequivocally recognised by the work of Moreland, Hogg and Hains (1994) who indicated the decline of group research in social psychology. Similarly, Levine and Moreland (1990, p. 620) concluded that small group research "is alive and well and living elsewhere outside the confines of social psychological laboratories". At least seven major reviews of the work team literature in organisational psychology appeared between 1990 and 2000 (see Bettenhausen, 1991; Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Gully, 2000; Guzzo & Dickson, 1996; Guzzo & Shea, 1992; Hackman, 1992; Sundstrom, McIntyre, Halfhill & Richards, 2000). More recent reviews of work team research by Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson and Jundt (2005) and Kozlowski and Bell (2003) reflect this emerging perspective of dynamical work team research.

In this regard, Sheridan (1997) asserts that complexity and competitiveness of the global business community has necessitated numerous workplace innovations, including the extensive implementation of teams. According to Bishop, Scott and Burroughs (2000) the use of work teams has become one of the most accepted strategies for increasing productivity and employee flexibility in the United States. Bishop *et al.* (2000) report that 78 percent of U.S. organisations indicate at least some of their employees are organised into work teams. In those organisations that utilise teams, an average of 61% of all employees are members of teams (Bishop *et al.,* 2000).

Bishop and Scott (1997) point out that while commitment has been declining, the use of work teams has been on the rise. These authors claim that data indicate 47 percent of Fortune 1000 companies use teams to some extent, and 60 percent intend to increase the use of teams in the near future (Bishop & Scott, 1997). However, team success is often dependent on high levels of employee commitment - to both the organisation, and its goals (Bishop & Scott, 1997).

Not surprisingly, one of the most widely researched topics in psychology and management remains the concept and role of organisational commitment (Rylander, 2003). Though organisational commitment (OC), or the commitment of an employee to his or her employing organisation, have received much attention in the literature (Hunt & Morgan 1994), different definitions continue to be used (Rylander, 2003). Thus, despite the plethora of studies on organisational commitment, and its nature, antecedents, consequences, and correlates, the issue remains ill-defined and ill-conceptualised (Suliman & Iles, 2000). Equally, Morris, Lydka and O'Creevy (1993) reason there is no consensus over the definition of organisational commitment.

Nonetheless, organisational commitment has been linked to important outcomes, such as performance and turnover (Hom & Griffeth 1995). Moreover, according to Rylander (2003) OC has received attention as an intermediate or mediating linkage between antecedent variables, and these outcome variables (e.g. Johnston, Parasuraman, Futrell & Black, 1990; Sager & Johnston, 1989).

Correspondingly, organisations have reported a number of benefits derived from the use of work teams (Bishop *et al.,* 2000). These include (amongst others) increased individual performance, better quality, less absenteeism, reduced employee turnover, leaner plant structures, and considerable improvements in production cycle time (Harris, 1992). According to Bishop *et al.* (2000), teams are considered, in general, an important ingredient of organisational success in the modern economy – distinctly characterised by a need for swift information exchange, and equally prompt response to customer demands (Cohen & Bailey, 1997). Other possible reasons for the substantial increase of work teams could be due to "old" organisational structures being too slow, unresponsive, and expensive to be competitive within the hyper-competitive business environment; work teams that can yield quality, productivity, and cost improvements; and employees that can benefit from increased autonomy and empowerment accompanied by team-functioning (Campion, Medsker & Higgs, 1993; Hackman, 1986; Harris, Hirschfeld, Field & Mossholder, 1993).

It can therefore be argued that organisations should seek to measure accurately the commitment of their employees, and simultaneously finding ways to increase the level of commitment of their employees. Rylander (2003) ascertains that, while the OC construct has received the most attention in the psychology and management literature, it is also important in marketing (i.e. salesperson commitment). This attention can primarily be ascribed to the importance of commitment in understanding the actions of sales employees, and the relationships between employees and organisations. In this regard, however, active research on OC continues, due to a lack of thorough understanding of the conceptual definition and measurement of commitment (Rylander, 2003).

Scrutiny of the history of selected OC studies and its related definitions, reveal that OC authors and studies, indicate an evidently multi-disciplinary research approach, as well as concurrent opposing streams of thought, associated with the nature of OC. During this period OC emerged as a distinct construct, and became the most developed focus of employee workplace commitment, with regards to theory and research (Meyer, Allen & Topolnytsky, 1998; Swailes, 2002). This include the views specifically of Becker (1960), Steers (1977), O’Reilly and Chatman (1986), and Allen and Meyer (1990). Cumulatively, Becker (1960) defined commitment as (1) prior actions of a person staking some originally extraneous interest (i.e. side bet) on his following a consistent line of activity; (2) a recognition of this side-bet; and (3) the resulting consistent behaviour. Steers (1977) defined organisational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in, a particular organisation – with (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (3) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation.

O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) attempted to improve on these “traditional treatments” of OC, by means of emphasising commitment's "central theme", i.e. the nature of individuals' psychological attachments to organisations. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) suggested that there are three underlying dimensions of psychological attachment, *viz* compliance, identification, and internalisation. O’Reilly and Chatman (1986) refer to compliance as attachment based on the expectation of receiving extrinsic rewards, such as pay and employment as the result of work activities. Identification refers to attachment based on valued membership in, and affiliation with, the organisation – i.e. the degree to which an individual takes pride in an organisation and its values, while internalisation refers to attachment based on the congruence between organisational and individual values – i.e the degree to which individuals adopt an organisation's values as their own. In addition to putting forward these three dimensions of psychological attachment, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) developed a 12-item instrument, namely the *Psychological Attachment Instrument*, (or *PAI*), to measure them.

According to Meyer and Allen (1997, p. 8), the meaning of commitment has two different connotations. “The first involves efforts to explain that the nature of commitment that defines the relationship between an individual and some object can vary. The second involves attempts to distinguish among the objects to which an individual becomes committed”.

Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) report that there is no agreement on the nature of commitment among researchers. Rather, they tend to ascribe their own meanings/interpretations to the term. In addition, such concepts as loyalty, allegiance, engagement and attachment are often used as synonyms for the term. For example, Salancik (1977) defines commitment as a binding of an individual to behavioural acts. Furthermore, Ghemawat (1991) describes commitment as the persistence of strategies. Meyer and Allen (1997; also Allen and Meyer, 1990) suggest that commitment is a psychological state that characterises the individual’s relationship with an organisation, and has implications for the decision to continue membership in the company.

Sequentially Allen and Meyer (1990) arrived at defining organisational commitment in terms of – affective (emotional); normative; and continuance (calculative) commitment. A*ffective commitment referring to an* employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the organisation. *Normative commitment entailing an*: employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation, and c*ontinuance commitment being* based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organisation. The latter, being further divided into two separate, yet highly correlated sub-scales concerned with the costs associated of leaving the organisation, i.e. personal sacrifice and lack of alternatives (Meyer, Allen & Gellatly, 1990).

Becker (1960) encouraged an increase in attention to commitment in organisations. However, there was seemingly little development in the OC construct until the empirical research on OC gained momentum and culminated in specific definitions and measurements during the 1970s – e.g. the empirical quantitative work of Buchanan (1974) and Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974). The latter article presented the *Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)*, which has generally been regarded as the most widely used definition, and measure of OC (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Mowday, 1999). However, during this time, OC was by and large still regarded as a uni-dimensional construct, despite being viewed as an employee's identification and involvement with an organisation (Mowday, 1999), accompanied with little consensus regarding the underlying dimensionality of the construct (Meyer *et al.,* 1998). In the dominant tradition of commitment literature commitment is often considered as a unidimensional concept. However, this view has been challenged by Reichers (1985). He argues that organisations comprise different constituencies, each with its own targets and values. Commitment can be best understood as a collection of multiple commitments. Consequently, conflict may exist among an individual's commitments, and individuals may have different objects of commitment. When someone is thought of as committed, the interpretation is typically that s/he is committed to something. Thus, one can focus one's commitment to the organisation, job, task, career, profession. For example, Gregersen and Black (1992) studied expatriate managers, and they found that commitment of managers focus on multiple objects.

The definitions of OC evolved when authors began to define OC in terms of its sub-components, or multi-dimensionality, as opposed to a single construct (Meyer & Allen, 1984). Despite other multi-dimensional definitions of commitment, two frameworks dominated and generated most research (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). These are the three-dimensional framework of O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) – compliance, identification, and internalisation OC, and the three-dimensional framework of Allen and Meyer (1990) – affective, normative, and continuance OC. However, Iles, Mabey and Robertson (1990) argue that little empirical evidence for such effects has been presented, and the conceptualisation of employee commitment has often been presented in perplexing and disorganised ways – therefore failing to recognise its multi–dimensional nature. Researchers have sought to identify the antecedents of commitment, concentrating on personal/demographic, task, role, and supervisory style variables taken from job satisfaction research (Iles *et al.,* 1990).

Despite differences across OC frameworks, Meyer and Allen (1997) argue that important similarities exists, i.e. the OC frameworks share the core essence of commitment. One such similarity is that the different dimensions of the OC frameworks are simply different mindsets of how an individual is bound towards an entity (e.g. an organisation, or team) and/or a course of action (e.g. organisation/team goals). Meyer and Herscovitch (2001) argue that the majority of models indicate, as one of the dimensions, an emotional bond with the organisation. Mowday (1999) denotes an overlap between Porter *et al.*'s (1974) definition of commitment and the above multi-dimensional frameworks. Similarly, Randall, Fedor and Longenecker (1990) claim that the affective component is closely aligned with the Porter *et al.* (1974) OCQ scale. Dunham, Grube and Castaneda (1994) maintain that O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) internalisation commitment, and Meyer and Allen's (1991) affective commitment, are see as equal to Porter *et al.*'s (1974) commitment, as measured by the OCQ. Jaros, Jermier, Koehler & Sincich (1993) label Allen and Meyer's (1990) and Meyer and Allen's (1984, 1991) normative commitment, as "moral" commitment. Equally, Allen and Meyer (1990) and Rylander (2003) reason that organisational commitment is the extent to which an individual identifies with an organisation, which is expressed in a willingness to exert extra effort on behalf of the organisation and the desire to stay with the organisation. The latter would typically resemble affective commitment. For this reason the affective commitment scale/component of Meyer and Allen (1991) is commonly equated with "organisational commitment." In fact, a body of research found that the OCQ converges with the affective component of the Meyer and Allen scale (Randall *et al.* 1990; Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993; Dunham *et al.* 1994).

From Cooper's (2003, p. 68) definition of commitment, this overlapping affective aspect surfaces, i.e.: "commitment is the Holy Grail of organizational behavior and business psychology … the individual's psychological bond to the organization". Based on these views on commitment, it appears as if commitment is largely defined in terms of attitude or behaviour.

These views have established OC as a multi-dimensional as opposed to a uni-dimensional construct. Nowadays it is widely acknowledged that OC take on multiple dimensions, and that these dimensions have different antecedents and outcomes associated to it (Mowday, 1999; Meyer & Allen, 1997). However, Rylander (2003) comments that although the majority of researchers define OC in a global sense, the measurement of OC tends to follow a component approach.

Bishop *et al.* (2005) indicate that in many modern team-based organisations, the significant features of the aforementioned literatures reveal a confluence in terms of employees who are members of at least two entities, or foci (i.e. the organisation and the team), on which they could confer their commitment, and perceive support from. Two decades earlier Reichers (1985) conceptualised, and Becker (1992) empirically supported views on employee commitment as a multiple foci phenomenon. Both Reichers (1985) and Becker (1992) argue that there exist a number of foci, or entities, upon which employees may confer their commitment (e.g. company, department, union, or team). Furthermore, different levels of commitment held for the various foci are independent within individuals (Becker & Billings, 1993).

Research has shown that many of the benefits associated with teams are related to the level of an individual's commitment to both the organisation, and to his/her work team (Becker, 1992; Bishop & Scott, 1997; Bishop, Scott, & Casino, 1997; Bishop *et al.,* 2000). Ricketts (1997, p. 548) observes commitment as: “applying oneself to a task until it is completed”. Porter *et al.* (1974) define oganisational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in, a particular organisation. Based on this view, Bishop *et al.* (2000) and Cooper (2003) reason that conceptually, this construct can be characterised by at least three factors: (a) a strong belief in, and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982). This aspect of employees’ perception of the degree to which their organisation is committed to them as employees, is called perceived organisational support (POS) by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986). Thus, according to Eisenberger *et al.,* (1986) this POS describes the extent to which employees believe that their organisation values their contribution, and cares about their well-being.

An employee’s level of commitment is thus regarded as the degree to which s/he is committed to the various significant *foci* that exist in the workplace (Becker & Billings, 1993). For this reason Bishop and Scott (1997) contemplate the importance of determining the focus of employees’ commitment when assessing employees' attachment. The main reason is that different individuals may have different "profiles of commitment", meaning individuals may experience a high level of commitment to the team, but not to the organisation, or be committed to both, or be committed to neither of these foci (Becker & Billings, 1993; Bishop & Scott, 1996, 1997). Based on this argument, team commitment can be conceptualised similarly because teams develop goals and values that members may accept, and/or members may choose to exert varying degrees of effort on the team’s behalf, and/or members may have varying levels of desire to maintain their team membership (Becker & Billings, 1993).

Employees’ commitment are however influenced by the extent to which they believe the organisation and its leader(s) value their contribution, care about their well-being, provide a supportive atmosphere, provide encouragement, supply adequate information, value their opinion, and formulate unambiguous and realistic goals (Cheung, 2000; Eisenberger *et al.,* 1986; Holland, 1985; O’Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell, 1991).

Subsequent research has identified the work team as an entity with which employees perceive reciprocal attachment (Kottke & Shararfinski, 1988; Bishop, 1998). In this regard members of work teams should be able to form perceptions as to whether, and to what degree their teammates value their input and care about them. Consequently Bishop *et al.* (2005, p. 159) argue that perceived team support (PTS) can accordingly be defined as: “the extent to which members believe that the team values their contribution and cares about their well-being”. In their study Bishop *et al.* (2005) found that PTS significantly predicted organisational commitment. Subsequently, the level of support members feel that they receive from their teams and the amount of commitment they hold for their teams is of significant importance (Bishop *et al.,* 2000, 2005).

Team commitment can thus be defined along the former statement. Teams develop goals and values that members may accept, subsequently team members choose the degree of effort they will exert towards the team, resulting in team members that may have varying levels of aspiration to continue their affiliation with the team (Becker & Billings, 1993). However, Morris, Lydka and O'Creevy (1993) claim that consensus on the definition of team commitment hardly exists.

Prior research also supports the notion that commitment to the organisation and commitment to a work team is related to a number of desired employee outcomes. Organisational commitment has been linked to extra role behaviour (Gregersen, 1993; Shore & Wayne, 1993); job performance and satisfaction (Gallie & White, 1993; Lawler, Mohrman & Ledford, 1995; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990); and lower employee turnover (Bishop, Scott, & Casino, 1997; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), whereas team commitment has been linked to extra role behaviour (Becker & Billings, 1993); desired team and organisational related outcomes (Becker & Billings, 1993; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990); improved team performance (Bishop & Scott, 1997; Bishop *et al.,* 1997; Scott & Townsend, 1994); high levels of task interdependence having positive effects on both organisational and team commitment (Bishop & Scott, 1997), and team commitment having a direct influence on employees' willingness to help each other (Bishop & Scott, 1997). Withdrawal behaviour such as absenteeism, turnover, and intention to quit have been linked to low levels of both organisational commitment (Mowday *et al.,* 1982) and team commitment (Becker & Billings, 1993).

Derived from the above arguments, it seemed appropriate and suitable to change the referent from 'organisation' to 'team' commitment – viewing team commitment as a form of behavioural commitment – for purposes of this study. Thus, team commitment is seen as the psychological attachment that the team members feel toward the team of which they are members (Pearce & Herbik, 2004). Team commitment is therefore regarded as analogous to organisational commitment, except that the target of the attachment is the team rather than the larger organisation, of which the team is a part. Following the same sequence as in the case of trust, it was decided to investigate commitment between team members and team leaders. For this reason it was decided to adopt the Allen and Meyer (1990) definition of organisational commitment in terms of – affective (emotional); normative; and continuance (calculative) commitment. Another reason for using Allen and Meyer's definition for purposes of this study, is based on the research work of

Rylander (2003) whose study targets included sales force employees’ and managers’ commitment, measured by the OCQ.

Although there is no consensus about the definition of commitment, many writers would probably agree on the following idea which we adopt in this study: commitment reflects the “psychological bond” that ties an individual to multiple objects but that the nature of the bond can vary (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Two main approaches to studying commitment can be identified in research: the attitudinal and behavioural approaches (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Reichers, 1985). The attitudinal approach focuses on the process by which individuals think about their relationship with an object. Mowday *et al.* (1982) contend that it can be understood as a mind set in which people consider the extent to which their own goals are congruent to those of an organisation. In the behavioural approach, individuals are viewed as becoming committed to a particular course of action. It relates to the process by which people become locked into an organisation and how they deal with it. Much research of both approaches involves the quantitative measurement of commitment. Consequently, individuals are easily understood as objects that are caused to behave or react by forces acting on them, and much prior research relies on extensive measurements of personal attributes.

1.7 The reason for, and contribution of, investigating the relationship between servant leadership behaviour, trust, team commitment, and unit effectiveness

The above discussion evidently stresses the need for continued research in this domain. From the literature review it becomes evident that, exploring the identified constructs require rigorous quantitative and qualitative research, but especially quantitative research, to further the study field of servant leadership (Dennis & Winston, 2003). As indicated by the previous research studies conducted on these variables, relationships do exist between, and link, servant leadership and other OB constructs. As indicated, some of these relationships are significant; positive; others mediocre; while some have inverse relationships.

This study contributes to the existing understanding of servant leadership in general, and specifically in terms of the following:

- No previous research study, investigating these specific constructs, has been conducted before – at least not empirically.
- Positive organisational psychological constructs have not yet been integrated to understand servant leadership and its influence on a unit's effectiveness. Previous research only investigated the various variables separately, or within an organisational context, in relation to servant leadership.
- Especially quantitative methodologies have been lacking in previous research on servant leadership. The current research studies servant leadership from a quantitative perspective.
- A realistic workplace environment was used to determine the impact of servant leadership behaviour on the specified variables.

The present study therefore aimed to investigate the respective relationships to exist between the discussed constructs. A model, integrating the relationships between the constructs, is proposed below.

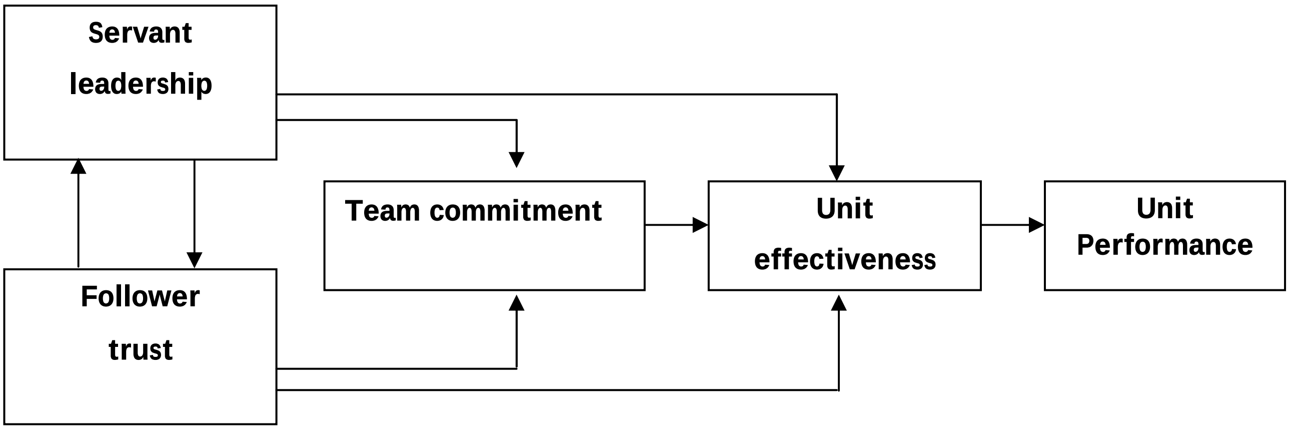


Figure 1.1 Proposed model integrating the relationships between servant leadership, follower trust, team commitment, and unit effectiveness

The present study will attempt to partially validate this model by investigating the relationship between the constructs, which are the focus of this study. The aim of this study can thus be described as follows:

1.7.1 Conceptual aim of the study

Conceptually the overarching aim of the research study was to investigate the nature of (the positive organisational psychological constructs) servant leadership, follower trust, team commitment, and their (respective) relationships to each other, and to unit effectiveness.

1.7.2 Operational aim of the study

Operationally the aim was determining whether a model of sequential relationships among combinations of variables, *viz* servant leadership, follower trust, team commitment and unit effectiveness, within the realm of positive organisational behaviour (POB), could be build successfully. The operational aim subsequently led to the formulation of the research questions for the present study, stated at the end of Chapter 2.

However, although there is considerable evidence that, within the POB realm, the variables of servant leadership, trust, team commitment, and team effectiveness strongly relate to one another in some and/or other combination, to date there is no direct empirical evidence that, in this specific order, a servant leader's behaviour positively relates to increased levels of trust, team commitment, and team effectiveness, i.e. performance outcomes in the workplace. Thus, given the specific POB approach and limited research on the unique composition of antecedents of interest, this was a largely exploratory study.

1.8 Structure of chapters

Chapter 1

In this chapter, a background to the POB variables of servant leadership, trust, and team commitment as well as unit effectiveness was provided. The importance of the study and the main research aims (conceptual and operational) were also presented. Further to this, core concepts were identified, discussed and defined. The importance of how they relate to one another, and an overview of the research problem was given. One of the biggest problems encountered in the literature study was the large number of overlapping and related terms used for the present concepts (especially servant leadership), and the high level of conceptual confusion that exists in literature and research, surrounding these concepts. Conceptual clarification is therefore addressed in Chapter 1, and a conceptual model that integrates the potential relationships between the variables of servant leadership, trust, team commitment, and unit effectiveness is proposed.

Chapter 2

This study is based, firstly, on extensive secondary research through an interdisciplinary literature study. As a large amount of research exists about the variables included in the present study, this body of literature is investigated in Chapter 2. In Chapter 2 each of the POB variables that were introduced in Chapter 1, are elaborated on and discussed in-depth. Not only are overviews, backgrounds, conceptualisations, and models entered into each of the variables included in the present study, but also their relationship(s) to other POB and non-POB variables, based on previous research. The objectives of the present study took on the form of five research questions, with seven resulting research propositions, stated at the end of Chapter 2. In Chapter 2 an *epistemology* approach of the research conducted in the field of OB and its relatedness to variables, are systematically followed, by means of addressing each variable in such manner. *Epistemology* refers to how knowledge is constructed by justifications and beliefs (Dancy, 1985). It seems appropriate to mention that within this epistemological framework, one ought to take note of the *constructivist* (or *formative*) approach to understanding the nature of knowledge. This approach rejects the notion that one can ever have a totally objective account of the phenomena under investigation, because: “all such accounts are linguistic reconstructions” (Bratton *et al.,* 2005). For this reason, the present researcher took extra caution in giving objective account of the literature under discussion. Thus, Chapter 2 can be seen as *ideographic* in nature, implying that many *constructs* are examined in an *exploratory* fashion.

Chapter 3

Based on the factors identified in the literature study that contributed to the proposed conceptual model, this model served as a basis for the design of the methodological approach and applicable questionnaires used in the primary research of the present study. The primary research methodology employed, entailed electronic(web)-based survey research. The empirical work done in the present study and its accompanying methodology are discussed in Chapter 3. Also in Chapter 3 the composition and nature of the sample are described. Additionally, information is given on the characteristics of the measuring instruments, and the way in which data was gathered. The approaches to the analysis of the data are also outlined and justified in this chapter.

Chapter 4

The results of the data analyses are presented in Chapter 4. Analyses were carried out in an attempt to find answers and to prove or disprove the propositions stated in Chapter 2. Several of the research questions could be answered rather unequivocally. The statistical analysis regarding some of the other questions rendered less clear results. These and other findings are detailed in Chapter 4. Chapter 4 can be seen as *nomothetic* in nature, since greater focus is placed on the numerical component than the conceptual component of the constructs.

Chapter 5

In this chapter a discussion and conclusions of the main findings are presented, specifically pertaining to the five research questions and its seven research propositions, stated in Chapter 2. The contributions and implications that the findings of the current study make toward the body of knowledge are discussed in Chapter 5. Also discussed in Chapter 5, are some limitations and shortcomings of the present study. These are discussed in terms of generally recognised limitations of survey research, and specific potential problems of the present study. Lastly, recommendations for future research are made in Chapter 5. This is described in terms of theoretical (new theories/thinking/body of knowledge), and methodological recommendations.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Leadership, clearly a complex social phenomenon, evidently lacks real boundaries and a clear definition (Bennis, 1959; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978; Kakabadse, Nortier & Abramovici, 1998). The collection of behaviours, interactions, outcomes, and social phenomena labelled as leadership appears heterogeneous and often contradictory. This collection is also often complimented by a plethora of prescriptive advice on how to lead, guaranteed to justify almost any approach to leadership. Barker (2002) observes that, despite the endless debates and amplified discussion surrounding leadership, it has not much expanded the body of knowledge about leadership significantly. What leadership is all about is still little understood (Kakabadse, *et al.*, 1998).

Nonetheless, the issue of leadership has been an ongoing discussion for several decades (Kotter, 1990; Truske, 1999; Posner & Kouzes, 1988; Bennis, 1989; Bennis & Nanus, 1985) and has “roots as far back as 1921” (Hughes, Ginnett & Curphy, 1999, p. 8). It is considered as an: “essential component of industrial and organisational psychology” (Howell & Dipboye, 1982, pp. 125-176). Katz and Kahn (1978, p. 574), state the following: "In the description of organizations, no word is more often used than leadership, and perhaps no word is used with such varied meanings. Leadership is sometimes used as if it were an attribute of personality, sometimes as if it were a characteristic of certain positions, and sometime as an attribute of behavior”.

Clearly, leadership has a perceived influence in organisations and considered an essential component of powerful organisational cultures (Kotter & Heskett, 1992). Accordingly, different types of leadership styles have been examined and challenged. Since the nineteenth century, a number of different approaches to leadership have been developed, each placing different emphasis on what constitutes good leadership. For example, trait theories (Galton, 1869; James, 1880) attempt to explain leadership in terms of certain distinctive personality characteristics of leaders — an early “great person” approach revived in the more recent appearance as "charismatic" leadership" (House, 1977; Nadler & Tushman, 1990). In a fundamental move away from trait theories, situational leadership theories explain that specific contexts give rise to specific kinds of leadership and to specific persons who embody leadership.

Similarly, behavioural theories of leadership focus on the observable and measurable acts and behaviour of leaders, rather than on their invisible traits. Interactional or contingency theories of leadership emphasise the interaction between traits and situational variables (Fiedler, 1967; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; Vroom & Yetton, 1974), while transactional leadership theories focus on the exchanges between leaders and followers.

Yukl, Gordon and Taber (2002) maintain that a large amount of the empirical research on effective leadership has sought to identify the types of behaviours that enhance individual, and collective performance. According to Yukl *et al*. (2002) the most common research method has been a survey field study with a behaviour description questionnaire. For the past half century, numerous survey studies have examined the correlation between leadership behaviour, and various indicators of leadership effectiveness (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2002). Other methods (e.g. laboratory experiments, field experiments, critical incidents) have been used much less frequently to identify effective types of leadership behaviour.

A major problem in leadership research and theory has been a lack of agreement about which behaviour categories are relevant and meaningful to leaders (Yukl, Gordon & Taber, 2002). It is difficult to integrate findings from five decades of research unless the many diverse leadership behaviours can be integrated in a parsimonious and meaningful conceptual framework.

To this end, Gibb (1969) argues that to understand this tendency for social-science studies to include everything, it is worth looking at the separate components of the leadership syndrome – from groups of followers, to situations, to traits – as they were piled up in any sequence.

Therefore, Gibb (1969) argues for beginning with the group – evidently since individuals are not isolated. According to Gibb (1969, p. 207): “A group is characterized by the interaction of its members, in such a way that each unit is changed by its group membership and each would be likely to undergo a change as a result of changes in the group. In this case there is a dependence of each member upon the entire group, and the relation between any two members is a function of the relation between other members”.

Despite serious methodological difficulties, which make inferences of cause and effect dubious, most studies seem to show that leaders have some sensitivity to group concerns (Gibb, 1954, 1968, 1969). Is it true, therefore, that members of a group (or followers) approve of leaders who show them "consideration" and who side with the group in disputes with outsiders or management (Gibb, 1969). This reversed approach to traits, however, is undermined by situational findings. Pelz (in Gibb, 1969) discovered that most white-collar workers – aware of the need for someone to run interference for them outside the work group – preferred a supervisor who was well connected in the hierarchy, even if that meant the supervisor was not seen as one of the group. These findings were rationalised by positing a difference between task and emotional leadership – it thus seemed that sensitive leadership made the group content, but not necessarily effective.

Once leadership comes to depend on relevance within a group, group members lead as well as follow (Janda, 1960). From this realisation, it can be concluded that every group member can be, and often is, a leader. As Gibb (1968, p. 93) puts it: “The individual who engages in leadership events, becomes a sometimes leader". Then leadership is viewed and treated as Cartwright and Zander (1953, p. 94) have asserted, "[leadership] is viewed as the performance of those acts which help the group achieve its preferred outcomes”.

Some claim this is where the blurring begins; as social life becomes a seamless network, connectedness replaces separability (Wildavsky, 1987). Although this crisis of *leadership* seems to have appeared only recently, due to basic human nature it has existed for some time. This is, in large part due to a common problem of individually unique and different people coming together and working cooperatively as a team (Wilson, 1998).

The question thus arises, on what basis are groups organised? Simply saying that life is a social activity seems like an aphorism. Specifying forms of social organisation and relating each to different types of leadership would reduce, instead of expand, the realm of relevant leadership behaviour. However, this appears rarely to be the case. Instead, Proshansky and Seidenberg (1965, p. 377) assert that group members "share a common set of norms, beliefs, and values".

Leaders and followers were embedded in history. They interacted in regard to something, and that something was called "the situation” (Wildavsky, 1987). "Situationists" entertained a variety of opinions. Stodgill (in Tannenbaum, Weschler & Massarik, 1961, p. 23) concluded that the: "qualities, characteristics and skills required in a leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader". Since separate situations make different demands on leaders, Bavelas (in Gibb, 1969, p. 228) suggested that one should instead try to "define the leadership function that must be performed in these situations and regard as leadership those acts which perform them".

Consequently, the question arises, what, indeed, is a situation? Thomas and Znanieck's (in Gibb, 1968, p. 93) famous "definition of the situation" is composed of kitchen-sink variables: beliefs, values, groups, the physical environment, tasks, perception of all the above, and, for good measure, the surrounding culture (Wildavsky, 1987). Not surprisingly, Hare (1957, p. 134) has concluded that: "the major finding of this research is that there are more differences between situations than between the two leader styles tested in his research”.

Gibb (1969, p. 268) adds: "No doubt Sanford (1952) was right when he predicted that studies focusing on anyone of these aspects alone will continue to yield 'positive but unexciting correlations'. What is needed is a conception in which the complex interactions of these factors can be incorporated".

Expecting leaders to follow, to abide by, or even to change group goals, requires some action. To this end, Hollander (1978) addressed this task in a creative construction called "idiosyncrasy credit," wherein he suggests that leaders first perform a series of services for their followers, thus building up credit, then exchange those credits for permission. This approach seems in line with organisations moving from managing by instructions, objectives, hierarchy, or autocracy toward managing by values, where different leadership styles are necessary (DiPadova & Faerman, 1993; Dolan & Garcia, 2002). Subsequently, this clearly service-oriented view of leadership and its associated effectiveness, constitutes the foundation of the servant leadership notion.

Gibb's (1969) calls his numerous surveys of the literature on leadership, in search for the ultimate synthesis, “interaction theory", possibly because it covers all conceivable relations. According to Gibb (1969, p. 268), a comprehensive theory of leadership should not only include the personality of leaders, followers, groups, and situations; it also: "must recognize that it is not these variables *per se* that enter into the leadership relation, but rather the perception of the leader by himself and by others, the leader's perception of those others, and the shared perception by leader and others of the group and the situation".

It seems as though the lack of discernment of when and why certain leader behaviours should be offered in particular, has left leadership scholars dissatisfied with many current perspectives, and still searching for greater understanding of the relationship between leader behaviour and various follower outcomes (Humphreys, 2005).

Osborn, Hunt and Jauch (2002, p. 797) summarise this situation most succinctly, declaring that: “Leadership and its effectiveness, in large part, is dependent upon the context”. Boal (2000, p. 525) states that regrettably: “many . . . theories of leadership appear context free”. Equally, much of the literature has “neglected the . . . context in which leadership is embedded” (Shamir & Howell, 1999, p. 257). Agreement among Osborn *et al.* (2002) led to the consensus that current leadership research, void of contextual implications, is not necessarily invalid, but rather incomplete.

Humphreys (2005) states that the recognition of contextual influence is not new. It can be seen in the contingency based theories of Fiedler (1967), House (1971), Vroom and Yetton (1973), and Hersey and Blanchard (1977), as well as the more macro systems approaches of Khandwalla (1977) and Melcher and Melcher (1980), that all identified the need for congruency between leadership behaviour and contextual variables.

However, only recently have leadership scholars turned their attention back to various contextual implications (Boal, 2000). Even with this contemporary scrutiny of context, most of the literature is conceptual in nature, and directed primarily toward transformational/charismatic leadership (Humphreys, 2005).

In support of the previous argument, Pawar and Eastman (1997) proposed that factors such as structure, governance, adaptive style, and boundary-spanning would impact an organisation’s acceptance of transforming leadership. Also, Conger (1993) argued there is an exchange between leadership and context whereby each influences the other, depending on the situation. Although Gardner and Avolio (1998) focused on the leader/follower dyad, they also proposed that environmental turbulence and organisational context would influence this relationship. Other conceptual articles (cf Baliga & Hunt, 1988; Shamir and Howell, 1999) have suggested a connection between transformational leader effectiveness and the organisational life cycle. On the contrary, empirical support has been rather insubstantial (Humphreys, 2005). Offering evidence, and potential explanation, Pillai and Meindl (1991) found that students selected more charismatic leaders during periods of crisis, but failed in the attempt to replicate those findings in a later field study (Pillai & Meindl, 1998). According to Conger (1999), the seminal empirical investigation of leadership and context was conducted by Roberts and Bradley (1988). In their study Roberts and Bradley examined a school superintendent who was labelled a charismatic leader by followers, yet in a different context (as state commissioner of education) that attribution apparently failed to appear (Conger, 1999). This seems in line with what Mischel (1973) describes as the (specific) charismatic dynamic situation representing a ‘weak context’ – since there are no clear set of guidelines, rules, or directions for action. Research has indicated that in weak contexts, people are more vulnerable, since they are unsure what direction to pursue – consequently, it is in these situations that the most profoundly positive, *and* negative leadership takes place (Conger, 1990; Luthans, Peterson & Ibrayeva, 1998).

Equally Rahim (2006) identifies certain shortcomings in existing leadership theories. According to Rahim (2006) these shortcomings include:

- the leadership style;
- the situation or context; and
- matching the leadership styles with the situations.

Rahim's (2006) suggestions to address the above are by assessment of situations, response to situations, empathy, and social skills. House and Aditya (1997) also emphasise the importance of including the context in leadership theory, research, and models. Upon reviewing the leadership literature, these authors posit that models of leadership ought to strive to integrate the context into predictions of leadership. Similarly Day (2000) and London (2002) also stress the importance of examining the context enveloping leadership development. More recently, it has been argued that the majority of leader(ship) development occurs in a dynamically emerging context (Avolio, 2003). This has the implication that the context, like the individual, be prepared for leadership development to transpire, and have the positive desired effects on members of the organisation (Avolio, 2003).

Regarding this, Humphreys (2005) claims that the literature has been silent as to servant leadership and contextual influences. In the attempt to fill that void, Smith, Montagno and Kuzmenko (2004) have proposed a model of servant and transformational leadership that includes contextual variables (this is discussed further in Sections 2.4.3 and 2.4.4).

In the attempt to address such causal issues, numerous models have been proposed, and tested. In recent years, two of the most prevalent theories have been transformational and servant leadership (Humphreys, 2005). While a majority of leadership studies have focused on individual leader behaviour and effectiveness (Yukl, 2002), there is a growing interest in more macro views to supplement the numerous micro perspectives (Osborn *et al*., 2002; Shamir & Howell, 1999). In particular, the idea of context, as indicated above, is beginning to receive increasing attention (Boal, 2000; Conger, 1999).

With this in mind, leadership theories will subsequently be looked at, in an endeavour to position servant leadership and its development as a modern leadership “theory”. The concept of servant leadership has both similarities and differences with the major leadership theories posed during this century. In examining servant leadership, it seems appropriate to consider the theoretical basis of the philosophy. In doing so, questions arise about whether servant leadership is, in fact, a theory and, if not, how it interfaces with the major theories one encounters in any study of leadership.

2.2 Major leadership theories and the servant leadership model

Laub (2004, p. 9) posits that: "servant leadership is not a style of leadership, though it is often portrayed that way in leadership theory texts. It is a paradigm that reshapes our understanding and practice of leadership. Resulting from this, servant leadership holds the belief that only if the general well-being and development of individuals is initially facilitated, then the goals of the organisation will be achieved on a long term basis (Stone & Patterson, 2005).

The following section contains summative information on a number of leadership theories and models. A brief explanation of each model allows for comparisons and contrasts with the concept of servant leadership. Servant leadership as a leadership “theory” or approach will be examined against other leadership theories, in an endeavour to draw distinctive comparisons and differences, specifically between servant leadership and these leadership paradigms.

2.3 Overview of major leadership theories: Past, present, and emerging research on leadership studies

The philosophy of Aristotle seems to still govern the modern-world theories of how leadership works. During this century alone, this has been especially evident in the study of leadership – which can be broadly divided into three periods and three generic models (Polleys, 2002). Throughout this first period (from the beginning of the twentieth century, specifically around 1910, to the late 1940s, including World War II) leadership theories were centred predominantly around *who the leader is*, i.e. the leader's personality traits, and included theories such as Great Man, trait, and psychological theories (Chemers, 1984). Evidently (these) earlier research indicated that leaders are born since they had certain characteristics. The study and classification of various *leadership styles,* is therefore a study of innate human traits, a branch of *trait theory*, which survived from Aristotle to Stogdill (1974).

For the duration of the second period (from the commencement of World War II through the 1950s, and up to the late 1960s) the leadership theories primarily concentrated on *what the leader does*, i.e. the leader's behaviour, consequently behavioural-based theories developed during this period (Chemers, 1984), such as McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y. According to Stone and Patterson (2005) the theorists of this era argued that in addition to finding the best technological methods to improve output, it would benefit management to address human affairs as well. Thus, it was claimed that: "the real power centers within an organization were the interpersonal relationships that developed among working groups" (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 1996, p. 100).

Despite McGregor's own concerns whether Theory X was an accurate view of human nature (Stone & Patterson, 2005), his assumptions persisted for a long time in leadership theory circles mainly because it explained *some*, though not all, of human behaviour within organisations (Pugh & Hickson, 1993). The essential concept though, that McGregor (1960) and other behaviourists suggested, was that organisations are interacting groups and that leaders form part of those groups (Stone & Patterson, 2005). Therefore, the leader's interaction and relationship with the employee ought to be a supportive relationship in order for all members of the organisation to experience the organisation’s objectives and their own achievement, are of personal importance to them (Pugh & Hickson, 1993).

Finally, from the late 1960s through to late 1970s, up to the present, theory-based approaches became the focus, where theorists started to focus on, and emphasise *where leadership takes place* – with an emphasis to leader/follower relationships – and have consequently developed contingency (and situational) theories (Chemers, 1984) by analysing the effect of situational variables (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974; House & Mitchell, 1974).

2.3.1 Past leadership theories based on: Who the Leader is

According to Fairholm (1991) these theories suggest that leadership is a matter of personality trait or character. According to this view, the history of the world is equated to the history of Great Men, who mobilised the masses to accomplish certain goals or to have conquered (Bass, 1990). According to Polleys (2002) several of these early theorists were by and large influenced by Galton’s (1869) ideology that leadership is grounded on the basis of hereditary circumstances. This belief was reinforced by Carlyle's (1902) theory that the leader is seen as the stand-alone-hero, who as an individual, has been gifted with a distinctive persona that takes hold of the thoughts of the masses. This view was supported by Dowd (1936) who argued that leadership was the special preserve of the superior few (Chemers, 1984) and that the masses are led by these superior few.

2.3.1.1 Great Man theory

Emanating from these ideologies, the *Great Man theory of leadership* was presented by Jennings (1960), based on a detailed study and exploration of the leader as the Great Man. This theory holds that some leaders possess some special trait that allows them to arise to positions of prominence regardless of their situation (Chemers, 1984). This implies that those in power deserve to be there because of their special leadership-endowment (Ndoria, 2004). Therefore, this theory is comparable to the trait theory that associates certain traits or personality with leadership, meaning that leadership is either hereditary (Galton, 1869), or it can be programmed by developing the traits that constitute a good leader (Chemers, 1984).

2.3.1.2 Trait theories

Aristotle believed that leaders were born, not made. He thought no amount of training or experience could bring an individual the necessary skills to lead. These traits, he thought, were part of the inherited characteristics of human beings. Of course, people had to study and reflect and dialog but leaders were not made there. They were made in the womb. This was a suitable point of view in a society were only elites led and the right of succession was tied to birth.

However, beginning in the 1920s, researchers investigated whether leaders had specific traits or characteristics, such as intelligence, height, or energy that defined them as leaders, and distinguished them from non-leaders, and which contributed to their success (Daft, 2005). Thus, identifying these characteristics became the next focus of a generation of leadership theorists (Polleys, 2002). Their mutual goal therefore was to try and find the few critical traits all leaders possess in order to identify potential leaders, and consequently develop these traits in others. Various scholars attempted to explain leadership in terms of traits of personality and character (e.g. Bernard, 1926; Bingham & Davis, 1927; Tead, 1935; Kilbourne, 1935). These early studies identified such traits as social sensitivity, masculinity, appearance, and moodiness. In a similar, yet much later study, it was found that the traits of intelligence, masculinity, and dominance were strongly correlated with how individuals perceived leaders (Lord, DeVader & Alliger, 1986). Bird (1940) examined twenty lists of so-called leader traits and found that none of the items appeared on all twenty lists. His conclusions coincided with many contemporary studies in observing that traits alone seemingly do not distinguish the leader from others.

Thus, in the United States, *trait theory* emerged from the historical study of leaders. Largely based on the work of Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939) the theory became revived in the 1960s by the work of McGregor (1960) and Tannenbaum, Weschler and Massarik (1961).

In essence, the trait model tries to attribute certain leadership criteria with certain traits, e.g. physical height or personality (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002). Some trait theorists have tried to explain the trait theory by associating it to the “big five” (factor) model of personality under the dimensions of neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (Barrick & Mount, 1991; John, 1990), while others think that such a description confuses personality descriptors with personality itself (Pervin, 1994). The problem with trait theory, and in particular, the five factor theory is that is that it only describes what people are like but not how they operate (Epstein, 1980, 1994). As mentioned earlier, the trait theory compares to the Great Man theory.

In a 1948 literature review, Stogdill examined more than 100 studies based on the trait approach. He revealed that several traits appeared consistent with effective leadership, including general intelligence, initiative, interpersonal skills, self-confidence, drive for responsibility, and personal integrity. Similarly, Stogdill (1959) reviewed over 120 trait studies in an endeavour to discern a logical pattern – and likewise concluded that no such pattern existed. Stogdill’s subsequent review of 163 trait studies conducted between 1948 and 1970 concluded that some personal traits seemingly did contribute to effective leadership. However, Stogdill (1974) indicated that leadership situations vary considerably in the demands which they place upon the leader. Thus, the value of a specific trait or set of traits varies with the specific organisational situation, i.e. a particular trait is often relative to the situation. Notwithstanding, theories based on *who the leader is* help in elucidating an important aspect of leadership, i.e. the character of the individual leader. However, these theories do not contribute significantly in predicting future leaders or leader behaviour, as such (Polleys, 2002). According to Fairholm (1991) these theories are neither too useful in the application of leadership development.

2.3.2 Past leadership theories based on: What the leader does

2.3.2.1 Behavioural theories

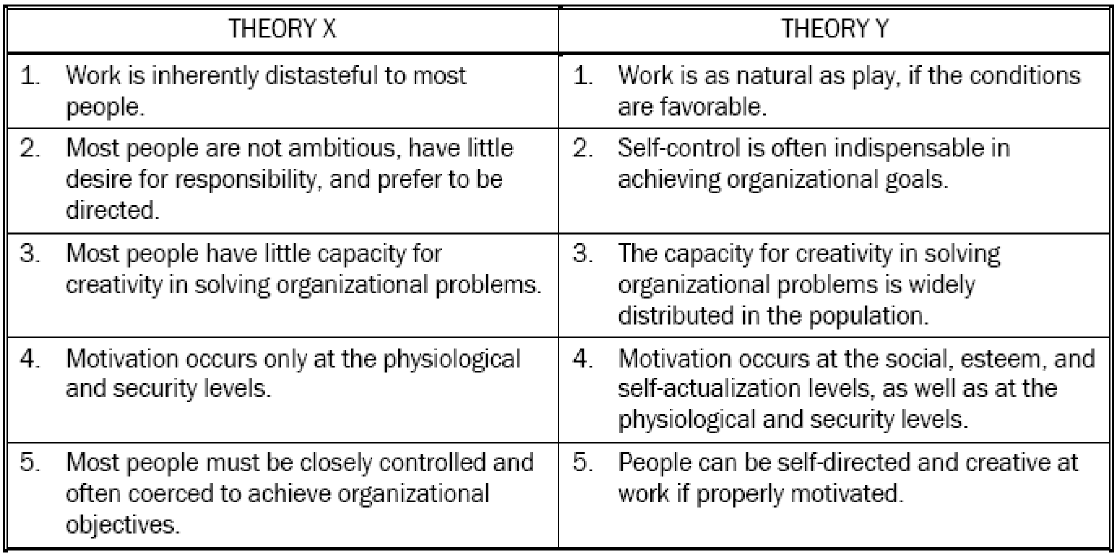
As evidence accumulated to support trait theory, the 60s happened upon it and *a new fusion* evolved which left leadership styles behind. This, together with a failure to identify a universal set of leadership traits, led researchers in the 1950s to start scrutinising what the leader *does* instead of who s/he *is* (Komives, Lucas & McMahon, 1998). As a result, during this time, many researchers discontinued their efforts in trying to identify leadership traits in light of Stogdill's (1948) findings and turned their attention to examining leader behaviour and leadership situations (Daft, 2005). According to Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly and Konopaske (2006) great semantic confusion and overlap in the definition of leadership behaviour still continues. Terms such as *employee-centred*, *job-centred*, *initiating structure*, and *consideration* are classified as descriptions of *what the leader does* (Gibson *et al*., 2006). Nevertheless, traits are still being studied and the theory employed in many studies – with expanded trait lists and research projects – but since the 60s a new set of needs emerged in rapidly changing organisational environments (business mostly) and the theories of *behavioural* and *situational leadership* were born. Hollander (1960, 1961) and Gibb (1969) brought about explanations of *what* leaders do and *why* they did it. These aspects or behaviours corresponded more to the *situation than to any given style or trait.* From this view it can therefore be reasoned that behavioural and humanistic leadership theories is an extrapolation on what the *leader does and why*, i.e. behavioural and situational in nature. This approach of the interaction of people, the environment, and cognitive abilities appears to be an advanced theory built upon Lewin's (1951) field theory of $B = f(P, E)$ where behaviour is a function of both the person and their environment (Lewin, 1935, 1936).

Polleys (2002) indicates that these theories add another dimension to the understanding of leadership, since (according to this view) concrete and observable behaviours serve as models for emerging leaders. Some behavioural theorists like Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) view leader behaviour on a continuum from manager-centred to subordinate-centred behaviour. Other theorists like Blake and Mouton (1964), Likert (1961), and McGregor (1960) are concerned with development of the individual within effective and cohesive organisations, as elaborated on by Stogdill (1974). Thus, within this paradigm, it is seen as the leader's responsibility to modify the organisation in order to provide freedom for the individual to realise his/her potential for fulfilling his own needs (Polleys, 2002), and at the same time contributing toward accomplishing organisational goals (Bass, 1990).

However, House and Aditya (1997) maintain that there are some universally effective leader behaviours that can be identified. Consequently, within this paradigm, the leader becomes the focus and *not* the follower. The reason for this is, that how a leader behave towards followers – such as whether they are autocratic or democratic in their approach, for example – is related to leadership effectiveness or ineffectiveness (Daft, 2005). The accepted behaviour is then calculated and measured, and henceforth it is assumed that such behaviour would enhance effectiveness and productivity (Ndoria, 2004). Conversely, Heilbrunn (1996) suggests that leader behavioural analysis does not yield a clear correlation between the behaviour of the leader, and the productivity of the followers. Thus, Heilbrunn's (1996) proposed model in contrast differs from the trait theory in that it does not attempt to search out leader attributes or traits that constitute a good leader, but instead expresses behavioural characteristics that would enhance leadership – if such behaviour is accepted and appropriate. While the trait theory assumes that leaders are born, this model indicates that leadership can be taught (Heilbrunn, 1996). Similarly, Barker (2002) reviewed the leadership definitions used to date, only to also conclude that leadership is apparently about two things – process and behaviours.

However, within in the "traditional" behavioural framework, McGregor (1960) developed the idea of two types of organisational leadership. The first type (Theory X), is based on the assumption that people are passive and resistant to organisational needs. Therefore, leaders operating from a Theory X-assumption attempt to direct, motivate, and control others (McGregor, 1960, 1966). While, the second type (Theory Y), is based on the assumption that people already possess motivation and the desire for responsibility. Leaders who exercise Theory Y attempt to arrange organisational conditions in such a way as to make it possible for people to fulfil their needs while they simultaneously direct the efforts and inputs of followers to achieve organisational objectives (McGregor, 1960, 1966).

Table 2.1 Assumptions about human nature that underlie McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y



THEORY X	THEORY Y
1. Work is inherently distasteful to most people.	1. Work is as natural as play, if the conditions are favorable.
2. Most people are not ambitious, have little desire for responsibility, and prefer to be directed.	2. Self-control is often indispensable in achieving organizational goals.
3. Most people have little capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems.	3. The capacity for creativity in solving organizational problems is widely distributed in the population.
4. Motivation occurs only at the physiological and security levels.	4. Motivation occurs at the social, esteem, and self-actualization levels, as well as at the physiological and security levels.
5. Most people must be closely controlled and often coerced to achieve organizational objectives.	5. People can be self-directed and creative at work if properly motivated.

(Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 1996, cited in Stone & Patterson, 2005, p. 4)

Likert (1961) postulated that leadership is a relative process, implying that leaders must take into account the expectations, values, and interpersonal skills of those with whom they are interacting. Consequentially Likert (1961) defined four basic leader behaviour patterns and correlated leaders on a scale from highly job-centered to highly people-centered. These four identified leaders behaviour patterns are (a) System 1: Exploitative-Authoritative; (b) System 2: Benevolent-Authoritative; (c) System 3: Consultative-Democratic; and (d) System 4: Participative-Democratic.

This model of Likert follows the assumptions of Theory X and Theory Y, i.e. ranging from highly job-centered to highly people-centered (Likert, 1961). Based on his model, Likert's findings include the following: (a) high producing departments are more likely to be managed in terms of Systems 3 or 4; while low producing departments are more likely to be managed according to Systems 1 or 2; (b) employees perform at higher levels when the type of supervision is general rather than close; and (c) supervisors with the best records for performance tend to focus primarily on human aspects (Fairholm, 1991). Likert (1961) asserted that effective leaders use influence to enhance the task performance, coupled with the personal welfare of followers. By so doing, the leader builds group cohesiveness and productivity, i.e. providing freedom for responsible decision-making and initiative (Likert, 1967).

Blake and Mouton (1964) found that although task and human concerns are apparent orientations in theory, in reality people either reveal or practice some and/or all of each of these characteristics. With this concern raised by Blake and Mouton (1964), researchers subsequently began to consider the contextual and situational variables that influence effective leadership behaviours (Daft, 2005). Whilst behaviour theory takes more variables into account than do trait theories, its main focus lies in a narrow attention, omitting situational factors or cultural context (Polleys, 2002). Thus, the thinking behind situational theories is that leaders can analyse the situation and tailor their behaviour accordingly, in order to improve their effectiveness as a leader (Daft, 2005). These situational theories will briefly be addressed in the following section.

2.3.3 Past leadership theories based on: Where the leadership takes place

2.3.3.1 Situational theories

Situational theory, contingency theory and a variety of humanistic models all suggest that leaders act in compliance to the critical factors present in the situations in which they find themselves (Fairholm, 1991). These theories suggest that leadership needs to change as the situation changes. These situational approaches are therefore based on the premises that leaders: “understand their own behavior, the behavior of their subordinates, and the situational before utilizing a particular leadership style…[and] requires the leader to have diagnostic skills in human behavior” (Gibson *et al*., 2006, p. 321). The organisation’s size, the employee’s level of maturity, task complexity, and other contingencies affect leadership (Polleys, 2002). Consequently, major situational variables include, amongst others, the characteristics of the followers, characteristics of the work environment and followers’ tasks, and the external environment (Daft, 2005). The contingency theories of Blake and Mouton (1964) and Fiedler (1967), and the situational theories of Hersey and Blanchard (1967), Vroom and Yetton (1973), and later Vroom and Jago (1978), House (1971), and Graen (1975) are models of researchers who have focused on the contingency/situational approach.

Vroom-Yetton model

Rational-deductive theory, formulated by Vroom and Yetton (1974), is centred on factors most conducive to a leader's success, including direction and participation. In essence these researchers pose ten questions in aiding leaders to determine whether to act directive or participative. Vroom and Yetton (1974) concluded that leaders should only be directive when they are convinced that they know what to do, and followers do not know. Conversely, leaders ought to be participative, by means of feedback and information-sharing when followers have information and are skilled, confident, and committed (Fairholm, 1991). According to these theorists, the most effective style is by and large dependent on the characteristics of the specific situation (Vroom, 1964, 1994). The Vroom-Yetton model contrasts for example Fiedler's (1967) model (discussed below) in that it attempted to provide a normative (prescriptive) model for leaders to use in making decisions (Gibson *et al*., 2006).

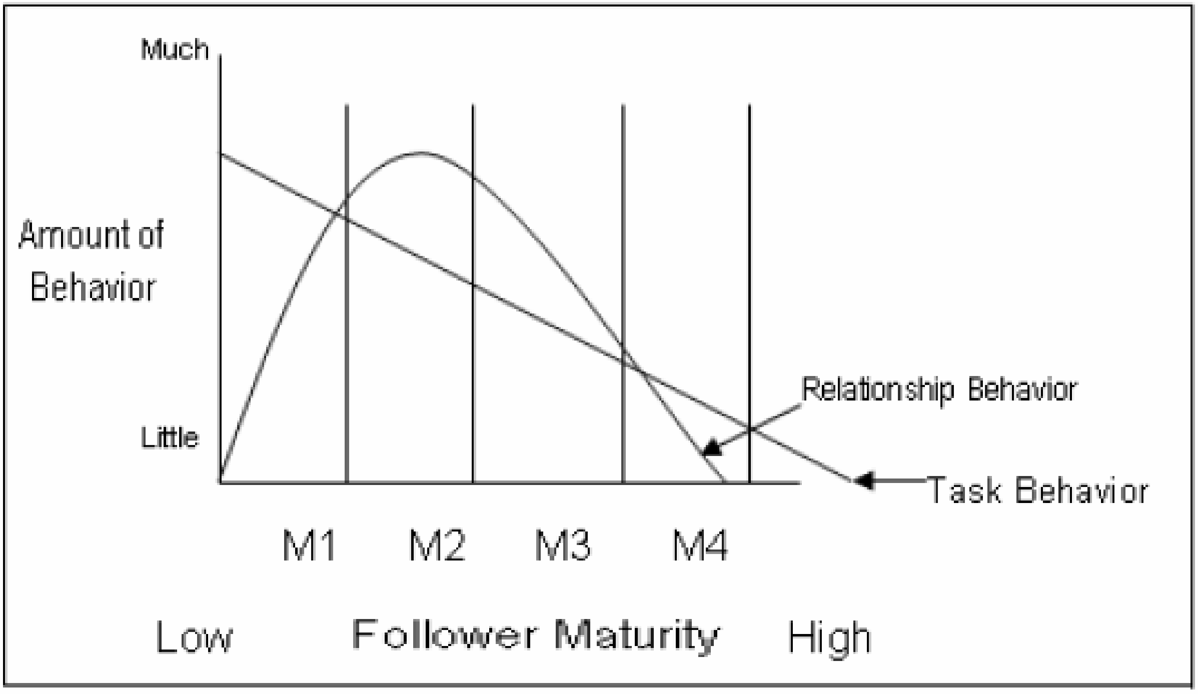
Hersey and Blanchard model

Aligned with the above, is the situational leadership model (SLM) developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1967; 1995; 1996), where in essence, conditions are linked to task and relational behaviour. The SLM attempts to define the appropriate relationship between the leader's behaviour and the maturity level shown by the followers (Gibson *et al*., 2006). Maturity level is thought of as the followers' ability and willingness to perform a specific task (Daft, 2005). In this view, it is salient for the leader to remain sensitive to the follower's level of readiness, which changes as new goals and tasks emerge. In turn, the leader's behaviour need to be adjusted accordingly, yielding a dynamic interaction.

The leader provides support and direction as needed – based on the follower's ability, willingness, or confidence level (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 1996). The follower who is able, willing, and confident becomes self-directed (Hersey & Blanchard, 1995, 1996). At the other end of the spectrum, the leader gives clear direction and close supervision until the follower grows in ability, willingness, and confidence (Hersey & Blanchard, 1995). Thus, task behaviour focuses on defining roles and responsibilities, whereas relational behaviour is more about providing support to followers/teams (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993). The extent to which either is used depends on the person's job maturity and psychological security (Hersey &

Blanchard, 1993). Thus, Hersey and Blanchard’s (1996) theory advocates a leader's use of differing leadership behaviours dependent upon these two interrelated maturity factors: (a) job maturity, i.e. relevant task and technical knowledge and skills, and (b) psychological maturity, i.e. the subordinate’s level of self-confidence and self-respect (Yukl, 1998).

Accordingly, a leader can adopt one of four leadership styles, based on a combination of task and relational behaviours (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996; Daft, 2005). The four styles are telling, selling, participating, and delegating (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993, 1995). Hersey and Blanchard’s model is an extension of the Leadership Grid theory of Blake and Mouton (1985) whose work was based on the Ohio State and Michigan studies. Thus, within this model, the focus is on the characteristics of followers (as the important element of the situation), and the leader's approach/behaviour is consequently determined by the situation (Hersey & Blanchard, 1995). For example, as depicted in Figure 2.1 an employee who has a high level of job and psychological maturity requires little supervision; while an employee who has a low level of job and psychological maturity requires hands-on attention.



(Yukl, 2002 cited in Stone & Patterson, 2005, p. 5)

Figure 2.1 Hersey and Blanchard’s situational leadership theory leader behaviour options

House's path-goal leadership model

With this model, House (1971) attempted to predict leadership effectiveness in different situations. According to this model, leaders are effective because of their positive effect on followers' motivation, ability to perform, and satisfaction (House & Mitchell, 1974). This theory is named path-goal, because it focuses on how the leader influences the followers' perceptions of work goals, self-development goals, and paths to goal attainment (House, 1996). Thus, the leader clarifies for followers the paths or behaviours that are best suited in the situation. Within this model, it is expected of the leader to motivate followers in order to increase followers' effectiveness and job satisfaction, by knowing how and which proper motivational techniques to apply (House, 1994). This theory therefore draws on the expectancy theory of motivation, which follows four discernible leadership styles, i.e. (a) supportive, (b) directive, (c) participative, and (d) achievement-oriented. The choice of leadership style depends on the task and the individual, for example routine tasks will require a more supportive style, while complex tasks necessitate a more directive leadership style (House, 1971). However, according to Gibson *et al*. (2006), this model has generated very little research interest in the past two decades.

Graen's leader- member exchange (LMX) theory

With an even greater focus on the leader-follower relationship is the LMX theory developed by Graen (1975). While most leadership theories look at the relation between a leader and his/her group and its effects on the satisfaction, commitment and performance of the average member of the group, LMX examines the *quality of the relation* between the leader and each individual member (Bass, 2000). LMX explains how the relationships with various members can develop in very different ways. It therefore provides a way to understand these processes. Leaders develop relationships with each member of the group they lead. There is an important distinction between leadership and authority, and the theory suggests that successful leadership is characterised by "high LMX". It is an interesting perspective that emphasises the role of communication and relationships between the leader and members of the group.

Thus, the leader's relation with one member can be positive, while it is negative with a second member, and neutral with a third member. Bass (2000) states that extensive experimentation and survey research have indicated that the leader will have the most positive effect on the levels of satisfaction, commitment, and performance of the member with whom the relationship is best. Conversely, the leader will have the most negative effect on the levels of satisfaction, commitment, and performance of the member with whom the leader has the worst relationship (Bass, 2000). Thus, within this model the leader must be adaptive and perceptive, since this model dismisses the idea of consistent leader behaviour across followers. This therefore necessitates the leader to adapt his/her style to suit the followers' needs (Gibson *et al.,* 2006).

Consequently, followers are categorised as in-groups (members share a common bond and value-system with the leader – interaction between them is positive) and out-groups (members have less in common with the leader – interaction between them is negative) (Bass, 2000; Gibson *et al.,* 2006).

Leaders develop different relationships with each member of their work group. A *high quality LMX relationship* results in a member feeling part of the "*in-group*". They will have more responsibility, decision influence, higher satisfaction and access to valuable resources. There is trust and support, shared goals and initiative beyond the everyday job.

A *low quality LMX relationship* occurs when a member feels in the "*out-group*". The leader offers low levels of support to the member, and the person has less responsibility and less ability to influence decisions. Lack of trust, few shared goals, few rewards are the result. The quality of the LMX relationship is said to be related to work and attitudinal outcomes.

Leader-member relationships emerge as the result of a series of *exchanges/ interactions* during which these *roles* develop. The role formation process involves three phases (Dienesch & Liden, 1986).

Phase 1: Role-taking
Leaders and members must each understand how the other views and desires respect.

Phase 2: Role-making
Trust must be developed in order for leaders and members to further develop the relationship and influence each other's attitudes and behaviours.

Phase 3: Role-routinisation
Social exchange pattern becomes routine.

The role formation process develops through a mechanism referred to as "negotiating latitude" (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In addition to work-related variables, the leader's and the member's *affective responses* to their initial interaction are important components in the LMX relationship. They are influenced by the perceived similarity between the leader and the member. The more that they see themselves as similar, the more they will like each other and the more likely they are to develop a high quality relationship.

Perspective taking is a key element and people high on these three aspects (below) usually have higher quality LMX (Dionne, 2000):

1. Accurate in ability to perceive how others understand and respond to world.
2. Can view situations from many perspectives.
3. Able to perceive other's perspective in depth.

Bass (2000) argues that many factors (amongst others personality similarities and differences between the leader and the led) may affect the quality of the individual relationships, and will have a strong effect on members' satisfaction, turnover, commitment, and performance. At present this approach has generated limited research to support its assumptions (Gibson *et al.,* 2006). Bass (2000) however, contends that despite the LMX perhaps being less well-known than other situational leadership theories, it has stood up well in 25 years of empirical testing. Recent findings link it to transformational leadership (Bass, 2000). Graen and Uhl-Bien

(1995) are of the opinion that when the LMX relationship becomes more mature, it moves from a transactional to a transformational relationship.

2.3.3.2 Contingency theories

Contingency theories emphasise that leadership cannot be interpreted in isolation or distanced from various elements of the group and/or the organisational situation (Daft, 2005). Therefore, these theories basically all argue that the “right” or an effective leadership style varies according to the context – for example the Blake and Mouton's (1964) managerial grid which has been very influential in organisation development practice. The extensive research on task-oriented and relations-oriented leadership during the 1960s gave rise to the idea of the “high-high” leader (Yukl, 2002, p. 58). Thus, the literature on contingency leadership theories suggests that leader personality is not nearly as important to leader effectiveness as selecting the right behaviour or style for a given situation (Hunt, 1984). Conversely, however, Lord, DeVader and Alliger (1986) argued that the relationship between personality and leadership is stronger and more consistent than many contemporary scholars believe (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987).

The Blake and Mouton model

Within this “high/high” framework of thinking, Blake and Mouton (1964) devised the managerial grid theory to describe managers in terms of concern for people and concern for production. This grid structure displays these two dimensions of leader behaviour. Concern for people represents one axis on the grid, and concern for production represents the other axis. A leader may be high or low on both axes, or s/he may be high on one and low on the other. The person who rates high on both axes develops followers who are committed to accomplishment of the task, and whose sense of interdependence leads to trust and respect (Blake & Mouton, 1984). Such followers feel a common stake in the organisational purpose (Blake & Mouton, 1982). According to this theory, effective managers have a high concern for both people and production (Yukl, 2002). Though the Blake and Mouton grid has weak predictive validity, it has sound theoretical foundations, and has become a key tool in especially leadership development training (Fairholm, 1991). However, according to

Yukl (2002), Blake and Mouton never really developed any specific propositions regarding the appropriate behaviours for different situations. A reason for this could probably be ascribed to the interwoven nature of the processes involved in a leader's work, i.e. aspects that often requires both task and relation issues (Yukl, 2002).

Fiedler's contingency theory

With his contingency theory, Fielder (1967) – one of the leaders of the contingency school – posited that leader effectiveness is determined not by the leader's ability to adapt to the situation, but by the ability to choose the *right* leader for the situation (though this theory does not identify who would be responsible for making this choice). Consequently, Fiedler (1967) offered a continuum ranging from task-focused to people-focused leadership, i.e. task-oriented versus relations-oriented leaders. Thus, Fiedler's contingency theory postulates a two-way interaction between a measure of leader-task motivation against relationship motivation and situation control (House & Aditya, 1997). Situation control involves the degree to which the leader can control and influence the group process. Fiedler (1967) and Fiedler and Chemers (1974) argued that the most effective leadership style is depended on the quality of relationships, relative power position between the leader and the led, and the nature of the task. Fiedler (1967) also argued that the style adopted is relatively stable, is a reflection of a leader's personality and could thus be predicted.

Fiedler's theory is based on the premises that performance of groups is dependent upon leadership theory and situational appropriateness (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002). This is an example of learned behaviour (Ndoria, 2004). Thus, Fiedler argued that some leaders are better for specific situations than others and the situation determines the identified leaders' success, though leaders would need to be capable of understanding when they were not right for the situation and remove themselves – a task of humility (Stone & Patterson, 2005).

Though Fiedler's contingency theory (1967) is quite similar to that of Vroom and Yetton (1974), these researchers differ substantially on the issue regarding a person's ability to modify their decision making styles (Polleys, 2002). Vroom and Yetton (1974) are of the opinion that leaders are capable of prompt behavioural changes to suit the demands of the situation. Fiedler (1967) conversely, believes that well-learned personality attributes are of stable nature and difficult to change (Chemers, 1984). Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (1993) posit that Fielder’s contingency theory is viewed as the opposite of Hersey and Blanchard’s theory – maintaining that leaders are less flexible in their ability to change their behaviour based on followers’ maturity – the basic concept of Hersey and Blanchard’s theory.

Thus, with his contingency model, Fiedler (1964, 1967) explains how the situation moderates the relationship between leadership effectiveness, and a trait measure, called the “least preferred co-worker (LPC) score”.

2.3.3.3 Educational leadership and Deming's quality systems theory

Emphasis on the school as the primary unit of organisational analysis also led researchers during the “situational era” to try and identify what leader effectiveness constitutes (Brookover & Lezotte, 1979; Coleman, Campbell, Hobson, McPartland, Mood, Weinfeld & York, 1966; Weber 1971).

Educational leadership, as a practice, was compared across other organisations whose primary strategic purpose is (also) to produce new learning – linked to a strategy of *trying to produce new learning* – for purposes of study and comparison, i.e. what later became known as the *learning organisation* notion (Senge, 1990; Zigarelli, 1996). In the late 1970s Edmonds (1979), Brookover and Lezotte (1977) came up with a concept that measured leadership as an element in what they called “*effective schools*". For these and other educational-leadership theorists (e.g. Edmonds & Frederkson, 1978; Lezotte, 1989; Levine & Lezotte, 1990; Weber, 1985) leadership issues relate mostly to how education "ought to be". Thus, according to Tanner (1999) the leadership should be focused on how the school ought to be organised, the students taught, which materials should be used, and how much should this experience be *experiential*, or in modern-day terminology, *authentic.* Tanner (1999) draws on the lessons from Dewey's laboratory school approach which include: (a) reform starts with curriculum; (b) experimentation yields new knowledge; (c) planning should be continuous; (d) curriculum should be unified horizontally and vertically; (e) pupils should be connected with the subject; (f) hands-on activities are vital; and (g) school leaders should stand by their convictions.

Borrowing from research done in evaluating other learning organisations, (e.g. U.S. Air Force Training Labs, 1970) Edmonds (1979), Brookover and Lezzotte (1977) sampled a group of schools *that were effective at meeting the needs of all students* and they then tried *to re-construct what it took to make them effective*. Their research revealed that leadership and school-climate came out on top as dominant indicators of effectiveness. According to Brookover and Lezotte (1977) these are the areas where leaders have discretion. Accordingly, Portin and Shen (1998, p. 96) point out that:

> New models of shared leadership and teacher empowerment have cast leadership responsibilities more widely, but the principal remains the singular individual at the nexus of leadership in the school. ... the increasing complexity of schools and school administration ... reaffirms ... a mandatory responsibility for tomorrow's (school principals).

Consequently, creating an effective school climate became a new direction for educational leaders (Lezotte, 1989). In this regard, Lezotte (1989) and Levine and Lezotte (1990) postulated that effective schools describe a school improvement process that is data-based and data-driven, with effectiveness measured in terms of both quality and equity – and that these criteria assure a high standard of achievement that does not vary significantly across the subsets of a school's student population.

This effective schools-concept, of the 1970s, was very similar to Deming’s (1986) *Quality Systems Theory*, which was permeating leadership and organisational systems in industry at that time, and which later became *The Learning Organisation* (Senge, 1990).

Deming's quality systems theory (1986) did not produce a new theory of leadership *per se* – since what he described was still under the category of situational leadership. However, his theory differed with regards to the vision employed, in that its vision was the satisfaction of the customer rather than the control of the employee

(Deming, 1986). He sought to bring what he called "joy" to the workplace, believing and articulating very persuasively that the customer, employee, and the organisation much each “win-win”, and that nothing less should be acceptable to leaders who – according to him – *truly want to implement quality* (Deming, 1986).

However, for organisations to implement the quality system, they had to increase the amount of learning their employees received, and grant them greater input in satisfying the client's needs (Deming, 1986). That was when Senge (1990) and others have begun to explain the *Learning Organisation*, i.e. an organisational structure that demands a new way to lead through the understanding of systems. However, this has neither produced a new theory of leadership – it merely serves as organisational changes that could eventually take one there (Yukl, 2002).

2.3.3.4 The person - situation debate (situation vs. trait controversy)

The situation versus trait controversy came from criticisms of over-interpreted scores on personality or trait tests (Mischel, 1969). The ability to predict distant (or long-range) outcomes based on these tests (*aka* predictive validity) became therefore strongly questioned. Mischel (1969) argued that one cannot predict behaviour from one situation to another, because a situation will bring about some behaviours/traits that another situation will not bring out – thus emphasising that it is context dependent. Early research showed that both information about the person and about the situation predicted behaviour (Mischel, 1977). Within the situational leadership view, this then led to a perspective of person-by-situation approach, which looked at the relationship between traits, situations, and behaviours – as discussed in some of the situational theories above. A more recent person-by-situation model however, is the cognitive resources theory developed by Fiedler (1986) and Fiedler and Garcia (1987) which deals with the cognitive abilities of leaders. This theory examines the conditions under which cognitive resources, e.g. intelligence and experience, are related to group performance. According to this theory (Fiedler, 1986; Fiedler & Garcia, 1987), the group performance of a leader is determined by a complex interaction among two leader traits (intelligence and experience), one leader behavioural type/style (directive), and two aspects of the leadership situation (interpersonal stress and the nature of the task given to the group).

Stone and Patterson (2005) conclude that researchers defining the situational/contingency theory of leadership acknowledged that leaders did more than simply “act” – they often had to “react” to specific situations, and thus the situational/contingency theory of leadership evolved.

2.3.4 More recent and present leadership theories based on: Where the leadership takes place

2.3.4.1 Recent leadership: Influence theories

In essence, these theories examine influence processes between leader and followers (Daft, 2005).

Charismatic leadership

An early conceptual model of "charismatic leadership" has been closely linked with the work of Max Weber, who described the leader as a charismatic person who exercised power through followers' identification with and belief in the leader's personality (Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko, 2004). A turning point, however, in the study of leadership was House's (1977) introduction of the notion of charismatic leadership. At the time, it was seen as a considerable update of Weber’s (1947) introduction of the concept of charisma to sociology and the social sciences. *Charisma* is a Greek word, meaning gift. Powers that neither could logically nor rationally be explained were called charismatic (Gibson, *et al.,* 2006). House (1977) suggests that charismatic leaders are those who have leadership influence based not on position or formal authority but, rather on the qualities and charismatic (gifted) personality and effects on their followers, to an unusually high degree. Their leadership comes from their compelling vision that draws in commitment and acceptance of change, and offers a potential for anyone to grow and develop with the vision. Typical words used by charismatic leaders are trust, loyalty, devotion, commitment, inspiration, admiration, outstanding, exceptional.

According to Bass (2000), House (1977) opened up the study of charisma to behavioural experimentation and survey research. However, Shamir, Zakay, Breinen and Popper (1998) claim that up to now, no definite explanation has been given on what constitutes charismatic leadership. Debates on charismatic leadership do however, identify two types based on the leader's future emphasis: *visionary charismatic leaders* (focus on the long term), and *crisis-based charismatic* leaders (focus on the short term) (Gibson *et al.,* 2006).

An overview by House and Shamir (1993) indicate charismatic leadership as the ability of a person to get an intense moral commitment, and a strong identification from subordinates. They list a number of behaviours including articulating the vision, passion, self sacrifice, risk taking, and symbolic behaviours. Conger and Kanungo (1988, 1998) and Peters (1982) extended the concept of charisma, specifically within applied organisational settings. However, Trice and Beyer (1986) argued that charismatic leadership requires more than just extraordinary personal characteristics. Indeed, current research in charismatic leadership is focused on a number of defining variables including charismatic leader behaviour, characteristics of the followers and charismatic leader-follower relationship, contextual influences and constraints, and liabilities of charismatic leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; House & Shamir 1993; House & Howell, 1992; Bass & Avolio, 1988, 1994a, 1994b; Bass, 1996; May, Hodges, Chan, Avolio, 2003).

Leadership vision

During the period 1985 to 1990 a related area of study, i.e. *leadership vision* emerged (Bass, 2000). Within this envisioning framework, leaders influence people to change by providing an inspiring vision of the future (Daft, 2005). As a result, numerous related works followed by Bennis and Nanus (1985) and Sashkin (1988) on envisioning, and by Kouzes and Posner (1987) on transformational leadership. Bryman (1992) suggested that the contributions from Burns (1978) to Kouzes and Posner (1987) were the *new leadership* and constituted a complete new paradigm of leadership. According to Bass (2000), Hunt (1999) supplied the evidence and rationale for conceiving transformational/charismatic leadership as a new paradigm.

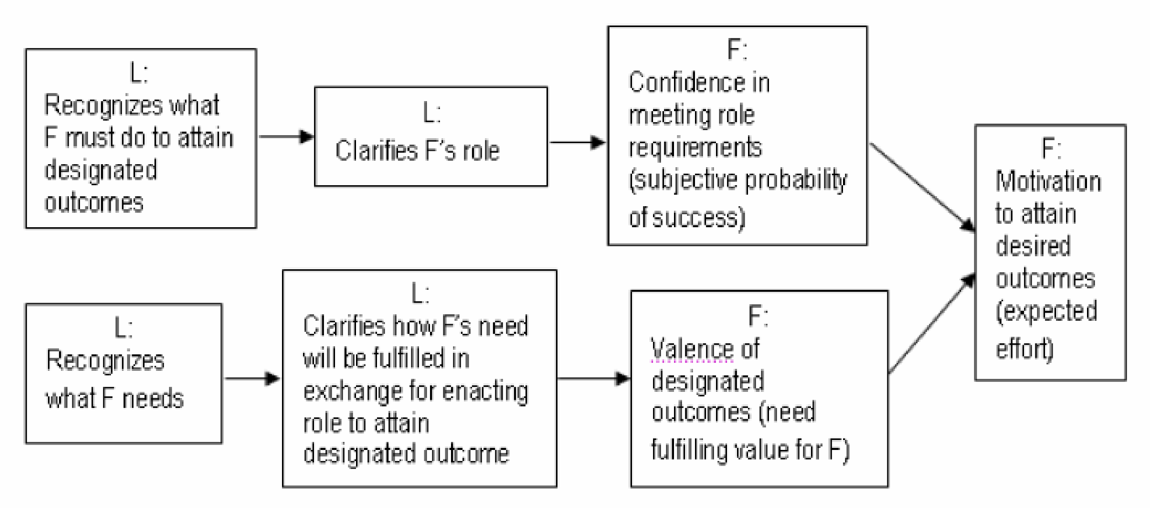
2.3.4.2 Relational leadership theories

As indicated above, already in the late 1970s, leadership theory research moved beyond focusing on various types of situational supervision as a way to incrementally improve organisational performance (Behling & McFillen, 1996; Hunt, 1991). According to Stone and Patterson (2005) research has shown that many leaders turned to a transactional leadership theory, probably one of the most established methods of leadership still observed in today's organisations (Avolio, Waldman, & Yanimarina, 1991; Seltzer & Bass, 1990). Evidently, since the late 1970s, many ideas of leadership have focused on the relational aspect, i.e. how leaders and followers interact, and influence one another (Daft, 2005). Komives *et al*. (1998) define relational leadership as a relational process of people together attempting to accomplish change or make a difference to benefit common good. This type of leadership thrives to develop the community and depends upon values inclusivity with a view of strengthening all members to develop common purposes (Ndoria, 2004). Community, in broad, is defined by Komives *et al*. (1998) as the binding together of diverse individuals committed to a just, common good through shared experiences with a caring spirit, and social responsibility. Komives *et al*. (1998) draw on Gardner's (1990) list of elements that constitute community, i.e. (a) diversity, (b) shared norms and values, (c) free-flowing communication, (d) atmosphere of trust, (e) effective participation in leadership, and (f) an awareness of a larger system upon which the community belongs.

With this relational inclination, Daft (2005, p. 24) states that: "rather than being seen as something a leader does to a follower, leadership is viewed as a relational process that meaningfully engages all participants and enables each person to contribute to achieving the vision". Interpersonal relationships are viewed as the most important aspect of leadership effectiveness (Daft, 2005; Ferch & Mitchell, 2001; Komives *et al*., 1998). For this reason, Bass (2000) claims that since its commencement, research has demonstrated the utility of some relational for increasing organisational satisfaction, commitment, and effectiveness, as well as the increased understanding of the dynamics of what became known as *transformational leadership*. Thus, many theories and models of leadership emphasise the work to be done and/or the relations between the leader and the led (Bass, 2000; Polleys, 2002; Reinke, 2004).

Transactional leadership – leader focus on performance

Burns (1978) divides leadership into two basic types, transactional and transformational, pointing out that most leadership models align with the transactional approach. Essentially *transactional leadership* views the leader and follower as traders of their gratifications in a political marketplace (Fairholm, 1991). Within the transactional framework, leaders approach followers with the intention to exchanging one thing for another – be it jobs for votes, or subsidies for campaign contributions (Burns, 1978). Avolio *et al*. (1991) suggest that transactional leadership focuses on ways to manage the status quo and maintain the day-to-day operations of an organisation, but does not focus on identifying the organisation's directional focus, and how employees can work toward those goals, increasing their productivity in alignment with these goals, thus increasing organisational profitability. Transactional leadership theory thus focuses on the specific interactions between leaders and followers (Burns, 1978; Heifetz, 1994). While the majority of the relationships among leaders and followers follow this pattern, transactional leadership leads to short-lived relationships, since the gratification itself is usually marginal and superficial (Fairholm, 1991). Thus, the bargainers (leaders) have no enduring purpose – besides the need of the moment – that binds them. Therefore, a leadership act does occur, but it is not one that ties the leader and follower toward a mutual pursuit of a higher purpose (Burns, 1978). Therefore, the transactional leader engages in actions that may, or may not, be beneficial for the follower (Bass, 1990; Burns, 1978). In other words, the driving reason for any leader's action is the benefit to the leader (Fairholm, 1991; Tichy & Devanna, 1986). However, Crosby (1996) argues that the idea of transactional leadership is nearsighted in that it does not take the entire situation, employee, or future of the organisation into account when offering rewards. Examples of this reward exchange included the leader's ability to fulfil promises of recognition, pay increases, and advancements for employees who perform well (Bass, 1990). Transactional leadership is a theory considered to be value-free; however, Heifetz (1994) contends that the values are austerely concealed. This interaction is illustrated in Figure 2.2.


L:
Recognizes what F must do to attain designated outcomes
L:
Clarifies F's role
F:
Confidence in meeting role requirements (subjective probability of success)
F:
Motivation to attain desired outcomes (expected effort)
L:
Recognizes what F needs
L:
Clarifies how F's need will be fulfilled in exchange for enacting role to attain designated outcome
F:
Valence of designated outcomes (need fulfilling value for F)

(Bass, 1985 cited in Stone & Patterson, 2005, p. 6)

Figure 2.2 Transactional leadership focuses on leaders managing day-to-day business operations
(L=Leader and F=Follower)

Transformational leadership – focus on the organisation

Transformational leadership, on the other hand, is more complex, and accordingly more powerful (Burns, 1978). Burn's (1978) theory of transformational leadership, is probably regarded as one of the most influential normative views of leadership. As illustrated in the above discussion, transactional leadership is based on bureaucratic authority, focusing on task completion, and relies on rewards and punishments (Tracey & Hinkin, 1998). Transformational leadership differs substantially from transactional leadership. It is concerned more about progress and development. Furthermore, transformational leadership enhances the effects of transactional leadership on followers (Bass, 1985, 1990).

Although Burns (1978) coined the term transforming leadership, Bass (1985) extended the paradigm and popularised the idea that in volatile environments, transformational leadership is needed to: "broaden and elevate the interests of employees, generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and missions of the organization, and stir the employees to look beyond their own self-interests for the good of the overall entity" (Bass, 1990, p. 19). Building on the charismatic ideas of Weber (1947), Downton (1973), Burns (1978), and others, Bass (1990) proclaimed that transforming leadership occurred when leader and followers were engaged in such a way as to enhance the enthusiasm and morality of one another such that the goals of each become fused in the best interest of the organisation. Transformational leader behaviour does not depend on a traditional exchange relationship between leader and follower (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders operate out of deeply held personal value systems that are not negotiable (Bass, 1990).

Also whereas, the transactional leader recognises and taps into an existing need of a follower, the transforming leader looks beyond for potential motives in followers, seeking to satisfy higher needs (Fairholm, 1991, 1998). Burns (1978) defines transformational leadership as the leader and follower acting as a system to assist each other's improvement in all facets of life. The reward for this action is mutual gain. This entails the transformative leader seeking to engage the full person of the follower (Bass, 1997). Leaders and followers relate in such a way that both are elevated (Daft, 2005). Consequently, their purposes, which might have begun as separate but related, become merged. Burns (1978) postulates that transforming leadership ultimately becomes moral in that it elevates the levels of human conduct, morality, motivation, and ethical aspiration of both leader and led, thus having a transforming (significant change) effect on both. This phenomenon is also called transcending leadership, and it results in changing followers into leaders and leaders into moral agents (Daft, 2005; Gibson *et al*., 2006). Bass (1990) stipulates that this transcending beyond self-interest is for the "group, organization, or society" (p. 53). Therefore, in essence, transformational leadership is a process of building commitment to organisational objectives and then empowering followers to accomplish those objectives (Yukl, 1998). The result, at least in theory, is enhanced follower performance (Burns, 1998; Yukl, 1998).

By expressing these principles, transformational leaders unite their followers but, more importantly, they modify their followers' goals and aspirations by demonstrating: (a) individual consideration; (b) intellectual stimulation; (c) inspirational motivation; and (d) idealised influence (Bass, 1985, 1996; Bass & Avolio, 1994a, 1994b). As a result, transformational leadership has been conceptualised as containing these four behavioural components (also known as the four Is of transformational leadership). To this extent Bass (1996) posits that some leaders may be charismatic but not transformational in terms of their effect on followers. The following is a synopsis of the description of these transformational behaviours provided by Avolio *et al.,* 1991.

Individual consideration

Individualised consideration refers to the role a transformational leader plays in developing followers' potential and paying attention to their individual needs for achievement and growth (a primary component of individual consideration is the understanding that each follower has different needs and that those needs would change over time). A transformational leader strives to create new learning opportunities for followers and tends to act as a coach or mentor. Transformational leaders create and utilise two-way personalised communications with followers. They often act as mentors to their subordinates, coaching and advising followers with individual personal attention. Such leaders are intent on removing obstacles that might inhibit the performance of their followers.

Intellectual stimulation

Intellectual stimulation refers to a leader's behaviour that encourages followers' creativity and stimulates innovative thinking. According to Bass (1996), transformational leaders are tolerant to followers' mistakes, promotes intelligence, rationality, logical thinking, involve followers in problem solving, and are open to new ideas.

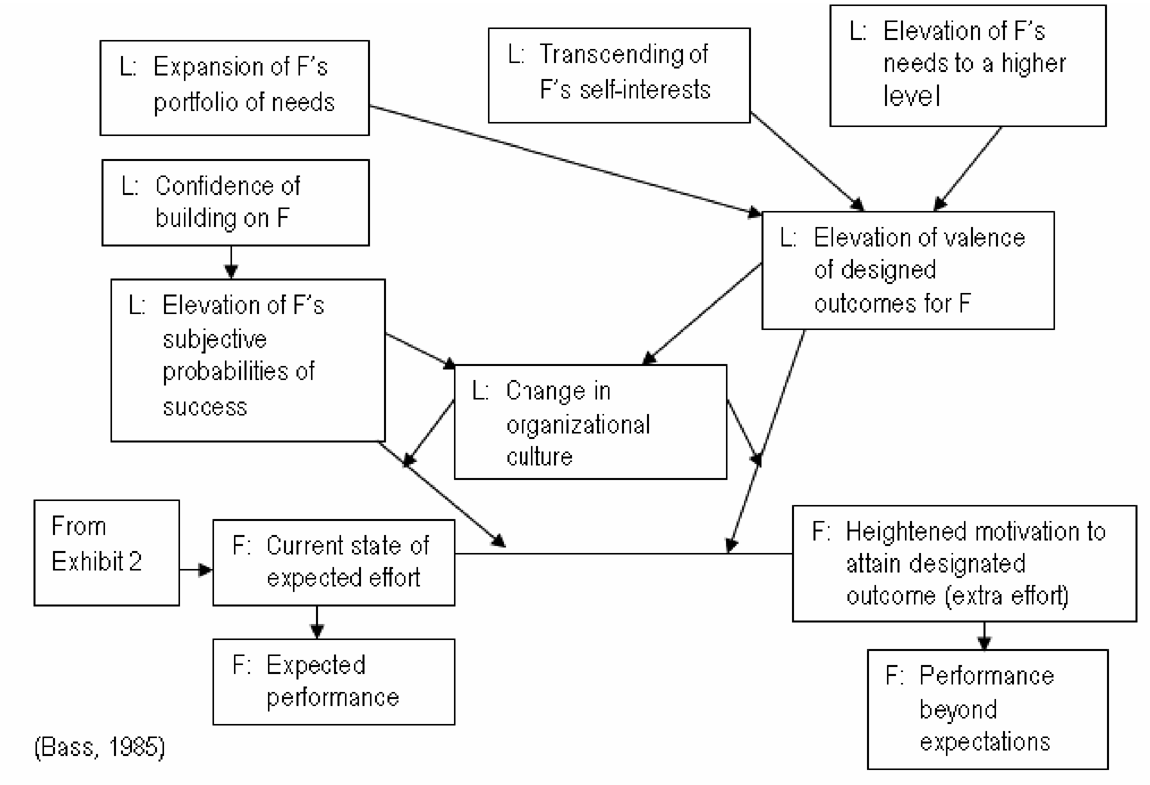
Inspirational motivation

Transformational leaders inspire their followers to accomplish great feats. This dimension of transformational leadership is characterised by the communication of high expectations, using symbols to focus efforts, and expressing important goals in simple terms. Avolio *et al.* (1991) have suggested the potential to inspire followers is partially realised by the synergy created by demonstrating individual consideration and intellectual stimulation. Such behaviour increases the leader’s appeal as it increases the confidence and self-worth of followers. Inspirational leaders often provide encouragement during difficult times and set the group standard as far as work ethic is concerned.

Idealised influence

This dimension of transformational leadership is characterised by providing vision and a sense of mission, instilling pride in and among the group, and gaining respect and trust. Though intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration are interpreted as more charismatic, Bass (1996) specifically contends that these two components are not wholly charismatic in nature. Rather can idealised influence be seen as the charismatic component – where in most recent depictions of Bass' conceptualisation of transformational leadership – this has been the case (Humphreys, 2005). Subsequently, idealised influence can be considered a culmination of the other three Is (individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspirational motivation) tied with a strong emotional bond to the leader (Avolio *et al*., 1991). According to Humphreys (2005) leaders who demonstrate idealised influence develop much personal power and influence with followers, and are therefore often labelled as charismatic. This serves as a probable explanation why the term transformational leadership is used instead of charismatic leadership *per se*.

As exhibited in Figure 2.3 below, with transformational leadership, the leader's focus is directed toward the organisation, but leader behaviour builds follower commitment toward the organisational objectives through empowering followers to accomplish those objectives (Yukl, 1998). While transactional leaders focus on exchange relations with followers, transformational leaders inspire followers to higher levels of performance for the sake of the organisation (Burns, 1978; Yukl, 1998). As the very definition of transformational leadership states – the building of commitment to the organisational objectives (Yukl, 1998) – the primary focus is on the organisation, with follower development and empowerment secondary to accomplishing the organisational objectives. The result, nonetheless, is enhanced follower performance (Burns 1978; Yukl, 1998).


L: Expansion of F's portfolio of needs
L: Transcending of F's self-interests
L: Elevation of F's needs to a higher level
L: Confidence of building on F
L: Elevation of valence of designed outcomes for F
L: Elevation of F's subjective probabilities of success
L: Change in organizational culture
From Exhibit 2
F: Current state of expected effort
F: Heightened motivation to attain designated outcome (extra effort)
F: Expected performance
F: Performance beyond expectations
(Bass, 1985)

(Bass, 1985 cited in Stone & Patterson, 2005, p. 8)

Figure 2.3 Transformational leadership model (L=Leader; F=Follower)

Other relevant components of transformational leadership, when compared to servant leadership, are discussed in more detail in Sections 2.4.3 and 2.4.4.

Moral leadership

Moral leadership, according to Burns (1978), refers to a relationship between leaders and followers that involves, not only power, but also mutual needs, aspirations, and values. Moral leadership is not preaching or the uttering of pieties. It is, however, always concerned with the fundamental wants and needs, aspirations, and values of the followers (Graham, 1995). Daft (2005, p. 222) explains that moral leadership is: "about distinguishing right from wrong, and doing right, seeking the just, honest, and good in the practice of leadership. Leaders have great influence over others, and moral leadership gives life to others, and enhances the lives of others". Burns (1978) writes of the "interwoven texture of leadership and followership", and claims that only those acts of leaders that serve ultimately in some way to help release human potentials, locked in ungratified needs and crushed expectations, can be seen as truly legitimate (Burns, 1978).

Principle-centered leadership

The almost “covenantal approach” of moral leadership is further exemplified in Covey's (1992) principle-centered leadership. Principle or post-conventional level of leadership, refers to the level of personal moral development in which leaders are guided by an internalised set of principles, universally recognised as right or wrong (Daft, 2005). In Covey's (1992) paradigm (which is also encompassed by the servant leadership idea) the leader every morning "yokes up", putting on the harness of service, thinking of others. Such leaders realise that growth comes from the inside out; hence, they focus first on changing themselves and then on expanding to other areas of influence in the organisation. Covey (1992) declares that one person can be a change catalyst, a transformer, in any situation or any organisation.

2.3.5 Present and emerging leadership theories: Leadership control versus service

2.3.5.1 Overview

As mentioned in an earlier discussion in this chapter, recent approaches to leadership research have concentrated on a mix of variables. Not only does this kind of research focus on the cognitive effects of leaders on their followers, but also on their influence on the organisation itself through structural, cultural, and performance measures (Conger & Kanungo, 1987). These approaches combined emphasise a leader's motivational skills, symbolic behaviour, vision, and morality in what is termed transformational effects of leadership (House, 1994). From the above discussion, it appears as if the past theoretical approaches have all aided in the contemporary research methods used today.

To this end, trait or personality approaches set the stage for in-depth analyses on leadership characteristics, including physical attributes, personality style, social skills, and personal abilities and skills. The focus on leadership behaviour during the 1950s and 1960s brought about different dimensions of leadership, with scrutiny of distinguishable behaviour, leadership training, reward and punishment, charismatic, and transformational leadership behaviours (Chemers, 1997). This signalled that leadership can be a learned behaviour. The situational and contingency approaches of the late 1960s and 1970s introduced a comprehensive approach where traits/personality variables, task orientations and structure, leader-follower relationships, and situational contexts were all measurable variables through which a leader's effectiveness could be examined (House, 1994, 1999).

2.3.5.2 Moving toward a modern leadership theory

Just as organisations have required dramatic transformations associated with the 21st century, so leadership has. Many people in positional power still behave in a way commensurate with their past experience, and requirements for triumph. Such model, however, belongs to an earlier era; where the current era appears to be one of empowering leadership.

The traditional understanding of leadership is that leaders are good managers who control and direct their followers, who are obedient subordinates who follow orders given to them by their authoritarian leaders. Thus, the autocratic leader makes the decisions and announces them to followers. Therefore, power, purpose, and privilege reside with such autocratic-type leaders (Daft, 2005). These leaders are solely responsible for setting the strategy and goals, as well as the methods and rewards for attaining them – with an emphasis placed on organisational efficiency, routine, stability, structure, and control.

However, much of the thinking about leadership nowadays implies that a moral-oriented leadership encourages change toward developing followers into leaders – thereby developing their potential instead of using a leadership position or rank to control or limit followers (Daft, 2005). The behaviours that flow from the old paradigm can seemingly not create the type of quality organisation that will succeed neither in contemporary nor future situations (McFarland, Senn & Childress, 1993). Daft (2005) views this leadership thinking and practice on a continuum of, ranging from authoritarian leadership at the one end of the continuum, to servant leadership at the other end – with participation and empowerment (stewardship), respectively, placed in between (depicted in Figure 2.6). As McFarland *et al.* (1993) list the important changes in leadership today, they offer a description of servant leadership, although they do not use the specific term.

In the following section, each stage of this leadership continuum will be discussed. However, the information on autocratic leadership is deemed to suffice as part of this continuum discussion.

2.3.5.3 Participative management / shared leadership

Participative leadership is interactive and allows followers some influence over the leader's decisions (Block, 1994). It may occur in many ways. However, since the emphasis on teamwork as an important part of how work is done and organised in many organisations, participation and teamwork have become inseparable (Daft, 2005). The following four decision procedures are generally regarded as distinct and meaningful – and can be ordered along a continuum beginning with non-participative autocratic decisions, and ranging to the highly participative action of delegation (Yukl, 1998):

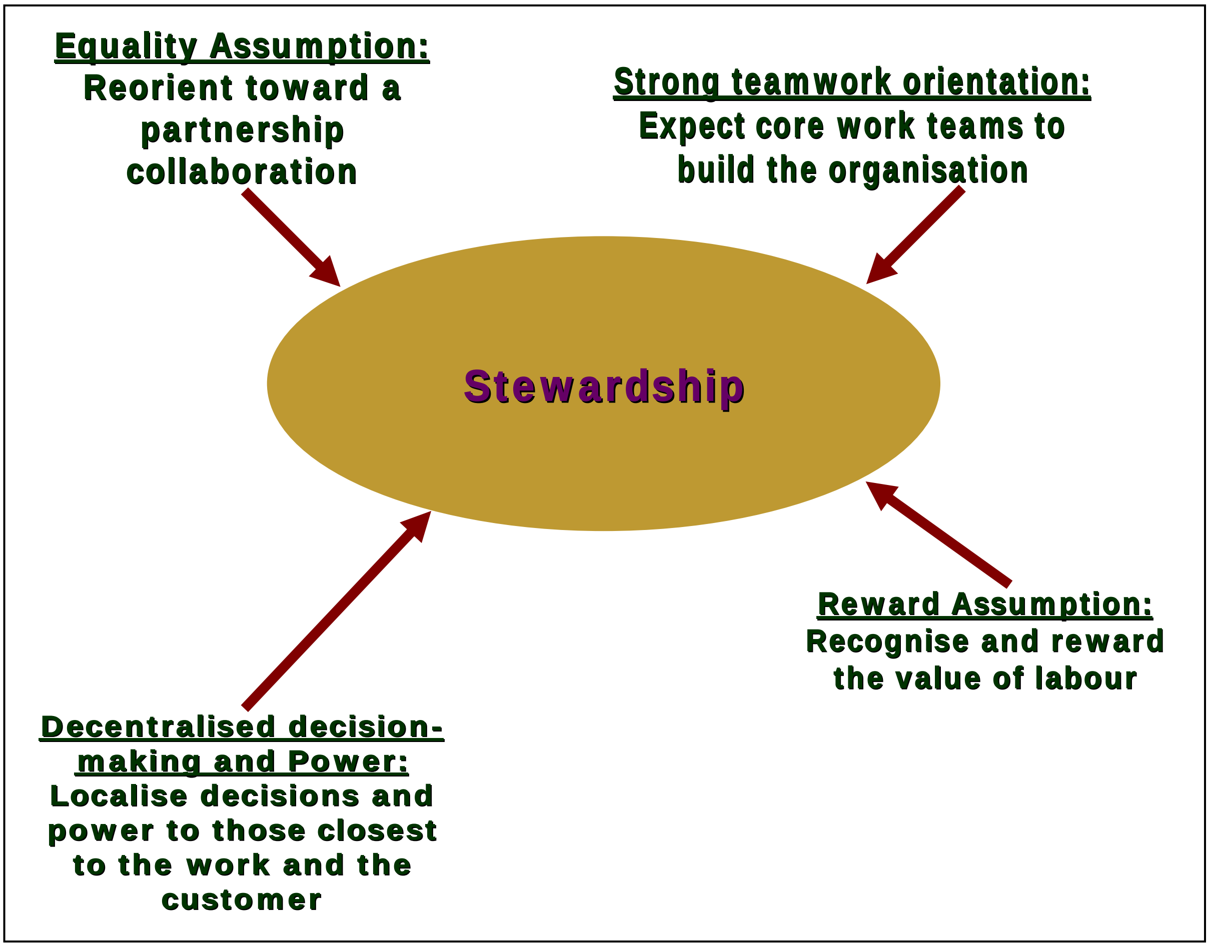
1. *Autocratic decision*: the leader makes a decision alone.
2. *Consultation*: the leader asks followers for their opinions and ideas, then makes the decision alone after seriously considering their suggestions and concerns.
3. *Joint decision*: the leader meets with followers to discuss the problem and to formulate a decision; the leader has no more influence over the final decision that any other participant.
4. *Delegation*: the leader gives authority to an individual or group to make a decision. There are usually limits in which the final choice must fall and final approval may or may not be required before implementation.

McCaffrey, Faerman and Hart (1995) claim there are many benefits to participative leadership. For one, it is likely to increase the quality of a decision, especially when followers have knowledge that the leader is lacking. Furthermore, commitment is usually increased with increase influence. Participative leadership can also sharpen the decision making skills of followers and it is, thus, a useful way to develop future leaders. In addition, it can facilitate conflict resolution and team building (McCaffrey *et al*., 1995).

Block (1994) claims that participative leadership goes beyond the goal-oriented behaviour that is addressed in the trait approach, while simultaneously extending beyond the simplistic leader/follower exchange that occurs in the transactional leadership model. The degree of participative leadership that is awarded to followers is a reflection of his/her individual knowledge, and skills, while at the same time limited by leadership ability and situational constraints (Yukl, 1998). The leader is not only driven by goal attainment, follower development is a key objective as well.

2.3.5.4 Stewardship

Stewardship surfaced as a pivotal shift in leadership thinking (Block, 1993, 1994), since followers are empowered to make decisions, and have control over how they do their own jobs. Leaders give power to, and enable followers to influence goals, systems, and structures – ultimately to become leaders themselves. “Stewardship is a belief that leaders are deeply accountable to others as well as to the organization, without trying to control others, define meaning and purpose for others, or take care of others” (Daft, 2005, p. 228). Stewardship has been called the “alternative to leadership”, because its focus is on the people doing the work, and not so much on the leader who only gives the work (Daft, 2005). Four basic principles/values provide the framework for stewardship (Daft, 2005). These four principles are succinctly illustrated by Figure 2.4 below.


Equality Assumption:
Reorient toward a partnership collaboration
Strong teamwork orientation:
Expect core work teams to build the organisation
Stewardship
Reward Assumption:
Recognise and reward the value of labour
Decentralised decision-making and Power:
Localise decisions and power to those closest to the work and the customer

(Adapted from: Daft, 2005)

Figure 2.4 A framework for stewardship

2.3.5.5 Servant leadership

The servant leadership model is based on the idea of the servant as a leader (Greenleaf, 1970, 1977), or more conceptually of a leader having the duty to serve his/her followers. Servant leadership was created as an attempt to link previous paradoxes concerning leadership. Task accomplishment is a focus, yet it is also recognised that leaders should be aware of the social implication associated with task accomplishment. Leadership effectiveness is another concern, but global efficiency, the concern for long-term human and environmental welfare, is equally weighted in Greenleaf's model (1977). The servant leadership model goes a step beyond the transformational leadership models. Servant leadership stresses ethical practice, whereas, only certain transformational theorists suggested that ethical behaviour is a necessary component of transformational leadership (Bass, 1990, 2000). Although there are some aspects of Greenleaf's model that take on a religious nuance or inuendo, the basic assumption of leaders having a duty to serve in ethically and environmentally conscious ways, seems a sound base upon which to build. However, Greenleaf did not concern himself with the specific characteristics of leaders, followers, or the situation. Instead, while recognising that these are factors, Geenleaf (1996) focused on global long-term effects of leadership behaviours. Greenleaf's model therefore proposes ethical standards for long-term goals, and demonstrates how people ought to view the long-term consequences of a mission.

Therefore, Greenleaf's focus was on fostering leadership one person at a time, one action at a time. Greenleaf's servant leader-thinking encompasses people who enrich others by their presence, who know that the only authority that deserves one's allegiance is that which is freely granted by the led, in response to the servant stature of the leader – and who realises that the typical person is capable of great achievement (Greenleaf, 1977). Servant leadership therefore views a leader as a servant of his/her followers. It places the interest of followers before the self-interest of a leader, emphasises personal development, and empowerment of followers. The servant leader is a facilitator for followers to achieve a shared vision (Greenleaf, 1977; Spears, 1998; Spears & Lawrence, 2002; Laub, 1999).

2.4 Clarifying servant leadership

Like transformational leadership, the notion of servant leadership also emerged from the heritage of charismatic leadership theory (Graham, 1991). Though, compared to transformational leadership, servant leader research is much more limited (Bass, 2000). Nonetheless, Laub (2004) claims that to understand servant leadership one must have a clear understanding of the leadership construct. This has been the purpose of the discussions up to this point. It could be argued that once the nature of leadership is understood, can the possible contribution of the servant leader paradigm to leadership effectiveness be understood. From the preceding discussions it seems evident that leadership has always been exercised within a paradigm, or a mindset of the leader. Laub (2004) claims that his 1999 definition on servant leadership (stated in Chapter 1, p. 25) provides a step toward an understanding of what servant leadership is in distinction from other viewpoints on leadership.

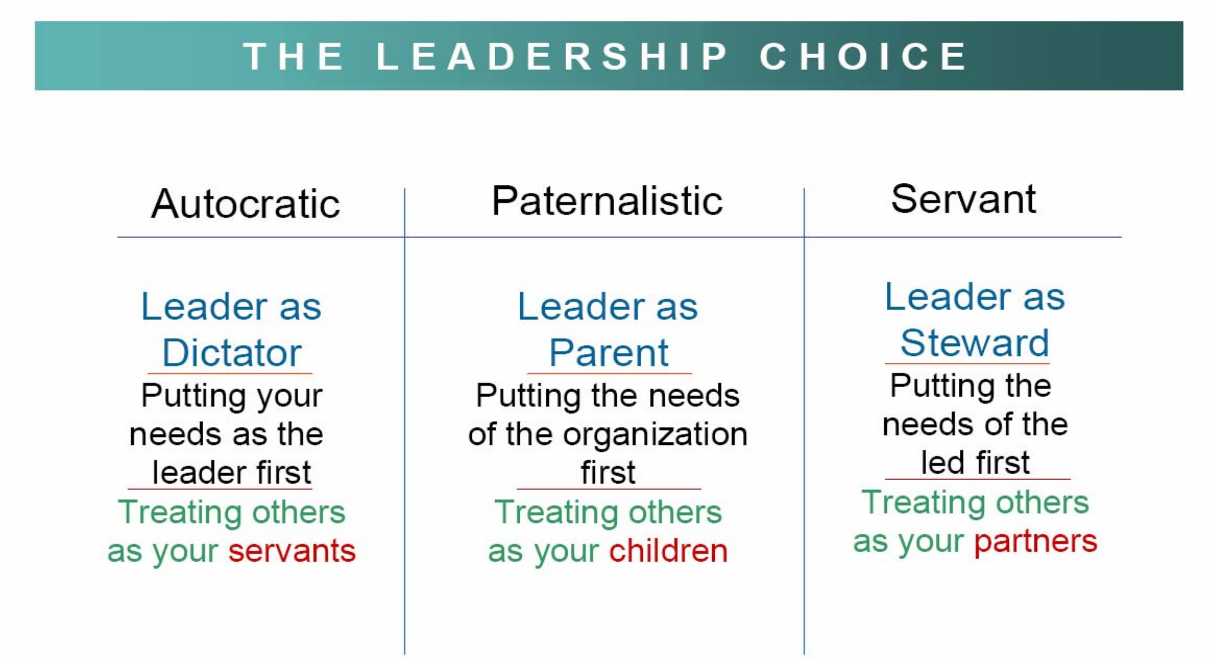
Laub (2004, pp. 9-10) breaks it down into the following essential parts, claiming that servant leadership is:

- *An understanding and practice of leadership* … – servant leadership requires a mindshift, or a paradigm change, that views the leader, leadership and the led in a different way from other competing mindsets. This paradigm can be contrasted to an autocratic mindset, in which the leader leads for self over others or a paternalistic mindset, in which the leader leads as a parent over "children". Servant leadership is not a style of leadership though it is often portrayed that way in leadership theory texts. It is a paradigm that reshapes the understanding and practice of leadership. The autocratic leader will engage in the leadership process towards change, but will do it from a central focus on self. This will end up effecting how followers are treated and how the vision is pursued. The vision, of course, will be the leader's vision and the led are called on to meet the leader's demands. For obvious reasons, the leadership process will look very different when based on an autocratic paradigm in contrast to a servant one (Laub, 2003).

- … *that places the good of those led* … – servant leadership requires a different focus; a focus that is first and foremost on the led. This places other key concerns; the leader's wishes, organisational interests, even customers in a peripheral category. It does not ignore these critical issues but it places the priority of focus on the place where it ought to rest — on the led. Regarding this, Patterson (2003, p. 2) states that: "Servant leadership stands alone in regard to this follower focus". Regarding this, Stone (2003, pp. 1-2) draws an important distinction between servant leaders and transformational leaders when he states that: "Transformational leaders tend to focus more on organizational objectives while servant leaders focus more on the people who are their followers". These, and other aspects, are important distinctions and help to build the scholarship structure around the concept of servant leadership. Servant leaders believe that by taking the risk of focusing on the led, returns in the critical areas of productivity, teamwork and customer service will increase by maximising the full potential of each employee. This certainly entails a substantial leap of faith, but there seems growing evidence that this is actually a practical and workable strategy (Collins, 2001, 2002).

- … *over the self interest of the leader.* – servant leadership seems to be the only understanding of leadership that acknowledges the critical dimension of self-interest in leadership and deals directly with it. Power is seen as the ability to do, and to act. Leaders almost always possess it, and exert it for various purposes. Laub (1999) states that the autocratic leader uses their power to serve their own interests. Paternalistic leaders use power to meet organisational goals by parenting the organisational family. While servant leaders, while fully aware of the influence/power of their own self-interest, and the reality of organisational needs, intentionally place the good of the led as their main concern. The servant leader acknowledges their power, but they chose to use it to serve the best interests of the led over their own self-interest.

Millard (2001) has developed a concept he calls the Z-axis to describe how the autocratic, paternalistic or servant paradigm will determine the leadership behaviour, when utilising a particular leadership or management approach. He applies this specifically to the popular situational leadership approach and makes a strong case for servant leadership as an underlying paradigm versus another style of leadership. Laub (1999, 2003, 2004) also describes servant leadership according to the above dissection, specifically naming this shift in paradigm, the APS model (Autocratic – Paternalistic – Servant), as illustrated in Figure 2.5 below.



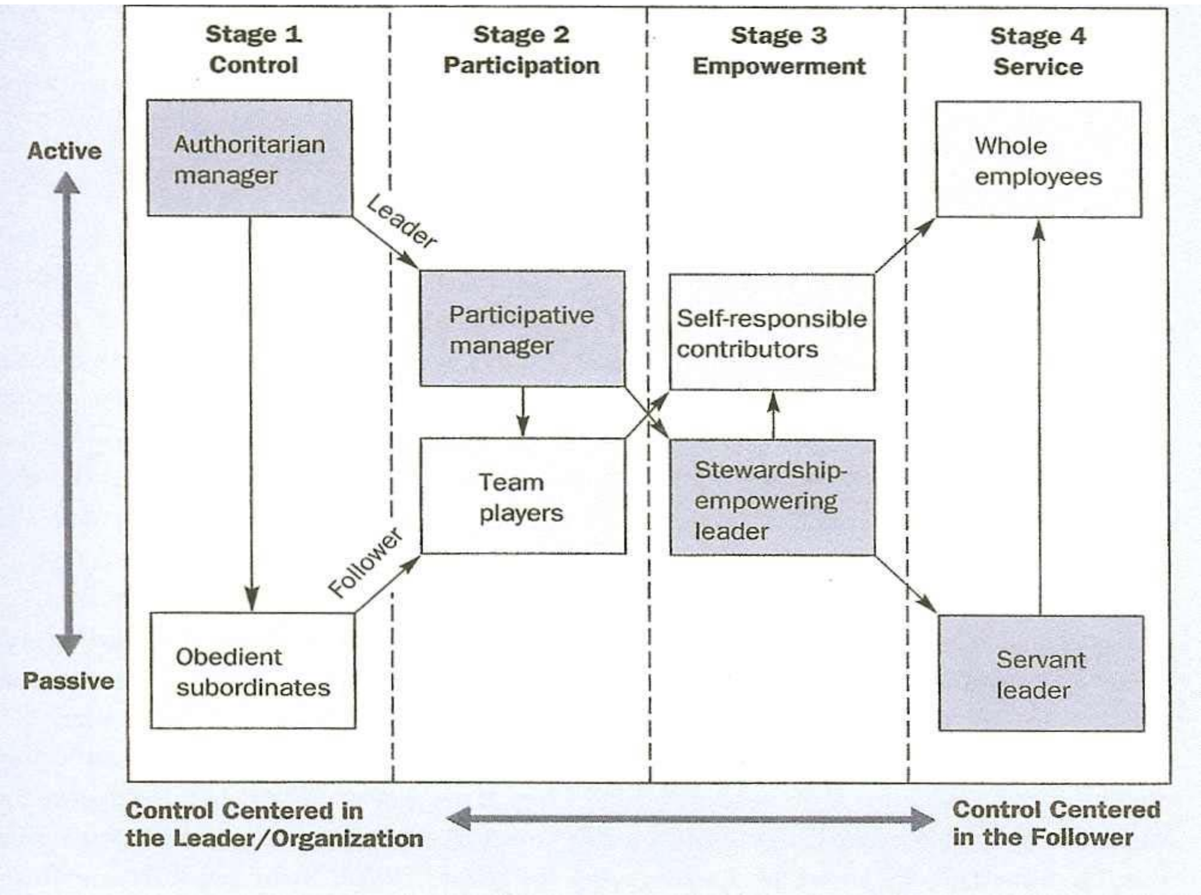
THE LEADERSHIP CHOICE

Autocratic	Paternalistic	Servant
Leader as Dictator	Leader as Parent	Leader as Steward
Putting your needs as the leader first	Putting the needs of the organization first	Putting the needs of the led first
Treating others as your servants	Treating others as your children	Treating others as your partners

(Laub, 2003, p. 6)

Figure 2.5 The leadership choice: From self-serving to serving according to the APS model

Figure 2.6 illustrates the continuum of leadership thinking and practice, as discussed above. In the first stage, subordinates are passive under the control of the authoritarian leader, without scope granted to think for themselves, but only to execute what they are told to do. Stage two in the continuum involves followers more actively in their own work, inviting them to participate and work together as a team. Stage three entails stewardship, which represents a significant mind-shift, where responsibility and authority are moved from leaders to followers, and whereby followers are empowered to do so. Stage four depicts the emphasis on service, where servant leadership represents a step beyond stewardship, in that leaders forfeit control, and make the choice (or decide to) serve their followers/employees.


Stage 1
Control
Stage 2
Participation
Stage 3
Empowerment
Stage 4
Service
Active
Passive
Authoritarian manager
Leader
Participative manager
Self-responsible contributors
Whole employees
Team players
Stewardship-empowering leader
Follower
Obedient subordinates
Servant leader
Control Centered in the Leader/Organization
Control Centered in the Follower

(Daft, 2005, p. 227)

Figure 2.6 Continuum of leader-follower relationships: From authoritarian manager to servant leader

2.4.1 Toward a "theory" of servant leadership: Theoretical development

Although Greenleaf’s (1977) general definition (as stated in Chapter 1, p. 21) seems to have reached some consensus among servant leadership scholars, elucidating distinct conceptual components has proven more difficult (Humphreys, 2005). This probably explains why several scholars have engaged in investigating the construct since Greenleaf’s seminal work, but no consensual framework has yet emerged. The three broad and overarching components of: (a) openness, (b) vision, and (c) stewardship, provide a way to operationalise servant leadership, and (servant leadership) can therefore succinctly said to be leadership that puts the needs of others and the organisation first, is characterised by openness, vision and stewardship, and results in building community within organisations.

Can there be a "theory" of servant leadership? In attempting to answer this, the question arises as to how servant leadership compares with other leadership theories and concepts? Theory implies concepts that can be measured and tested with research procedures that can be replicated. A theory can be thought of as a formulation, verified to some degree, of principles of certain observed phenomena and how those principles are related (Polleys, 2002). However, Spears (2003) cautions against attempts to define servant leadership as a fixed or complicated set of requirements. According to Spears (2002) servant leadership is open to considerable interpretation and value judgements. While most people understand the idea to be defined by Greenleaf's often quoted explanation, included in Chapter 1 and earlier in Chapter 2, some who embrace that definition would go still further in identifying specific characteristics of servant leadership without which, they might argue, one really cannot be a servant leader (Spears, 2004).

2.4.2 Comparing major leadership theories to servant leadership

Attempting to mould servant leadership into a theory would probably be futile – at most the SL model can be compared to the predominant leadership theories. As opposed to other models of leadership, Smith *et al.* (2004) observe that Greenleaf's servant leadership concept is unique in the sense that it begins with an analysis of leader motivation. Although the concepts and the terminology may seem similar, the difference between servant leadership and other leadership models is that servant leadership may produce a different type of culture because of the underlying motivation of the leader. As mentioned earlier, Greenleaf did not provide any definitions of servant leadership as such, but instead focused on specific behaviours of a servant leader, and on the influence a servant leader has on followers. While it ultimately manifests itself in *the behaviour* of the leader, the underlying motivational forces in servant leadership are found exclusively in the principles, values, and beliefs that the leader holds. Serving others is the means by which the servant leader facilitates the accomplishing of their desired goals. Merely serving is not the means by which to get results, but the behaviour of serving is the result (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). The purpose of the following section is thus focused on reviewing components of major leadership theories, either relating or contrasting to, the notion of servant leadership.

Servant leadership is regularly in the literature contrasted only to transformational leadership. However, servant leadership differs not only from transformational, but also from other major leadership theories. Servant leadership seems to cut across the leadership theories and provides a foundational philosophy for the theories that emphasise principles congruent with human growth. Servant leadership appears to have much in common with the Great Man and trait theories in that character matters. Central to servant leadership is the character of the individual. The newly emerging dimension to leadership is spoken of as interpersonal sensitivity (McFarland *et al*., 1993). Words like courage, hope, caring, heart, love, compassion, listening, cooperation, and service are used to describe the new paradigm, and people who embody it. Kidder (1995) writes of leaders who provide "moral glue" in this age of global interdependence – of persons who ascribe to a set of values that wise, ethical people around the world might agree on.

Kidder (1998) includes love, truthfulness, fairness, freedom, unity, tolerance, responsibility, respect for life, courage, wisdom, hospitality, and peace in his "global code of ethics" that servant leaders appears to personify. There has been a strong tendency among leadership scholars and the media to treat leaders as isolated heroes controlling and commanding others from within their “ivory towers” (Gronn, 1995; Yukl, 1999). As illustrated earlier, within the organisational context, the word “leader” has been mostly ascribed to people who hold management positions, and are capable of giving orders to other members of the organisation (Senge, 1990b). Sendjaya and Sarros (2002, p. 5) state that: “the common, principal motive for such larger-than-life Herculean leaders is to lead followers to achieve certain organisational objectives”. Consistent with theories focusing on *who the leader is*, servant leadership focuses on the leader's personal characteristics, but the qualities are those that can be developed by anyone with the corresponding value system. Thus, the old way of looking at leaders singled out dynamic, charismatic, force-of-personality factors that seemed inborn rather than acquired. Conversely, the call for servant leaders instead takes into account traits that flow naturally from deeply held beliefs about the worth of human beings. Therefore, the leader's traits are still respected as being important, but in the servant leadership paradigm, the traits are those that any person can grow toward as s/he acts from a set of fundamental principles that disperse borders, and transcend race and culture (Kidder, 1995).

Moreover, leadership in general, is intricately contained in culture. According to Masi (2000) leadership can produce cultural change or simply reinforce existing norms . Sergiovanni (1984) and Fairholm (1994) propose that leadership seeks to build community in an organisation. Consequently, leaders are charged with developing and fostering organisational value patterns and norms that respond to the needs of individuals and groups for order, stability, and meaning. As a result, Fairholm (1994) recommends leaders bring perspective, guiding principles, a clear platform or statement of one's principles, and a sense of purpose to the organisation. These ideas are echoed in Greenleaf's (1977) assertion that servant leaders listen to, and are aware of the needs of those within the organisation, conceptualise a vision for the organisation, become stewards of, and build, the organisational community.

An aspect to servant leadership that probably deserves to be mentioned is the call servant leadership makes to leaders to build people and community, to dream great dreams and instill those in others, and to heal people in the organisation. As such, it is similar to the major idea behind transformational leadership. Transformational leaders are charged to help build organisational vision, mobilise the organisation to achieve that dream, and to institutionalise whatever changes are needed to make the dream become reality (Bass, 1996; Tichy & Ulrich, 1984). Transformational leadership is about healing broken organisations (Bass, 2000). Thus, pulling such organisations through to see the advantage of a shared vision, and to arrive at new ways of being and doing. In this respect, servant leadership can be seen as transformational leadership.

In addition to similarities to the trait theories, servant leadership is similar to behavioural theories in that the leader's behaviour is of critical importance. The servant leadership concept, for example, is especially compatible with McGregor's Theory Y (1960) and with Likert's (1961) findings. It also has similarities to situational-contingency theories in that the complex interactions of leader, followers, and situations are central. However, servant leadership recognises another widely accepted truth in leadership theory: leadership is a relationship, not a set of attributes or traits (Daft, 2005). Leadership, as McGregor (1960) notes, is not a property of the individual, but a complex relationship between the characteristics of the leader, the attitudes and needs of the followers, the organisation and its characteristics, and the environment. With its stress on building community, listening, empathy, foresight, and awareness, it seems that servant leadership is based on the idea that leadership is a relationship, not a position. For example, Bass (1996) acknowledges that transformational leadership can be authoritarian as well as participative. Bass (2000) also contends that, depending on circumstances, at times, servant leaders should focus on the task; at other times, they should focus on their relations with their followers.

Both Fiedler's (1970) contingency model and Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) life-cycle theory also propose that the authoritarian styles of leadership will be effective, under the correct circumstances (Fiedler, 1970; Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). Conversely, Greenleaf (1977) completely rejects authoritarian or coercive approaches; indeed, he maintains that the use of coercive power is destructive and ultimately results in the failure of the organisation to achieve its objectives. However, Greenleaf’s thinking lacks an adequate explanation of how the leader should reconcile conflicts between the objectives of individuals, and the needs of the organisation as a whole. Nonetheless, Bass (1996) contends that transformational leaders transcend their personal, self-interests for either utilitarian or moral purposes.

In contrast, Greenleaf (1977) stresses the moral component of leadership virtually to the exclusion of utilitarian concerns.

In addition, both the contingency model (Fiedler, 1970) and the life-cycle theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) focus on behaviours. In these leadership theories, it is the leader's behaviour that is important and to which followers respond. Greenleaf (1977) centers servant leadership on attitudes. For Greenleaf, it is the leader's attitude of service towards his or her followers that distinguishes the servant leader from other types of leaders. While servant leadership rejects some of the principles underpinning the contingency, life-cycle and transformational theories of leadership, it has clear connections with many, long-standing leadership concepts. Servant leadership, with its emphasis on building community, is a form of transformational leadership that seeks to build both the people within the organisation and the organisation itself. With its emphasis on the connection between the leader and followers, and the leader and the organisation, servant leadership clearly rejects old ideas of leadership as a set of traits, in favour of leadership as a relationship. Finally, by emphasising the idea of working with employees, servant leadership echoes Follett's (1987) dream of employees and management working as a team in solving organisational problems.

The situational (contingency) theory of leadership, i.e. leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, shares some views with servant leadership, particularly in the context of high-quality exchanges, represented by the “in-group” (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In LMX theory, high-LMX leaders develop trusting and mutually beneficial relationships with employees, just as servant leaders develop strong supportive relationships with all employees and colleagues (Greenleaf, 1996). The SL framework explicitly delineates the leader’s characteristics in the relationship, whereas LMX theory provides a normative description of the relationship.

However, servant-leadership can also be distinguished from the leader-member exchange theory of leadership (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991; Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999). Though the two constructs do share some similarities; for instance, both emphasise the leader's priority of follower development, and the relationship between leaders and followers – there are several key distinctions. First, servant-leadership differs from LMX in one of the same ways that it differs from transformational leadership; it acknowledges the responsibility of the leader to other organisational stakeholders beyond his/her subordinates. Second, a key component of servant-leadership is the ethical behaviour of the leader; this aspect is at most indirectly included in LMX theory. Finally, as LMX has traditionally been conceptualised and studied at the dyadic level of analysis (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991; Schriesheim *et al*., 1999), this approach would be inappropriate for a study of the consistent behaviour of leaders across group members – thus encompassing more than only dyad-type relationships.

While Smith *et al*. (2004) compared transformational with servant leadership in an endeavour to identify differences based on the types of cultures created by each, as well as the contextual factors that may precipitate one style over the other, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) describe servant leadership as distinct from transformational leadership, and LMX theories – using roles of leaders or followers, moral intent, expected outcomes, and levels of analysis (individual, interpersonal, group, organisation, society). Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) claim that LMX theories are more descriptive than normative, thus practical assumptions were implicit in their analysis. In their study, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) found that servant leadership was a better predictor of LMX quality than was transformational leadership. This finding supports the premise that servant leaders create serving relationships with their followers, which contrasts with transformational leaders, who transcend followers' interests toward organisational goals (Burns, 1978). These findings demonstrate the impact that servant leadership has on the LMX relationship.

In this light, charismatic leadership, transformational leadership, and servant leadership can be considered contingency models – as they all acknowledge the relationship between leaders, followers, and the situation. However, Smith *et al*. (2004) reason that a careful reading of many of Greenleaf's concepts regarding leader behaviours are similar to the formulations of charismatic leadership proposed by Conger and Kanungo (1998), Bass (1996) and Bass and Avolio (1994a, 1994b). Charismatic, transformational, and servant leadership differ from the previous six contingency models, however. These models apply far greater equality between the three factors – leaders, followers, and the situation. Increasingly, these models introduce the idea of leaders having an ethical and moral obligation to their followers. They are also geared towards follower growth and development. For these reasons they (strictly) deserve to be grouped apart from the other contingency models. Thus, servant leadership seems congruent with transformational, charismatic, and moral leadership, but negates the more commonly practiced transactional leadership style.

Since servant leadership is regularly in the literature contrasted to transformational leadership, the following section will be devoted to examining servant leadership and transformational leadership from a normative leadership theory approach. The following theories and models, which emphasise different aspects of leadership, share some commonalties and differences with servant leadership.

2.4.3 Examining servant leadership and transformational leadership from a normative leadership theory approach

Goethals, Sorenson and Burns (2004, p. 464) define normative theories of leadership as: "commentators who make their normative commitments explicit by offering recommendations for how leaders ought to behave often identify good leadership with what thinkers from Plato to Burns hold is necessary for leadership itself, namely, concern for the good of followers". Thus, such theories (supposedly) make the opposition between concern for self and concern for others the key defining distinction in constituting true leadership ethics (Goethals *et al.,* 2004).

To this end Gronbacher (1998) argues that moral philosophy and social science are interconnected within the human being – therefore necessitating any proper synthesis of these areas to be in congruence with anthropology. In this light, Whetstone (2002) adds that any normative leadership theory ought to be rooted in personalism, i.e. considering every person as a spiritual and a material creature. However, Whetstone (2002) warns that any leadership approach is flawed if it seeks the wrong teleological aim. Thus: "normative paradigms, including servant leadership, that can effectively direct the vision of followers toward misplaced aims, are especially dangerous" (Whetstone, 2002, p. 389).

Despite existing anecdotal research, it appears that transformational and servant leadership are similar in both being people-oriented leadership theories. However, there seems little to none empirical evidence describing their unique attributes and differences (Humphreys, 2005). Theoretical assumptions have developed since the 1990s about the transformational leader's focus versus the servant leader's focus (Smith *et al.,* 2004).

Therefore, this section will be analysed according to the existing theoretical (and limited empirical) work conducted in this field. The purpose of the following section is to review major components of both transformational and servant leadership, and to compare these two theories, specifically highlighting theoretical similarities and differences that exist between these two leadership concepts. This dissertation does not necessarily assume that one leadership style is better than the other, but that the discussion of the moral nature of the two styles does offer some distinctions between the focus of the transformational leader versus the servant leader.

2.4.4 Distinguishing transformational from servant leadership: Contextual, positional, and dispositional differences

Despite transformational (Burns, 1978) and servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977) being in existence since the late 1970s, it was Graham's (1991) concern over the transformational leader's moral fallibility that prompted an initial distinction between the two concepts. However, this early acknowledgement did not result in empirical research on the differences. Graham recognised the potential moral shortcomings of the transformational leader's allegiance to the organisation's objectives and offered servant leadership's focus on service as a means of overcoming this moral weakness.

Not only Graham (1991), but also Stephens, D'Intino and Victor (1995), Whetstone (2002), and Whittington, Goodwin and Murray (2004) offer differences in the moral nature of the two concepts. This appears to be an interesting observation, since morality is seen as a critical element of Burns' (1978) notion of transforming leadership. Yet, little empirical attention has been given to the moral dimension (Humphreys, 2005). In a field experiment conducted by Dvir, Eden, Avolio and

Shamir (2002) it was revealed that transformational leadership enhanced only one confined measure of follower morality. In addition, there seems to be limited evidence that leaders who demonstrate higher moral reasoning abilities necessarily display more transformational leader behavious than those with lesser moral reasoning abilities (Turner, Barling, Epitropaki, Butcher & Milner, 2002). Although Bass (1985, p. 736) supports the moral component to transformational leadership, he "emphasised the collectivistic aspect of moral development" and subsequently focused more on the ability to influence followers to move beyond their individual interests for the advantage of the organisation (Dvir *et al.,* 2002). Albeit, this "moral aspect", some have suggested that servant leadership is basically a form of transformational leadership, or at least could be subsumed under the transformational leadership construct (Beazley & Beggs, 2002; Humphreys, 2005).

Adding to this concern, Stephens, D'Intino and Victor (1995) contend that transformational leadership could violate the organisational development ethical norms because of its focus on overriding the individual interests and values of followers, in attempting to modify followers' interests and values to best suit the organisation's interests and values. This contrasts with the servant leadership paradigm, where, both the organisation and external stakeholders are considered, but it is made clear that the needs of the members of the organisation are placed in priority over organisational success (Smith *et al.,* 2004). Within the servant leadership paradigm, leadership is seen independent from position and/or status, with the main objective to seek opportunities to serve others, in aiding them to develop to their full potential (Smith *et al*., 2004). This is in line with Greenleaf's (1977) original belief, i.e. the final goal of servanthood is to help others become servants themselves so that society too, would benefit. Smith *et al*. (2004) stress that in servant leadership, personal development is not limited to the followers, but the leader also benefits and grows from the developmental process.

Stephens *et al*. (1995) suggest that two servant leader traits, as proposed by Greenleaf (1977), namely leader consciousness and service orientation toward followers, could probably be applied against possible violation by a transformational leader of the organisational development ethical norms. Whetstone (2002) explored which leadership approach would best fit with the moral philosophy of personalism.

Whetstone (2002) describes personalism as a position that views a person and personal relationships as the point of departure of social theory and practice. Whetstone’s analysis identified the potential moral disadvantages of the transformational leader’s focus on organisational objectives as well as the moral advantages of the servant leader’s focus on serving followers. Whetstone (2002) reasons that a transformational leader can be too instrumentalist, focusing too much on realising his/her personal vision to the neglect of respecting the dignity of his followers. Whetstone also contains that transformational leadership is effective in communicating and convincing followers to achieve a vision, but without principled constraint and full and genuine participation in defining the communal good, its very power can result in exalting the leader and, in the extreme, supporting a tyrant. Burns (1978) contrasts transforming leadership with the traditional forms of transactional leadership. Instead of motivating by appealing to Maslow's (1943) lower level needs (food, shelter, safety, and affiliation), transformational leaders focus on the higher levels of follower needs (esteem, self-fulfilment, and self-actualisation).

Whetstone (2002) posits that a weakness of some who would be servant leaders, is that they are susceptible to manipulation by more experienced (hardened) followers. On the other hand, transformational leadership, when too successful, has a tendency to enable and even promote the manipulation of followers by expert leaders. Whetstone proposes that a theoretically superior approach would be a combination in which a morally tough servant leader adopts certain behaviours of Bass's altruistic transformational leader. To inspire followers with the strength and sensitivity of a transforming vision, the servant leader would use proven transforming techniques such as developing a vision, enlisting others, fostering collaboration, strengthening others, planning small wins, linking rewards to performance, and celebrating accomplishments (Kouzes & Posner 1995). Whetstone (2002) concludes by suggesting that a composite approach, which combines the significant strengths of servant leadership with successful behavioural practices of transformational leadership, would be superior to either paradigm alone.

In theory, a transformational leader has the goal of raising the level of morality of his/her followers and the organisation, creating a more moral climate, fostering independent action, and serving the greater good (Whetstone, 2002). However, Johnson (2001) observes that the popularity of the transformational paradigm is due to the pragmatic finding that it actually works, in the sense of increasing the economic performance of subordinates – it is not due to the ethical advantages claimed for it by Burns (1978). This very pragmatic effectiveness of this approach can undermine its moral aims. Transformational leaders can ignore or downplay the contributions of followers in order to promote their own interests (Kelley 1992). Moreover, followers tend to become too dependent on the transformational leader as charismatic hero (Johnson, 2001). Keeley (1995) claims that combining pragmatism with enculturation of moral (or immoral) vision, the transformational leadership paradigm places inadequate stress on individual rights and moral duties required to guide behaviours toward genuine communal good. However, a transformational leader can be effective in instilling a vision, moulding the character and vision of followers to achieve that vision. But if the vision is flawed or if the leader neglects to stress principled behaviours toward the vision, the results can be detrimental (Rasmussen 1995).

Whittington *et al*. (2004) warned scholars that the transformational leader's motivation toward organisational objectives could become self-serving or egoistic whereas the servant leader's motivation toward serving others was more altruistic in nature. This dissertation does not assume that one leadership style is better than the other but that the discussion of the moral nature of the two styles does offer some distinctions between the focus of the transformational leader versus that of the servant leader.

Though Smith *et al*. (2004) interpret both transformational and servant leadership to be rooted primarily in the study of charismatic leadership, it appears as if the literature indicate that the more general premise to servant leadership is a form of transformational leadership – and as such, continually builds both the leader and the follower (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Bass, 2000; Burns, 1978; Farling *et al*., 1999; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Stone, Russell & Patterson, 2003, 2004). In a comparative study by Graham (1991), servant leadership was conceptualised distinct from charismatic and transformational leadership, by means of structuring it within four classifications of charismatic leadership: (a) Weberian charismatic authority, (b) personal celebrity charisma, (c) transformational leadership, and (d) servant leadership. By doing so, Graham followed the line of reasoning that charismatic leadership appears to be the theoretical underpinning for each of these leadership models. Graham (1991) indicated that both transformational and servant leadership occur inspirational and moral, but that servant leadership surfaces as the most moral of charismatic effects. Additionally Graham identified servant leadership's salient characteristics as (a) humility, (b) relational power, (c) autonomy, (d) moral development of followers, and (e) emulation of leaders' service orientation.

Graham (1991) seems clear that despite servant leadership being described by many as synonymous with Burns's (1978) original conceptualisation of transforming leadership and later Bass's transformational leadership (Bass, 1985, 2000; Bass & Avolio, 1994), it is distinct in at least two ways. First, servant leadership acknowledges the responsibility of the leader – not only to the organisation's objectives, goals, and personal development of followers – but also to a broader span of organisational stakeholders. Second, servant leadership adds a moral dimension to the idea of transformational leadership. In this regard Graham (1991, p. 110) states: "… there is nothing in the transformational leadership model that says leaders should serve followers for the good of followers ... the primary allegiance of transformational leaders is clearly to the organization (or to themselves) rather than to follower autonomy or to universal moral principles". Graham (1991) believes that this distinction highlights the servant leader's inclination towards facilitating followers improvement for their own good – simultaneously viewing the development of the follower as an end in and of itself – as opposed to merely a means to reach the leader's or organisation's goals.

Linking onto these observations, Ehrhart (2004) postulates that the idea of servant leadership is consistent with the conceptualisation of unit-level leadership, i.e. the unit-level cognition about how unit members as a whole are treated by the leader. Ehrhart (2004) therefore views servant leadership as a true depiction of what is assumed with unit-level leadership, since the servant leader strives to serve all of his/her followers, and to avoid inconsistencies in how s/he treats them, as this would contradict the underlying moral emphasis of the concept. In a study by Church (1995) he linked leadership behaviours to service performance in an endeavour to establish whether managers make a difference or not. What Church (1995) found, was that leadership behaviours of managers in the workplace directly affect service quality and organisational performance at the unit level. Similarly, Lytle *et al*. (1998) found servant leadership and service vision to be foundational leadership elements within their service orientation model.

Coinciding with this reasoning, Smith *et al*. (2004) provide a contextual analysis of these two theories, suggesting that the application of these theories lead to significantly different organisational cultures, which seem appropriate to the context in which an organisation operates (as depicted in Figure 2.7). For example an organisational context which puts an emphasis on a sense of community, empowerment, shared authority, and relational power (Bass, 2000).

Humphreys (2005) and Smith *et al*. (2004) seem to be concerned about the universality of servant and transformational leadership. Are both of these theories sufficient in all contexts, or do the contexts in which organisations exist make one of these approaches to leadership more appropriate? The following sections will address transformational and servant leadership in more detail, before addressing similarities and contextual appropriateness.

Following this thinking, Smith *et al*. (2004), and Humphreys (2005) attempted to expand on these contextual concerns, by means of examining the underlying motivational bases of the transformational versus servant leader, along with the cultural outcomes of each style, respectively. Smith, *et al*. (2004) studied the motivation of both leaders to propose that servant leaders were motivated to serve and that this service produced a “spiritual generative culture” (p. 85). Conversely, transformational leaders, were motivated by: “a sense of mission to recreate the organization to survive a challenging external environment” (p. 85) and that motivation led to an: “empowered dynamic culture” (p. 85). Humphreys (2005, p. 1416) contrast the two different motivational bases as: “servant leaders begin with a feeling of altruism and egalitarianism … [while] transformational leaders are more motivated by organizational success, particularly within a tumultuous external milieu”. Humphreys (2005), in line with Graham’s (1991) conclusion, similarly conclude that transformational leaders may be necessary during times of significant organisational change – where servant leadership makes provision for more passive followers.

Smith *et al*. (2004) suggest contextual factors might determine the appropriateness of particular leader behaviours associated with transformational and/or servant leadership. In assent to both Graham’s (1991) and Humphrey’s (2005) conclusion mentioned above, Smith *et al*. (2004) also point out that transformational leadership may prove to be especially effective in rapidly changing environments, whereas servant leadership would likely be more appropriate in a less dynamic context. While the benefit of transforming leader behaviour during turbulent times is often accepted spontaneously (Gardner & Avolio, 1998), and limited empirical evidence has been offered (Waldman, Ramirez, House & Puranam, 2001), Humphreys (2004) claim that no measure exists in the literature of the contextual implications for transformational and servant leadership. In an attempt to address this void, Parolini (2007) is currently investigating whether an empirical foundation to the conclusions being drawn about the focus, and contextual implications, of the transformational versus servant leader, can be established.

In addition, as was suggested by earlier research by Baliga and Hunt (1988), the life cycle of an organisation could account for the effectiveness of varying leadership styles. Smith *et al*. (2004) argue that on the birth and initial growth stage of organisational cycle, the charismatic element of transformational leadership should be most effective. However, when an organisation enters the maturity stage, concern for employees and their personal growth, which servant leadership supports, appears to be significant for effective leadership. Finally, on the decline stage, when the organisation is required to take a fresh start transformational leadership may again come into play.

In Smith *et al*.’s (2004) opinion, servant leadership tends to cultivate a more static approach to the external environment than transformational leadership. The servant leader's motivation is directed more at the personal growth of the follower, thus the servant leader's success is determined by the extent to which the follower moves toward self-actualisation (Maslow, 1970). The transformational leader's motivation is directed more toward obtaining success for the organisation, which will reflect on his/her abilities, and the success of these leaders is measured by the extent to which they obtain organisational rewards.

Thus, it appears as if Smith *et al*. (2004), and Humphreys (2005) are in agreement that a unique motivational stimulus underlies each of the two leadership theories, and manifests through two unique cultures.

Smith *et al*. (2004) it appears that a number of the behaviours that are suggested to be part of each theory correspond with the behaviours of the other theory. When viewed at the level of the theoretical dimensions, three of the four dimensions of transformational leadership exhibit a substantial match with the components of servant leadership. In other words, much of servant leadership may be subsumed within the transformational leadership model. Correspondingly, Beazley and Beggs (2002) claim that Greenleaf's theory is a form of transformational leadership that is congruent with other leadership concepts such as stewardship, systems thinking, and the learning organisation. Smith *et al*. (2004) claim that servant leadership does not substantially account for the behaviours of the intellectual stimulation dimension of transformational leadership. However, transformational leadership has less emphasis on leader behaviours associated with the valuing of individuals at an emotional level and less emphasis on learning from others.

Proponents of servant leadership may argue that developing people and providing leadership requires some degree of intellectual stimulation. For example, in their essay on servant leadership and creativity, Freeman, Isaksen and Dorval (2002) argue that servant leadership tends to utilise the diversity of existing forms of creativity. They describe revolutionary (new thinking, “out-of-box”) and evolutionary (improved thinking inside the box) forms of creativity. Their conclusion is that servant leadership does not eliminate "out-of-box thinking." However, a cautious analysis of the discussion of these concepts within servant leadership suggests that, the terms as described, are focused more on personal growth of the followers, or on leader-centred initiatives, rather than on change and development of the organisation itself (i.e. more revolutionary thinking).

Some characteristics of intellectual stimulation like encouragement and affirmation, and initiative taking do appear in servant leadership, but in a different context. Smith *et al*. (2004) claim that encouragement and affirmation in servant leadership refer to developing peoples' potential and facilitating their personal growth, whereas in transformational leadership, encouragement relates to innovation and creativity. Thus, by encouraging innovation and creativity, a transformational leader would tolerate possible mistakes of the followers for the sake of the benefits from their innovative endeavours. While, a servant leader would encourage followers to learn and would support them by providing opportunities to both obtain the knowledge and apply it within the organisation to obtain a new level of responsibility. Thus, an encouraging servant leader does not necessarily promote innovations and creativity for the sake of the organisation.

Initiative taking in servant leadership refers to the provision of leadership, and can be interpreted in this context as a leader's activity related to taking additional responsibility for the future of the organisation, and its success, such as beginning strategic planning processes or implementing new programmes for efficiency (Smith *et al*., 2004). However, the servant leader paradigm does not stress risk-taking behaviour as an essential attribute of organisational success. Conversely, within the transformational leadership paradigm, the leader's initiative is strongly associated with risk taking as the necessary element of future success, as well as with the willingness to convert to the more effective practices and systems.

According to Smith *et al*. (2004) servant leadership stresses a leader's concern for the follower's well-being reflected through receptive and non-judgemental listening, accompanied by the willingness to learn from others. These behaviours are not accounted for by any behaviours in the transformational model. Furthermore, the conclusion that servant leadership engenders a more "sensitive" leadership style has been identified by other authors (Smith *et al*., 2004). In this light, Graham (1991) and Kim, Dansereau and Kim (2002) contrast servant and transformational leadership and suggest that servant leadership is more concerned with the emotional needs of employees, and other organisational stakeholders.

Smith *et al*. (2004) claim that in sum, through comparing the servant and transformational leadership paradigms, they arrived at two arguments. First, servant leadership does not account for the intellectual stimulation component of transformational leadership. Second, servant leaders have a leadership style that is more concerned about employees' emotional well-being than does transformational leadership. Their comparison appears to confirm the assertion of Senge (as cited in Carver, 2002, p. 191) that Greenleaf "invites people to consider a domain of leadership grounded in a state of being, not doing" as compared to other leadership approaches. It is apparent that each theory has some unique contribution, and it is therefore Smith *et al*.'s assertion that organisational success is dependent on the match between the leadership behaviours suggested by the theories, and the contextual requirements.

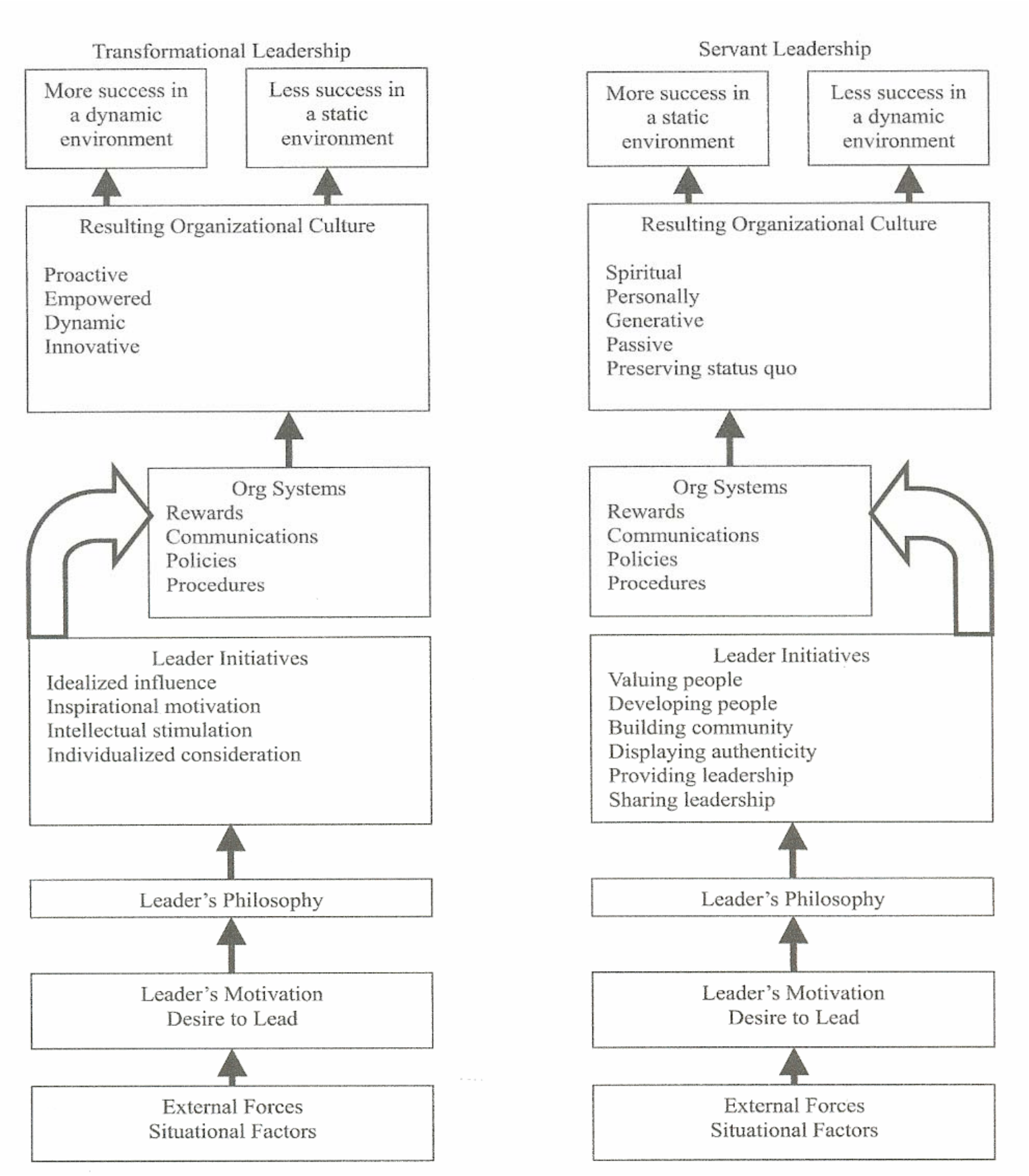
Another question raised in Smith *et al*.'s (2004) analysis refers to the nature of the contexts that may be appropriate for either servant leadership or transformational leadership approaches. As discussed previously, there is considerable overlap in the behaviours specified by the two paradigms. Further, the leader's motivation for behaving is a critical distinction between the two theories. If servant and transformational leadership lead to the same kinds of organisational outcomes regardless of the organisational mission or context, then servant leadership offers little additional insight into the leadership construct than transformational leadership (Smith *et al*., 2004). It is suggested by these authors that neither of these two assertions are true. Indeed, the primary proposition of Smith *et al*. (2004) is that the two styles do not lead to the same outcomes, and they are appropriate for different contexts. To this extent, Gibbons (1992) draws attention to the external organisational environment as one of the factors shaping the degree of transformational leadership. He proposed a conceptual framework to determine leader-follower relationships that fit specific environmental settings. Gibbons (1992, p. 15) concludes: "different environmental conditions impact the nature of the leadership challenge".

The comparative model of transformational and servant leadership offered by Smith *et al*. (2004) attempts to clarify the differences between transformational and servant leadership further, as well as address the notion of universal theories. The following is a brief summary of the comparative model as presented by Smith *et al*. (2004).

Both servant leadership (Spears & Lawrence, 2002) and transformational leadership (Avolio & Yammarino, 2002) claim to be universal theories – that is, each theory is adequate for any context or situation. Transformational leadership theorists do offer some support for their position by pointing to the Globe study of leadership across cultures (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004). Even Bass's (1985) original work, hinted at the influence of context on transforming leader behaviour and effectiveness. Again, no such support is available for the servant leader paradigm. Smith *et al*. (2004, p. 86) have proposed that transformational leadership would lead to an "empowered dynamic culture", whereas, servant leader behaviour would create a more "spiritual generative culture". Moreover, they suggest the context could determine which of these cultures, created by the leadership behaviours presented, might lead to greater organisational success. In other words, the context could determine the effectiveness of the leadership style offered (see Figure 2.7).

The model takes into account the differing motivational bases of transformational and servant leaders. While the servant leader begins with a feeling of altruism and egalitarianism, transformational leaders are more motivated by organisational success, particularly within a turbulent external milieu. Smith *et al*. (2004) contend this philosophical difference dictates leader behaviour that leads to differing organisational systems, and thus, different cultures. They believe a servant leadership culture frankly focuses on the needs of followers over organisational success. Conversely, in a transformational leadership culture, follower development is not insignificant but must be connected to ultimate organisational achievement. Upon analysing each leadership model, Smith *et al*. (2004, p. 87) summarise their proposition as follows: "We would argue that the servant leadership model works best in a more stable external environment and serves evolutionary development purposes, whereas transformational leadership is the model for organizations facing intense external pressure where revolutionary change is a necessity for survival". They go on describing how they (Smith *et al*., 2004, p. 89) view the relationship between transformational and servant leader behaviour and context: "Transformational leadership, in our opinion, is more suitable for a dynamic external environment, where employees are empowered with greater responsibility and encouraged to innovate, take initiative and risk. In this regard we would argue that when an organization tries to implement the servant leadership model, organizational members would become frustrated, because the leader's behavior would not be seen as aggressively addressing external forces that may have a significant impact on organizational success".

Smith *et al*. (2004) clearly suppose the interaction between transformational and/or servant leadership and context could determine the effectiveness of particular leader behaviours in achieving organisational goals. Although no study has investigated this supposition to date, Humphreys (2005) suggests the historical record of these two paradigms might provide a useful examination of the premise.


Transformational Leadership
More success in a dynamic environment
Less success in a static environment
Resulting Organizational Culture
Proactive
Empowered
Dynamic
Innovative
Org Systems
Rewards
Communications
Policies
Procedures
Leader Initiatives
Idealized influence
Inspirational motivation
Intellectual stimulation
Individualized consideration
Leader's Philosophy
Leader's Motivation
Desire to Lead
External Forces
Situational Factors
Servant Leadership
More success in a static environment
Less success in a dynamic environment
Resulting Organizational Culture
Spiritual
Personally
Generative
Passive
Preserving status quo
Org Systems
Rewards
Communications
Policies
Procedures
Leader Initiatives
Valuing people
Developing people
Building community
Displaying authenticity
Providing leadership
Sharing leadership
Leader's Philosophy
Leader's Motivation
Desire to Lead
External Forces
Situational Factors

(Smith *et al.,* 2004, p. 9)

Figure 2.7 The comparative model of transformational and servant leadership

The key leader drivers, under the servant leadership model, as shown in Figure 2.7 are valuing people, developing people, building community, displaying authenticity and sharing leadership. Possible impacts of these drivers could be: higher skilled people, more ethical people, better communicators, strong interpersonal relationships, creation of shared visions, and clear goals.

Under the transformational leader model, as seen in Figure 2.7 the main leader initiatives are idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration. These initiatives lead to: role modelling, high ethical standards, concern for the needs of others, communication of expectations, shared visions, innovations, risk taking, and questioning of practices and systems.

The time factor

In Figure 2.7 both models of leadership are included in a chain of relationships. Contextual forces and/or situational factors would define the leader's motivation in these relationships. As stated earlier, the external environments in both the case of transformational and servant leadership, differ. The former pertains to a usually more dynamic and challenging external environment (intense external pressure where revolutionary change is a necessity for survival), while the latter works better in a more stable external environment (and serves evolutionary development purposes). Servant leadership stresses collaboration and integrity, where communication and persuasion skills become extremely important. Decision-making processes involve most of the organisational members, and generally results in consensus. The *time factor* is not considered crucial, which allows for groups to make mutually acceptable decisions. Transformational leadership, in contrast, gives the leader some initiative in decision making, for example, to take a certain risks or to drop obsolete practices. This, however, does not guarantee that the decision made will be completely accepted by followers, but the charismatic influence and inspirational power of a leader will support the faith in the correctness of a leader's actions. Thus, the *time factor* is accounted for in the transformational leadership model.

Value-driven and performance oriented

Servant leadership is seen by Farling *et al*. (1999) as having many parallels with transformational leadership involving (as it does) the leader needing vision, influence, credibility, trust and service but it goes beyond transformational leadership in selecting the needs of others as it's the highest priority. Indeed, it is close to the transformational components of inspiration and individualised consideration (Bass, 2000). It stresses that to serve others is the leader's main aim. The transformational leaders strive to align their own and others' interests with the good of the group, organisation or society.

Transformational versus servant leadership focus

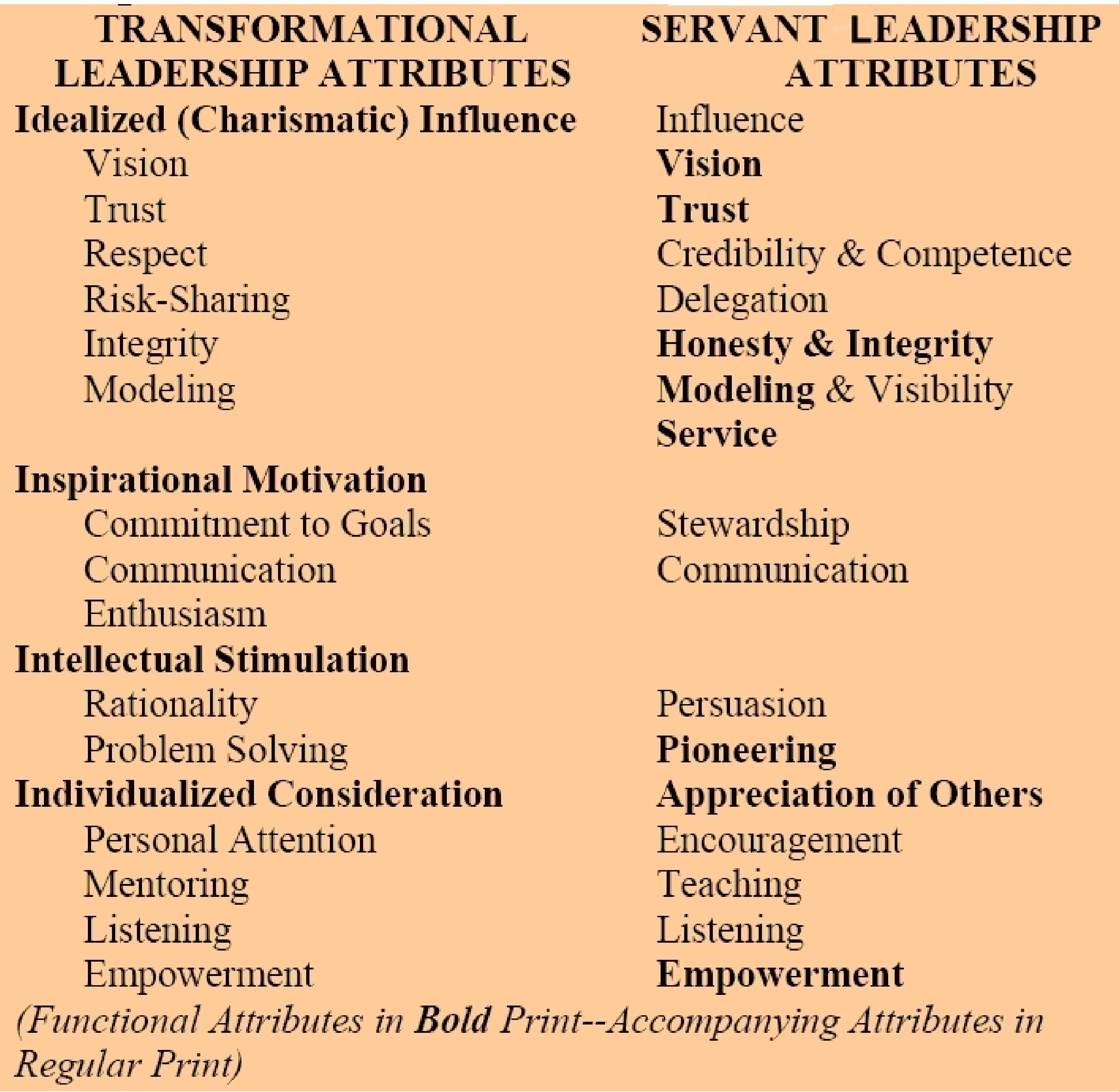
Initially, Bass (2000), Patterson and Russell (2004), and Stone, Russell and Patterson (2004) proposed differences in the allegiances of transformational versus servant leaders. Although Bass (2000) instigated the discussion of difference in leadership focus, moving the dialogue from moral concerns onto leader focus, the conversation continues to be about assumptions and has still not resulted in empirical research. Bass (2000, p. 30) proposed that transformational and servant leadership share many common elements and offered this distinction:

> [Servant leadership] goes beyond transformational leadership in selecting the needs of others as its highest priority [stressing] that to serve others is the leaders' main aim [whereas] transformational leaders strive to align their own and others' interests with the good of the group, organization or society.

Later, Patterson *et al*. (2003) suggested that this difference in leader focus seemed to be the primary distinguishing factor between transformational and servant leaders. Stone *et al*. (2004) went on to propose that transformational leaders focus on the organisation as well as building follower support toward organisational objectives whereas servant leaders focus on followers, and organisational objectives are secondary. Again, there seems no empirical evidence to support these conclusions.

Stone (2003) reveals that transformational leadership and servant leadership have relatively analogous characteristics. Perhaps this is because both transformational and servant leadership are attempts to define and explain people-oriented leadership styles. According to both concepts, their leadership frameworks incorporate: (a) influence, (b) vision, (c) trust, (d) respect or credibility, (e) risk-sharing or delegation, (f) integrity, and (g) modelling. Both transformational leadership and servant leadership emphasise the importance of appreciating and valuing people, listening, mentoring or teaching, and empowering followers. In fact, the theories are probably most similar in their emphasis upon individualised consideration and appreciation of followers (Stone, 2003). This side-by-side comparison of attributes between the two theories is displayed in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Comparison of transformational and servant leadership attributes



TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES	SERVANT LEADERSHIP ATTRIBUTES
Idealized (Charismatic) Influence	Influence
Vision	**Vision**
Trust	**Trust**
Respect	Credibility & Competence
Risk-Sharing	Delegation
Integrity	**Honesty & Integrity**
Modeling	**Modeling** & Visibility
	Service
Inspirational Motivation	
Commitment to Goals	Stewardship
Communication	Communication
Enthusiasm	
Intellectual Stimulation	
Rationality	Persuasion
Problem Solving	**Pioneering**
Individualized Consideration	**Appreciation of Others**
Personal Attention	Encouragement
Mentoring	Teaching
Listening	Listening
Empowerment	**Empowerment**

*(Functional Attributes in **Bold** Print--Accompanying Attributes in Regular Print)*

(Adapted from Stone, 2003, p. 6)

Despite the above similarities offered, transformational leadership and servant leadership do have points of variation. There is a much greater emphasis upon service of followers and service to followers in the servant leadership paradigm. Furthermore, while both transformational leaders and servant leaders are influential, servant leaders gain influence in a non-traditional manner that derives from servanthood itself (Russell & Stone, 2002).

More recently Stone *et al*. (2003, 2004) posit that the extent to which the leader is able to shift the *primary focus of leadership* from the organisation to the follower is the distinguishing factor in classifying leaders as either transformational or servant leaders. Thus, the *leader's focus* becomes the primary difference between these two leadership theories. These authors also look at the next stage of developmental issues in servant leadership, such as the challenges facing empirical investigation and measurement, and the changes that are occurring in current thinking about the servant leadership approach. Ultimately, the case is made by Stone *et al*. (2004) that although different, both transformational leadership and servant leadership offer the conceptual framework for dynamic leadership. Equally, Graham (1991) emphasised that the distinct difference in focus between servant leadership and transformational leadership lies in the focus on moral development, service, and enhancement of common good.

It seems as though five distinctions can be concluded about the differences in focus between transformational and servant leaders.

1. Burns (1978), Bass (1985), Bass and Steidlmeier (1999), Bass (2000), and Kanungo (2001) proposed transformational leaders as morally focused on developing collective values with followers through empowering processes whereas Covey (1996), Greenleaf (1977) and Johnson (2001) pointed to conscious sacrificial service as the servant leader's moral focus.

2. Graham (1991), Bass (2000) and Stone, *et al*. (2004) explained that transformational leaders focus on the organisation first and servant leaders focus on followers needs first.

3. Smith *et al*. (2004) suggested that transformational leaders are motivated to focus on changing the organisation whereas servant leaders are motivated to facilitate followers' development. Furthermore, Humphreys (2005) found support for the notion that transformational leadership works best in environments facing intense external pressure whereas servant leadership operates best in more stable environments.

4. Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) proposed transformational leaders develop similarly-minded leaders, whereas Greenleaf described servant leaders as developing autonomous servants.

5. Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) as well as Graham (1991), Russell and Stone (2002), and Stone *et al*. (2004) suggest that transformational leader influence through charisma or idealised influence, whereas servant leaders influence through a non-traditional method of service.

Thus, conclusions about the differences in focus seem to include the leader's moral nature – first allegiance or loyalty, motivational or missional focus – converts or disciples, and influence process. These distinctions have been compared and contrasted in the above section.

2.4.5 Conclusion

In conclusion of the above discussion, a theory of servant leadership is probably not yet fully developed, but could possibly contribute in providing a central focus of leadership for the 21st century. It could provide the modern philosophical tradition needed to bridge the gaps between the various levels of analysis – individual, group, organisation, and society. In the final analysis, the signs of authentic servant leadership appear primarily among the followers (DePree, 1990).

With the above discussion, an attempt was made to position servant leadership conceptually – as a sub-set of leadership – and should therefore be interpreted within the context of how leadership is defined. Servant leadership is not so much a leadership style that can be used or set aside based on the needs of the situation.

Servant leadership is more a mindset, a paradigm, a way of leading, and a strong belief/conviction of the former. The leader always chooses the mindset that will guide their efforts to lead. This choice then guides the practice of our leadership and the way that use various leadership theories or styles. Thus, it is a way of engaging in an intentional change process through which leaders and followers, joined by a shared purpose, initiate action to pursue a common vision. To his end, it stands in contrast to an autocratic or paternalistic way of leading.

From the above critically analysed developments in modern leadership theory, it appears as if servant leadership can be seen as an emerging, relational leadership “theory” comprising of transformational, charismatic, steward, moral, ethical, situational, behavioural, and normative components – that ought to be interpreted within the relevant context that it is applied to. With this in mind, the servant leadership concept seems to fit within the positive organisational behaviour framework.

2.5 Previous research on servant leadership: Antecedents, correlates, and variables of servant leadership

Most academic research efforts have focused on conceptually similar constructs such as altruism (Grier & Burk, 1992; Kanungo & Conger, 1993; Krebs & Miller, 1985), self-sacrifice (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1998), charismatic (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Weber, 1947), transforming (Burns, 1978), authentic (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Price, 2003), spiritual (Fry, 2003), and, to a lesser extent, transactional (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994) and leader-member exchange (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In recent years, greater attention has been paid to the conceptual supporting and development of servant leadership as a viable construct (cf Graham, 1991; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Smith *et al*., 2004). However, the empirical examination of servant leadership has been hampered by a lack of theoretical foundation and no suitable measure. Thus, previous research has identified various variables influencing servant leadership. The relationship between servant leadership and other antecedents, correlates, and outcomes, as well as the moderating effect of the servant leader disposition are explored in the next section, in an endeavour to emphasise their importance in understanding servant leadership.

With its focus on followers and premise of increased service to others, a holistic approach to work, a sense of community, and shared decision-making, servant leadership is recognised (in literature) as a visionary (Neuschel, 1998), exemplary (Banutu-Gomez, 2004), virtuous (Patterson, 2003a,b; Winston, 2002; Winston & Ryan, 2006), moral (Greenleaf,1977; Hunter, 2004; Whetstone, 2001, 2002), highly ethical (Northouse, 2001; Wong & Page, 2003; Whetstone, 2002; Yukl, 2002), values-based (Russell, 2001; Russell & Stone, 2002) stewardship-approach (Block, 1993; De Pree 1997; Fairholm, 1998; Gaston, 1987; Marquardt, 2000; Nix, 1997; Smith, 2000; Spears, 1998; Senge, 1990a) to leadership. In a comparison of normative leadership paradigms – each based on a combination of three ethics theories, i.e. consequentialist teleology, deontology, and virtue ethics – Whetstone (2001) found servant leadership as the only leadership paradigm grounded in a tripartite ethics approach. This is a contributing reason for the recent surge of interest it has received not only as a result of recent plethora of corporate scandals (Wong & Page, 2003) but also with the growing focus on human rights, the value of individual potential in organisations, and the resulting move towards more participatory and process-oriented leadership approaches (Stone & Patterson, 2005; Wong & Page, 2003).

2.5.1 Servant leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)

In a topical study, Ehrhart (2004) attempted to address the gap in the literature by examining the relationship between servant leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) at the individual level. Ehrhart (2004) proposed in his study a correlation to exist between servant leadership and procedural justice climate as antecedents of unit-level OCB. His proposed connection between servant-leadership and OCB is consistent with Smith, Organ and Near's (1983) reasons for why leadership should be related to OCB. Their first justification was that the leader serves as a model for subordinates, and that social psychological studies have shown that pro-social behaviour is especially influenced by models (cf Berkowitz, 1970; Krebs, 1970). The behaviour that servant leaders model includes "serving" their followers by forming quality relationships with them and helping them grow and develop. Thus, units with servant leaders ought to have members who will emulate this behaviour in their interactions with each other and, thus, display higher levels of OCB. Smith *et al*.'s (1983) second justification was based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). When followers are satisfied with their leader and want to give something back in return for the leader's supportiveness, they will perform OCB. Since servant leadership seems highly beneficial to followers, unit members ought to reciprocate by doing things (such as OCB) that will ultimately benefit the leader, and help him/her reach his/her goals.

Ehrhart (2004) used a general measure of servant-leadership that was developed based on a review of the literature identifying seven major categories of servant-leadership behaviour: (a) forming relationships with subordinates; (b) empowering subordinates; (c) helping subordinates grow and succeed; (d) behaving ethically; (e) having conceptual skills; (f) putting subordinates first, and (g) creating value for those outside of the organisation (Ehrhart, 1998). These dimensions encompass two of the key aspects of servant-leadership described previously: ethical behaviour, and the prioritisation of subordinates' concerns. Two items represented each of the seven dimensions; comprising of a complete set of 14 items. Respondents rated each of the items on a 5-point scale. Based on department-level data, the alpha reliability for the overall scale was .98.

In Ehrhart’s (2004) study it was demonstrated that servant-leadership is significantly related to unit-level OCB; that is, in units where the leader acts in ways to benefit followers, and help them grow and develop. Thus, unit members are more likely to act in ways to benefit other unit members (helping) and the organisation in general (conscientiousness). However, the strength of that relationship and whether it was fully or partially mediated by procedural justice climate varied among his proposed models.

2.5.2 Servant leadership, trust and performance

Reinke (2004) opens her paper with a theoretical discussion on servant leadership by proposing a definition and examining theory and research on leadership, trust, and performance. Ultimately, a model was proposed linking servant leadership, characterised by openness, stewardship and vision, to an organisational culture of trust. Servant leadership, as operationally defined in Reinke’s study, is clearly related to the creation of trusting relationships. Previously published literature has firmly established the connection between trust and performance (Reinke, 2004). The powerful effect of the stewardship component of servant leadership seemingly lends support to the importance of ethical behaviour in organisations. This component was measured using questions about the employee's perceptions of the supervisor's behaviour and priorities. Specifically, two of the items in the scale measured whether the supervisor placed employees' needs before his or her own, and the organisation's needs before his or her own. The selfless behaviour captured in this scale was the most powerful determiner of the level of trust, indicating that "service before self" is not just a slogan. Instead, it appears a powerful reality that builds trust between employees and supervisors. From Reinke’s (2004) conclusions it seems clear that servant leadership can improve organisational performance by its ability to create organisational trust.

2.5.3 Servant leadership and emotional intelligence (EI)

Winston and Hartsfield (2004) conceptually examined the four factor concept of emotional intelligence as defined by Mayer and Salovey (1997): (a) the ability to appraise and express emotion; (b) the use of emotion to enhance cognitive processes and decision making; (c) the ability to understand and analyse emotions; and (d) the reflective regulation of emotion with five servant leadership models as presented by Page and Wong (2000), Patterson (2003), Russell and Stone (2002), Sendjaya and Sarros (2002), and Winston (2003). Winston and Hartsfield found strong correlations between servant leadership and all of the above-noted emotional intelligence factors, except for the ability to understand and analyse emotions.

The focus of Parolini’s (2005) study was to investigate the impact of leaders’ emotional intelligence on followers’ perception of servant leadership behaviours and servant leadership culture. Data was collected from two sample organisations ($n=88$) on the emotional intelligence of supervisors, followers’ perception of servant leadership behaviours from supervisors, and followers’ perception of servant leadership. Through multiple regression analyses, followers’ perception of servant leadership behaviours in supervisors was found to be a significant predictor ($p < .01$)

of followers' perception of a servant leadership culture. In addition, supervisors' ability to appraise the emotions of others was significant ($p < .05$) and supervisor's use of emotion was moderately significant ($p < .10$) in predicting followers' perception of servant leadership culture when entered into the regression model. In a study conducted by Schlechter, Boshoff and Engelbrecht (2004), the composite score for EI correlated significantly with trust in the leader. It is therefore argued that subsequent to the relationship between servant leadership and EI, a relationship exists between emotional intelligence of the leader and subordinates' trust in the leader.

Similarly, Rahim and Minors (2003) found EI to increase problem solving ability and EI has been positively associated with conscientiousness (Douglas, Frink & Ferris, 2004) and concern for quality (Rahim & Minors, 2003). Also a study by Cavallo and Brienza (2003) revealed a strong positive relationship between superior performing (HiPR) leaders and emotional competence, supporting theorist's suggestions that the social, emotional and relational competency set, commonly referred to as "emotional intelligence", is a distinguishing factor in leadership performance.

2.5.4 Servant leadership and job satisfaction

Directly stated, in Greenleaf's (1977) framework: "The servant-leader *is* servant first" (p. 27), for followers will: "*freely respond only to individuals who are chosen as leaders because they are proven and trusted as servants*" (p. 24). In light of such an understanding of leadership, it seems that the increasing importance for servant leadership researchers lies in examining servant leadership from the follower's perspective, a point given some treatment by Hebert (2004). Hebert examined the relationship of perceived servant leadership and job satisfaction from the follower's perspective, and found that there was a significant relationship between perceptions of servant leadership, intrinsic and overall job satisfaction.

The positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction has been confirmed in multiple studies (cf Hebert, 2004; Irving, 2004, 2005; Laub, 1999; Thompson, 2002). Irving's (2005) study also focused specifically on measuring the relationship (that has not sufficiently been dealt with in the literature) between job satisfaction at the individual level and team effectiveness at the team level. This relationship was confirmed by being both substantial (r = .436) and significant (p = .000). In analysing the relationship between team effectiveness and the interactive-variable effect of servant leadership at the organisational level and job satisfaction at the individual level, the findings were significant (r = .537, p = .000), though not as substantially different than the main finding of his study associated with H_1 (H_1: There would be a statistically significant and positive correlation between servant leadership at the organisational level (OLA) and team effectiveness at the team level (TEQ) within the nonprofit research sample).

Second, upon analysing the relationship between servant leadership at the organisational level and the interactive-variable effect of job satisfaction at the individual level, and team effectiveness at the team level, the findings were significant (r = .600, p = .000) and noticeably different from the main findings of his study associated with H_1.

2.5.5 Servant leadership and burnout

Rude (2003) conceptually examined the rationale for a quantitative correlational investigation of servant leadership and burnout. For the study, Rude described the prevalence of burnout, defined burnout, and the antecedents of burnout. Noting that both internal and external factors may be identified as possible antecedents, Rude gravitated toward the impact of external factors such as supervision. Based on Rude's engagement of these dimensions associated with burnout, he argued that servant leadership is able to play a substantial and pivotal role in reducing burnout in individuals. If this is true, it provides another example of potential relationships between servant leadership and other constructs.

2.6 Previous research on servant leadership: Models and measures

Numerous contemporary and influential theorists, scholars, writers, business and leadership theorists regard the attribute of service as one of the most critical, and most important leadership requirements for the 21st century leader (Akuchie, 1993; Baggett, 1997; Batten, 1997; Bennis & Nanus, 1997; Berry *et al.*, 1994; Block, 1993;

Briner & Pritchard, 1998; Covey, 1992, 2004; Dennis & Winston, 2003; DePree, 1997; Fairholm, 1997; Fisher, 2004; Gaston, 1987; Greenleaf, 1977; Kouzes & Posner, 1993; Manz, 1998; Marcic, 1997; Marquard, 2000; Maxwell, 1998; Miller, 2003; Oster, 1991; Pollard, 1996; Ramsey, 2003; Rinehart, 1998; Russell, 2001; Senge, 1995, 1997; Snodgrass, 1993; Snyder, Dowd & Houghton, 1994; Turner, 2000).

With the focus on service, it seems appropriate to perhaps include an understanding of the very nature of service. First, to be of service literally means to attend to someone's needs. It involves helping, giving, sharing, and meeting needs. Second, service is always rendered ultimately to *people (cus*tomers) and/or their property either (a) directly via person to person service encounters; (b) directly via person to property service encounters; (c) indirectly via high-tech service devices; or (d) some combination of these (Lytle *et al*., 1998). Third, from an organisational standpoint, service can only be rendered if organisational servants (servers/employees) exist at appropriate points in the service creation and delivery chain and are capable (willing and able) of attending to customer needs (Schneider & Bowen, 1993; Schneider & Bowen, 1995; O'Connor & Shewchuck, 1995; Berry, Parasuraman, & Zeithaml, 1994). Therefore, an organisational or leader service orientation exists when the organisational climate for service crafts, nurtures, and rewards service practices and behaviours known to meet internal an external customer expectations.

The work surrounding servant leadership from the early 1990s through 2003 focused on identifying themes that could help to operationalise the concept of servant leadership. Graham (1991) stressed the inspirational and moral dimensions. Buchen (1998) argued that self-identity, capacity for reciprocity, relationship building, and preoccupation with the future were essential themes. Spears (1998) emphasised the dimensions of listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualisation, foresight, stewardship, commitment, and community building. Farling *et al*. (1999) argued for the importance of vision, influence credibility, trust, and service. Laub (1999) put forward valuing people, developing people, building community, displaying authenticity, providing leadership, and sharing leadership. Russell (2001) argued for vision, credibility, trust, service, modeling, pioneering, appreciating others, and empowerment. Patterson (2003) presented the dimensions of *agapáo* love, humility, altruism, vision, trust, empowerment, and service as the essential dimensions of servant leadership. Table 2.3 depict these operational themes of servant leadership.

Table 2.3 Operational themes of servant leadership

Author	**Servant Leadership Emphases**
Graham (1991)	Inspirational, Moral.
Buchen (1998)	Self-Identity, Capacity for Reciprocity, Relationship Builders, Preoccupation with the Future.
Spears (1998)	Listening, Empathy, Healing, Awareness, Persuasion, Conceptualisation, Foresight, Stewardship, Commitment, Community Building.
Farling *et al*. (1999)	Vision, Influence, Credibility, Trust, Service.
Laub (1999)	Valuing People, Developing People, Building Community, Displaying Authenticity, Provides Leadership, Shares Leadership.
Russell (2001)	Vision, Credibility, Trust, Service, Modeling, Pioneering, Appreciation of Others, Empowerment.
Patterson (2003)	*Agapáo* Love, Humility, Altruism, Vision, Trust, Empowerment, Service.

(Adapted from Sendjaya, 2003, p. 1)

2.6.1 Proposed servant leadership models

2.6.1.1 Russell and Stone

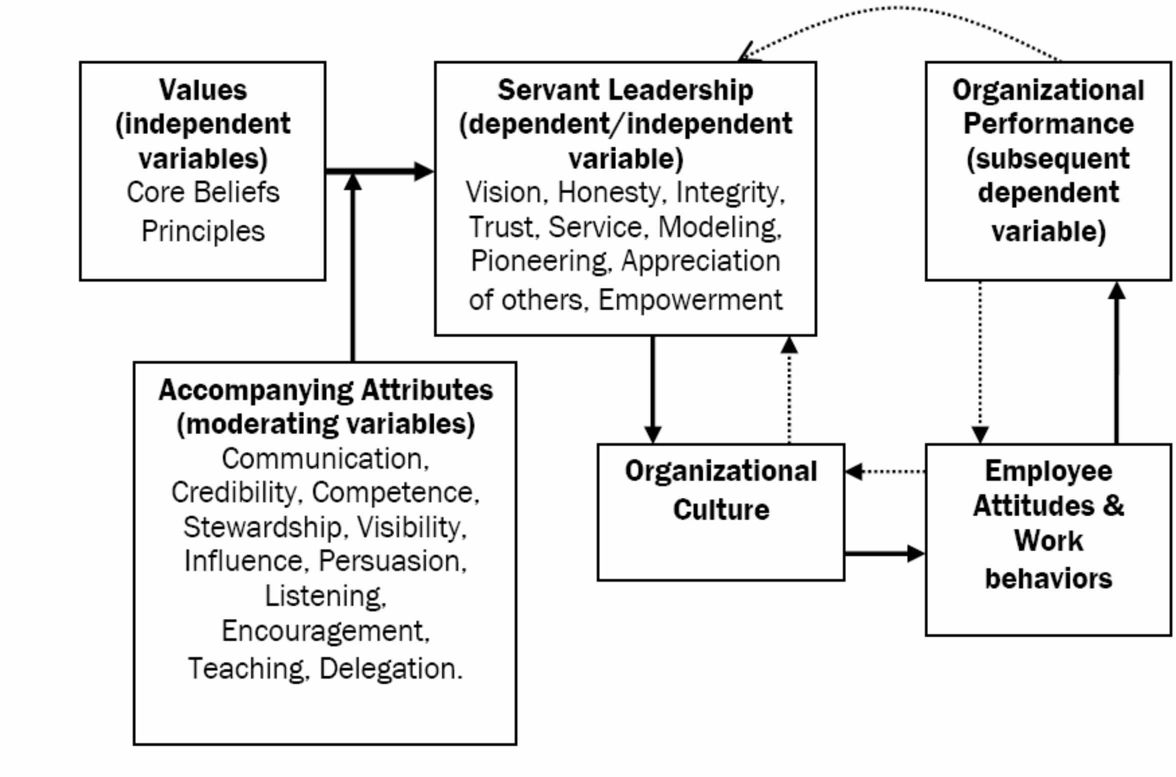
The assertion of service is supported by Russell and Stone (2002) who postulate that the attribute of service and empowerment offer the potential to positively revolutionise interpersonal work relations and organisational life. This confirms the work of Farling *et al.* (1999). Russell and Stone (2002, p. 153) propose that: "cognitive characteristics", including values and core beliefs, "incarnate through the functional attributes of servant leaders" (p. 153). Hence, they propose nine functional attributes that indicate the presence of servant leadership, and eleven accompanying attributes that moderate "the level and intensity of the functional attributes" (p. 153). Furthermore, they treat servant leadership itself as a dependent variable that subsequently functions as an independent variable affecting organisational performance. Their servant leadership model was essentially based on the variables of vision, influence, credibility, trust, and service. However, the model only gives limited attention to causal relationships between leader attributes, and the outcome is organisational performance rather than reproduced service (Rennaker, 2005).

As indicated in Table 2.4 Russell and Stone (2002) identified nine functional, and eleven accompanying attributes of servant leadership. Figure 2.8 is a diagrammatic representation of Russell and Stone's (2002) servant leadership model.

Table 2.4 Servant leadership attributes: Functional and accompanying

Functional attributes	Accompanying attributes
1 . Vision	1 . Communication
2 . Honesty	2 . Credibility
3 . Integrity	3 . Competence
4 . Trust	4 . Stewardship
5 . Service	5 . Visibility
6 . Modeling	6 . Influence
7 . Pioneering	7 . Persuasion
8 . Appreciation of others	8 . Listening
9 . Empowerment	9 . Encouragement
	10 . Teaching
	11 . Delegation

(Adapted from Russell & Stone, 2002, p. 147)


Values (independent variables)
Core Beliefs Principles
Servant Leadership (dependent/independent variable)
Vision, Honesty, Integrity, Trust, Service, Modeling, Pioneering, Appreciation of others, Empowerment
Organizational Performance (subsequent dependent variable)
Accompanying Attributes (moderating variables)
Communication, Credibility, Competence, Stewardship, Visibility, Influence, Persuasion, Listening, Encouragement, Teaching, Delegation.
Organizational Culture
Employee Attitudes & Work behaviors

(Russell & Stone, 2002, p. 154)

Figure 2.8 Russell and Stone's servant leadership model

2.6.1.2 Page and Wong

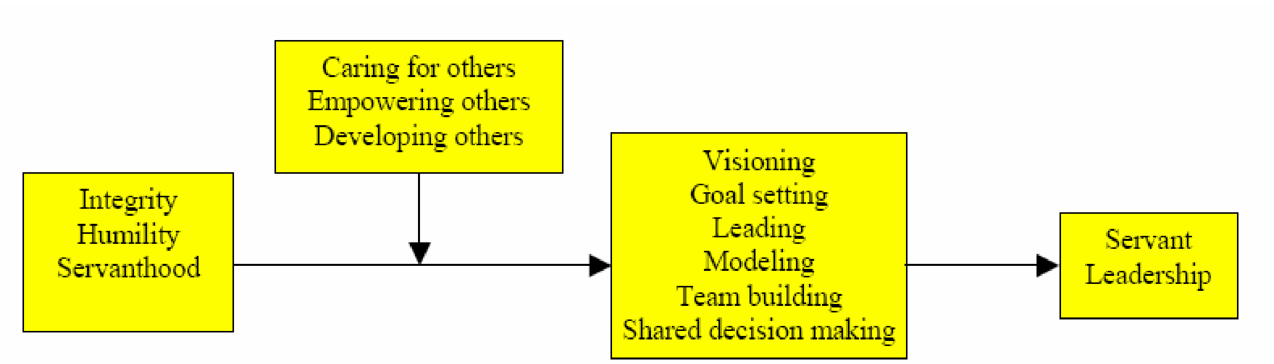
Page and Wong (2000) developed a conceptual framework, *The Servant Leadership Profile,* for measuring servant leadership. This is related to Adjibolosoo's (1995) human factor (HF) model. The HF model is by and large concerned with the role of organisational behaviour in economic development. Characteristics of the Adjibolosoo model include ethical and competent leadership, emphasising the importance of integrity, accountability, dedication, and respect for human dignity (Adjibolosoo, 1995). Page and Wong's (2000) model includes four domains of leadership, *viz* personality, relationship, task; and process.

Initially, Page and Wong (2000) developed a pool of 200 items describing servant leadership, into 100 attributes, which consisted of twelve sub-scales. After performing a factor analysis, redundant descriptors were eliminated, and ended with 99 items. Hence, Page and Wong (2000) ascribed tentative category labels to each item, emphasising that all the categories have been tied to the servant leadership literature. Page and Wong (2000, p. 89) concluded that the: "process of classification resulted in twelve distinct categories: integrity, humility, servanthood, caring for others, empowering others, developing others, visioning, goal-setting, leading, modeling, team-building, and shared decision-making". Page and Wong's 12 categories are similar to the 66-items categorised by Laub, which were later narrowed down to 6 with 18 subsets (Laub, 2003; Page & Wong, 2000).

Page and Wong (2003) describe the servant leader's character and being in terms of the independent variables of integrity, humility, and servanthood. Integrity, humility, and servanthood within the heart of the leader make up the force by which the leader is able to overcome ego and a self-serving agenda in order to value serving people first.

Page and Wong's model also appears to incorporate the extensive list described by Russell and Stone (2002). Page and Wong suggest the servant leader can have impact upon society and culture by bringing specific character traits (integrity, humility, and servanthood) to an orientation toward people (caring, empowering, and developing), which influence the use of leadership tasks (visioning, goal setting, and leading) and processes (modelling, team building, and shared decision-making), as depicted in Figure 2.9. Page and Wong's factor analysis yielded eight of the twelve envisaged factors including leading, servanthood, visioning, developing others, team building, empowering others, shared decision making and integrity.

Dennis and Winston (2003) conducted a factor analysis of Page and Wong's (2000) servant leadership instrument and reduced the 99-item scale to 20 items yielding three factors (a) vision (.97 Cronbach alpha), (b) empowerment (.89 Cronbach alpha), and (c) service/servanthood (.94 Cronbach alpha). These three factors that Dennis and Winston (2003) found in Page and Wong's (2000) servant leadership instrument, are aligned with Russell and Stone's (2002) functional attributes. Russell and Stone's servant leadership model viewed the accompanying attributes as moderating variables while values, such as core beliefs and principles, were viewed as independent variables, and served as subsets or descriptors of the dependent variable, servant leadership. Regarding this, Russell (2000) posited that vision is a functional attribute of servant leadership, and that leaders use the strategic vision for the organisation as a means of change and transformation. According to Bennis and Nanus (1997), vision animates, inspirits, and transforms purpose into action.


Caring for others
Empowering others
Developing others
Integrity
Humility
Servanthood
Visioning
Goal setting
Leading
Modeling
Team building
Shared decision making
Servant
Leadership

(Adapted from Page & Wong, 2002, cited in Parolini, 2004, p. 3)

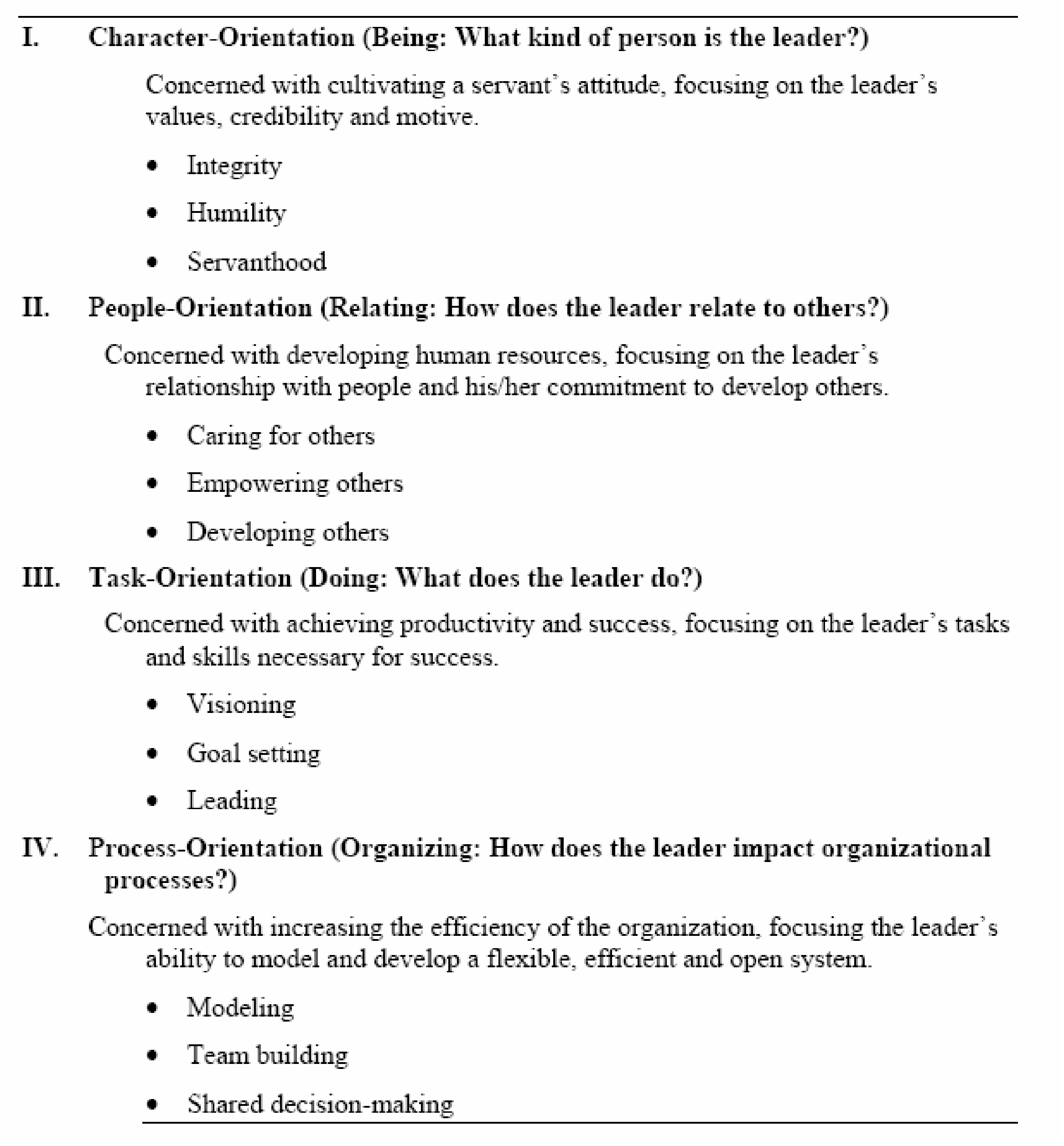
Figure 2.9 **Page and Wong's conceptual framework for measuring servant leadership effectively**

Wong and Page (2003) conclude that servant leadership, in essence, covers two areas: *servanthood* (the leader that develops the people), and *leadership* (building the organisation by effectively utilising people as resources).

Wong and Page (2003) expanded their model, naming it a “ring model of servant leadership”, that illustrates how servant leadership affects organisational processes. Wong and Page do mention service reproduction, but their ring model does not make this outcome explicit (Rennaker, 2005). Wong and Page (2003) arrived at this ring model by revising their 99-item *Servant Leadership Profile*, which consists of twelve sub-scales. A factor analysis was performed based on a fairly large sample size of 1,157 subjects. The results yielded eight factors: leading, servanthood, visioning, developing others, team-building, empowering others, shared decision-making, and integrity. Four of the twelve *a priori* factors failed to emerge. Items belonging to those four factors either double-loaded or spread across several un-interpretable factors, which contained one or two items only (Wong & Page, 2003) and were hence omitted. The four eliminated factors were: humility, caring for others, goal setting, and modeling. Wong and Page’s (2003) eight remaining factors were similar to the servant leadership characteristics developed by Laub (1999). Based upon both analyses, it seems that the model has some merit.

These categories as part of their conceptual framework for measuring servant leadership, are depicted in Table 2.5 and graphically shown in Figure 2.10.

Table 2.5 A conceptual framework for measuring servant leadership



I. Character-Orientation (Being: What kind of person is the leader?)

Concerned with cultivating a servant's attitude, focusing on the leader's values, credibility and motive.

- Integrity
- Humility
- Servanthood

II. People-Orientation (Relating: How does the leader relate to others?)

Concerned with developing human resources, focusing on the leader's relationship with people and his/her commitment to develop others.

- Caring for others
- Empowering others
- Developing others

III. Task-Orientation (Doing: What does the leader do?)

Concerned with achieving productivity and success, focusing on the leader's tasks and skills necessary for success.

- Visioning
- Goal setting
- Leading

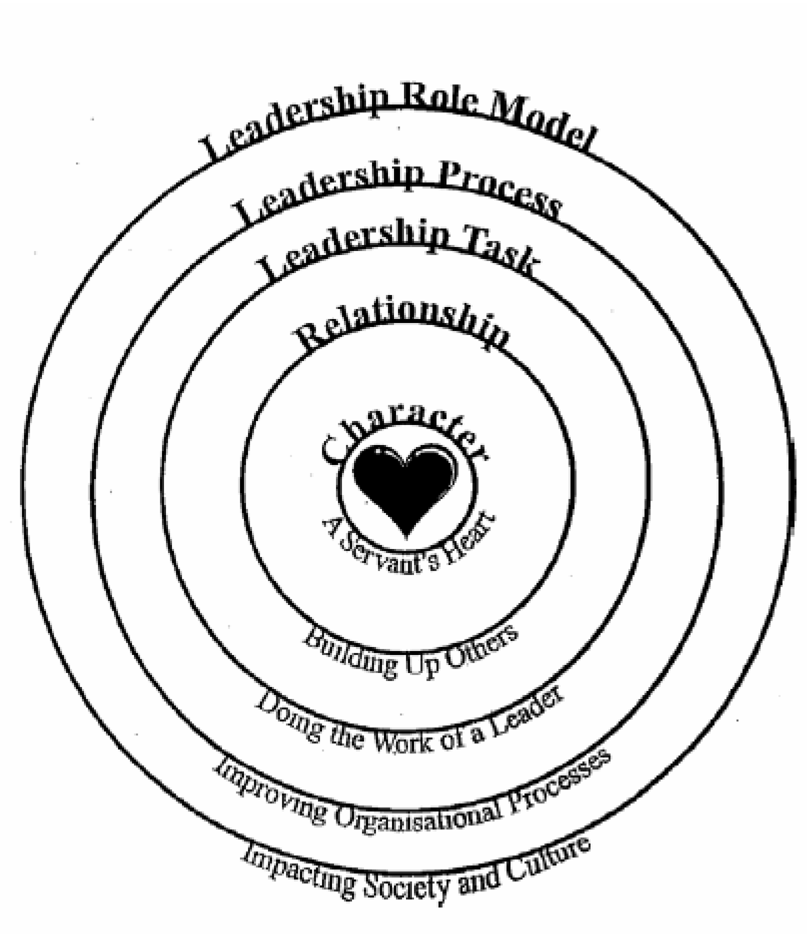
IV. Process-Orientation (Organizing: How does the leader impact organizational processes?)

Concerned with increasing the efficiency of the organization, focusing the leader's ability to model and develop a flexible, efficient and open system.

- Modeling
- Team building
- Shared decision-making

(Wong & Page, 2003, p. 3)

This seems to be an important contribution to the definition of the content of servant leadership as it indicates that the servant leader does not abandon his/her task-orientation role.


Leadership Role Model
Leadership Process
Leadership Task
Relationship
Character
A Servant's Heart
Building Up Others
Doing the Work of a Leader
Improving Organisational Processes
Impacting Society and Culture

(Wong & Page, 2003, p. 4)

Figure 2.10 Expanding circles of servant leaders

2.6.1.3 Daft

Whereas more empirical work is clearly needed to elucidate the model fully, leadership scholars do generally accept there are fundamental principles of servant leadership. Based on the reading of Greenleaf, Daft (2005) provides a summary of four underlying principles associated with authentic servant leadership: (a) service before self; (b) listening as a means of affirmation; (c) creating trust; and (d) nourishing followers to become whole. The subsequent descriptions of each of these four principles, formulated by Daft (2005) is presented by Birkenmeier *et al*. (2003, p. 375).

> *Service before self*
> Consistent with the definition, servant leaders place serving others before their own self-interests. The desire to facilitate the needs of others takes precedent

> over the desire for a formal leadership position. The servant leader insists on doing what is good and right, even in the absence of actual or potential gain in material possessions, status, or prestige.
>
> *Listening as a means of affirmation*
> A second hallmark of servant leadership is listening first as a way of affirming others. Instead of providing answers, the servant leader asks questions of anyone having important knowledge or insight into a problem or opportunity. By promoting participative decision making, the leader enhances the confidence and self-efficacy of others as "the primary mission of the servant leader is to figure out the will of the group, to express that will, and then to further it . . . " (Kiechel & Rosenthal, 1992, p. 121).
>
> *Creating trust*
> Servant leaders create trust and inspire it in followers by demonstrating personal trustworthiness. They honestly share all information, positive and negative, to assure decisions will ultimately enhance the wellbeing of the group. Trust in the servant leader is augmented through freely trusting others and disseminating, not hoarding, power and incentives.
>
> *Nourishing followers to become whole*
> Servant leaders desire for others to develop their full potential and become servant leaders as well. "Greenleaf believed the final goal of servanthood was to help others become servants themselves . . . " (Smith *et al*., 2004). Through openness and personal discussion of their trials and tribulations and those of others, they share their humanity with followers. Unafraid of showing vulnerability, they use frank and open disclosure as a way to awaken the human spirit of those around them.

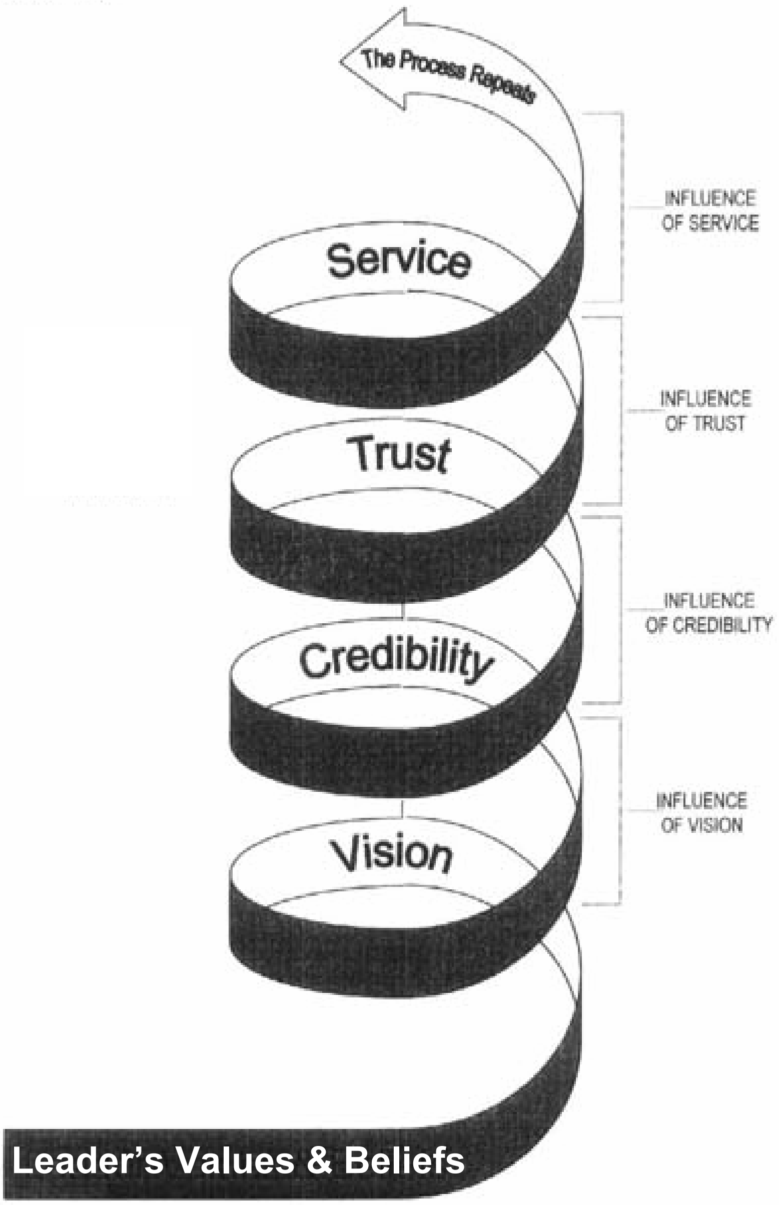
To proponents, the servant leader conceptual model offers the advantages of "altruism, simplicity, and self-awareness" (Johnson, 2001, p. 136). Servant leadership advocates have suggested many benefits associated with the construct (*cf* Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Spears & Lawrence, 2002, 2004) but support has been largely anecdotal (Bass, 2000; Bowman, 1997). Further, the literature has been silent as to servant leadership and contextual influences (Humphreys, 2005). In the attempt to fill that void, Smith *et al*. (2004) have proposed a model of servant and transformational leadership that includes the contextual variable (this comparative model conceptualised by Smith *et al*. (2004) was discussed in Sections 2.4.3 and 2.4.4).

2.6.1.4 Graham

Graham (1991) stressed the inspirational and moral dimensions in putting forward servant leadership as a model capable of addressing the inherent dangers associated with neutral-values-leadership paradigms such as charismatic leadership. For Graham (1991, p. 105), a critical analysis of charismatic leadership was necessary due to “its absence of moral safeguards”. As an answer to this inherent danger, Graham provided three workplace case examples for the purpose of suggesting that servant leadership, a model of leadership that is both inspirational and moral, provides a possible answer to such dangers. In light of the emergence of teams within organisations as a dominant paradigm for engaging in organisational life, the need for leadership that is inspirational and moral in nature becomes increasingly important, for members of teams must be able to trust both the people they work with and the leaders they work under.

2.6.1.5 Farling, Stone and Winston

Farling, Stone and Winston (1999) reviewed the literature to define the major variables, and developed a model to illustrate the relationships among the variables in the servant leader-follower transformational model – a dyadic model that uses a “corkscrew” design. This model represents a hierarchical model of servant leadership as a cyclical process, consisting of behavioural (vision, service) and relational (influence, credibility, trust) components. This model thus starts at leader principles, values, and beliefs and grows through the influence of the leader's (a) vision, (b) credibility, (c) trust, and (d) service. The outcome of this model also appears to be a leader's service to the follower, rather than reproduced service inclination in the follower (Rennaker, 2005). Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) argue that it is unclear how this conceptualisation differs from better-understood leadership theories such as transformational leadership (Bass, 1985). Nonetheless, Farling *et al*. (1999) argued for the importance of vision, influence, credibility, trust, and service; arguing that these elements serve as a theoretical foundation for moving onto empirical investigation of servant leadership. Of these five dimensions, three (vision, trust, and service) were adopted in Patterson’s (2003) model. Farling *et al*.’s work has become a regularly cited article in the field of servant leadership studies, and has served as a theoretical basis for many of the theoretical and empirical works that have followed. The dimensions of vision and trust in their model were included in Irving's (2005) study as dimensions of servant leadership at the individual leader level, and measured by utilising the servant leadership assessment instrument (SLAI) developed by Dennis and Bocarnea (2005). These variables in their cyclical servant leader-follower transformational model are illustrated in Figure 2.11.


The Process Repeats
INFLUENCE OF SERVICE
Service
INFLUENCE OF TRUST
Trust
INFLUENCE OF CREDIBILITY
Credibility
INFLUENCE OF VISION
Vision
Leader's Values & Beliefs

(Adapted from Farling *et al.,* 1999, p. 53)

Figure 2.11 Servant leadership (cyclical) variable model

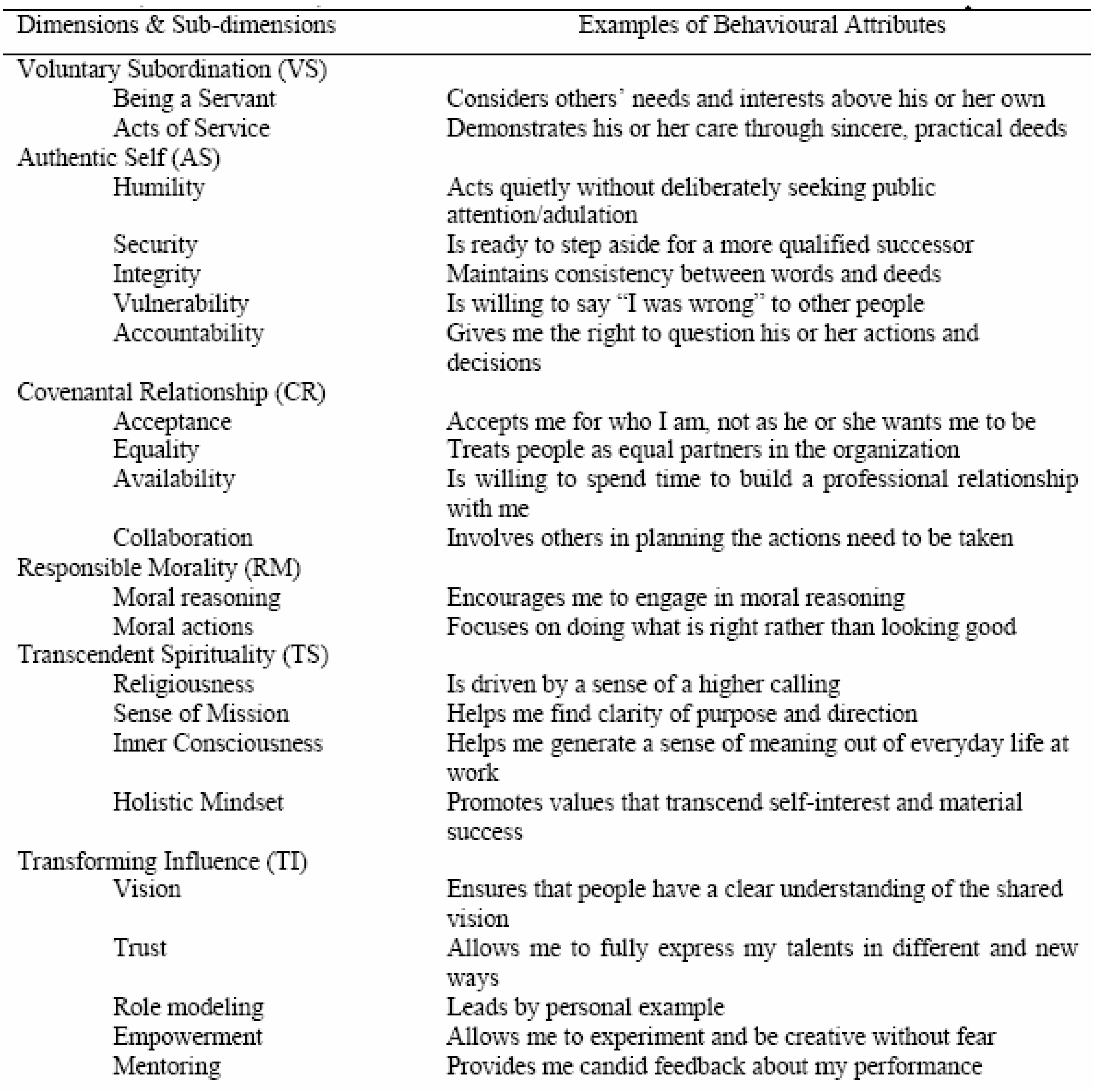
2.6.1.6 Russell

Russell's (2001) observations flow out of his review of the literature surrounding personal and organisational values with a special focus on the aspects of trust, appreciation of others, and empowerment. For Russell (2001), values are the underlying factors that fundamentally separate servant leaders from all other leadership types. Russell (2001, p. 81) posits: "the personal values of leadership, such as honesty and integrity, play a primary role in establishing interpersonal and organizational trust" – a key to effective collaboration among team members. Because "servant leadership succeeds or fails on the personal values of the people who employ it" (p. 81), the effectiveness of the teams these leaders guide will be similarly affected, for leader values significantly affect followers and ultimately influence organisational performance" (p. 81), including performance at the level of teams.

2.6.1.7 Sendjaya

Sendjaya's (2003) intent of his study was to develop and validate a servant leadership behaviour scale. In constructing the SL behaviour scale, Sendjaya followed the required steps in the scale development process. Content analyses of interview transcripts resulted in thirty-two themes which were perceived to be associated with servant leadership. These themes were generated from questions revolving around the perceived meaning of servant leadership to the respondents. In subsequent content analyses, these themes were cross checked with the literature review. As a result, the thirty two themes were conceptually grouped into twenty two sub-dimensions and six dimensions servant leadership through a cross-examination of his extant literature review, and interviews. As indicated in Table 2.6, the six dimensions of servant leadership were as follows: Voluntary Subordination (VS), Authentic Self (AS), Covenantal Relationship (CR), Responsible Morality (RM), Transcendent Spirituality (TS), and Transforming Influence (TI). Guided by the extant literature and interview data, 101 items were subsequently derived deductively and inductively, consistent with the definitions of each of the six domains.

Table 2.6 Dimensions, sub-dimensions, and behavioural attributes associated with servant leadership



Dimensions & Sub-dimensions	Examples of Behavioural Attributes
Voluntary Subordination (VS)	
Being a Servant	Considers others' needs and interests above his or her own
Acts of Service	Demonstrates his or her care through sincere, practical deeds
Authentic Self (AS)	
Humility	Acts quietly without deliberately seeking public attention/adulation
Security	Is ready to step aside for a more qualified successor
Integrity	Maintains consistency between words and deeds
Vulnerability	Is willing to say "I was wrong" to other people
Accountability	Gives me the right to question his or her actions and decisions
Covenantal Relationship (CR)	
Acceptance	Accepts me for who I am, not as he or she wants me to be
Equality	Treats people as equal partners in the organization
Availability	Is willing to spend time to build a professional relationship with me
Collaboration	Involves others in planning the actions need to be taken
Responsible Morality (RM)	
Moral reasoning	Encourages me to engage in moral reasoning
Moral actions	Focuses on doing what is right rather than looking good
Transcendent Spirituality (TS)	
Religiousness	Is driven by a sense of a higher calling
Sense of Mission	Helps me find clarity of purpose and direction
Inner Consciousness	Helps me generate a sense of meaning out of everyday life at work
Holistic Mindset	Promotes values that transcend self-interest and material success
Transforming Influence (TI)	
Vision	Ensures that people have a clear understanding of the shared vision
Trust	Allows me to fully express my talents in different and new ways
Role modeling	Leads by personal example
Empowerment	Allows me to experiment and be creative without fear
Mentoring	Provides me candid feedback about my performance

(Adapted from Sendjaya, 2003, p. 3)

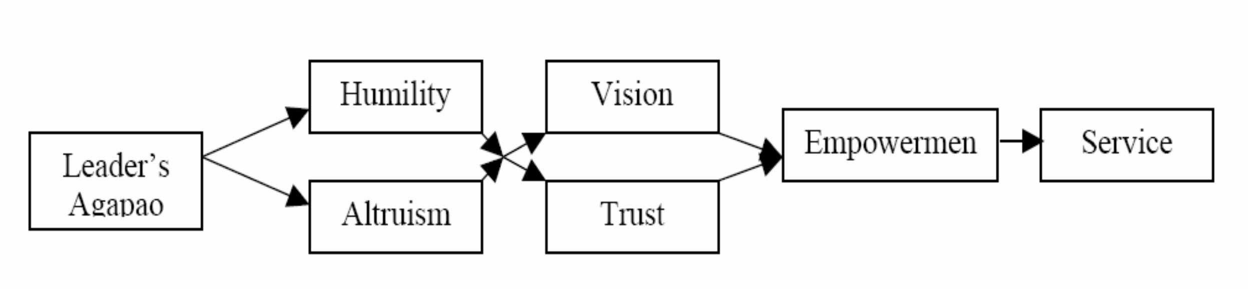
The construct definitions guided the generation of 101 items that were subjected to expert content validation and pilot-tested. Subsequently, factor analyses were conducted to examine the psychometric properties of the scale. Throughout these stages, items had been deleted and refined to improve the reliability and validity of the scores on the scale. Following the content expert validation procedure, the 101 items in the initial pool had been reduced to 73 items.

The findings from principal component analysis were inconclusive and somewhat inconsistent with Sendjaya's hypothesised theoretically-derived factors. The items that made up each single factor disconfirmed his initial *a priori* conceptualisation. Thus, confirmatory factor analysis has to be executed to further assess the construct validity of the instrument.

2.6.1.8 Patterson

Patterson (2003) presented a seven-dimension leader-follower servant leadership model. As a theory-building model, Patterson presented servant leadership theory as an extension of transformational leadership theory. This extension was based primarily on Patterson's observation that transformational theory was not addressing the phenomena of love, humility, altruism, and being visionary for followers. Patterson's model begins with an *agapao* love construct, by which the leader considers the needs, wants, and desires of each person, as the independent variable. Winston (2002) states that *agapao* love is the Greek term that refers to a moral love, "doing the right thing at the right time for the right reasons" (p. 4) and that "*agapáo* means to love in a social or moral sense, embracing the judgment and the deliberate assent of the will as a matter of principle, duty, and propriety" (p. 5). This appears to be consistent with Greenleaf's (1977) clarification of the service inclination as caring and with the general presentation by non-model positions that servant leadership is other-focused.

Building from a leader's love, the Patterson model proposes the mediating relationships between specific leader attributes including, (a) humility, (b) altruism, (c) vision, (d) trust, and (e) empowerment that all lead to the outcome variable, service. Patterson identifies the independent and mediating variables as internal virtues, thus, all of these may rightly be part of the leader's service inclination. However, *agapao* love, as the independent variable in the model, is the foundational cause of service. Patterson's description *of* service emphasises the acts by which a leader serves a follower*,* but only gives limited attention to the reproduction of the service inclination in followers. Her model does not clearly demonstrate reproduced service. Nonetheless, Winston (2003) claims that Patterson's (2003) leader-follower model improves on the leader-organisation models by showing: "the causal relationships between the variables in order to build a process model of servant leadership" (Winston, p. 602). As such, Patterson's model provided a basis for a variety of explorations of the servant leadership construct including Nelson (2003), Bryant (2003), and Dennis (2004). In his study Irving (2005) utilised Dennis and Bocarnea's (2005) SLAI, and incorporated Patterson's love, empowerment, humility, vision, and trust variables. It can be seen in Figure 2.12 that Patterson's model details how the servant leadership constructs work together beginning with *agapao* love and ending with service.



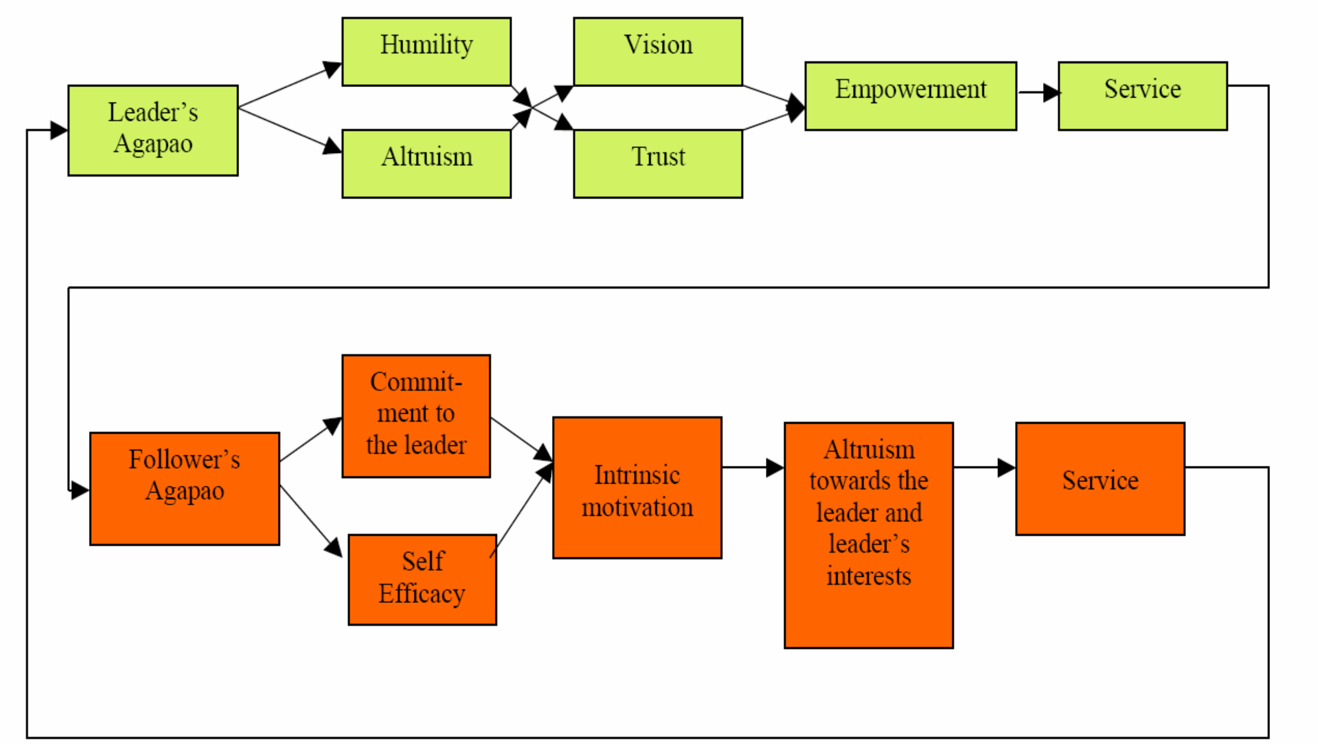
(Patterson, 2003, p. 9)

Figure 2.12 Patterson's servant leadership model of constructs

2.6.1.9 Winston's (2003) extension of the Patterson (2003) model of servant leadership

Since servant leaders have a high regard for their followers, Winston (2002, p. 4) notes that: "this high regard is termed *agapao* love". To improve Patterson's (2003) model, Winston (2003) proposed a circular extension shown in Figure 2.13 . With his extending Patterson's leader-to-follower model of servant leadership, Winston attempts to show how the leader's service in Patterson's model affects followers' *agapao* love. Thus, the leader's service results in a change in the follower's sense of love. The follower's *agapao* love, in turn, affects (increases) both the follower's commitment to the leader and the follower's own self-efficacy. The higher levels of commitment and self-efficacy results in a higher level of followers' intrinsic motivation, that leads to a higher level of altruistic attitude/altruism toward the leader, and the leader's desire to see the organisation do well. This then leads to higher levels of followers' service to the leader. By virtue of identifying the next stage in the model as the follower's love, the extended model better shows reproduction of the service inclination. The follower's service, in turn affects the leader's *agapao* love toward the follower, which makes the modified model circular. Winston’s model also shows how a moderating variable of maturity (or perhaps spiritual maturity), moderates the impact of the variables, thus making the circular model a spiral model.

The leader's love in Patterson's model echoes in the follower's love in Winston's extension, but it is not quite clear if the outcome, i.e. service to the leader, represents the full expression of a reproduced service inclination (Rennaker, 2005). Winston conceived the model as a dyadic spiral leaving unanswered the question of service reproduction on an organisation-wide scale. The spiralling construct appears to derive from the earlier dyadic model, following a corkscrew design, offered by Farling *et al*. (1999). Winston (2003) calls for research to validate the variables and to develop an instrument to measure the leader-to-follower extension of Patterson’s model.


Leader’s Agapao
Humility
Altruism
Vision
Trust
Empowerment
Service
Follower’s Agapao
Commit-ment to the leader
Self Efficacy
Intrinsic motivation
Altruism towards the leader and leader’s interests
Service

(Winston 2003, p. 8)

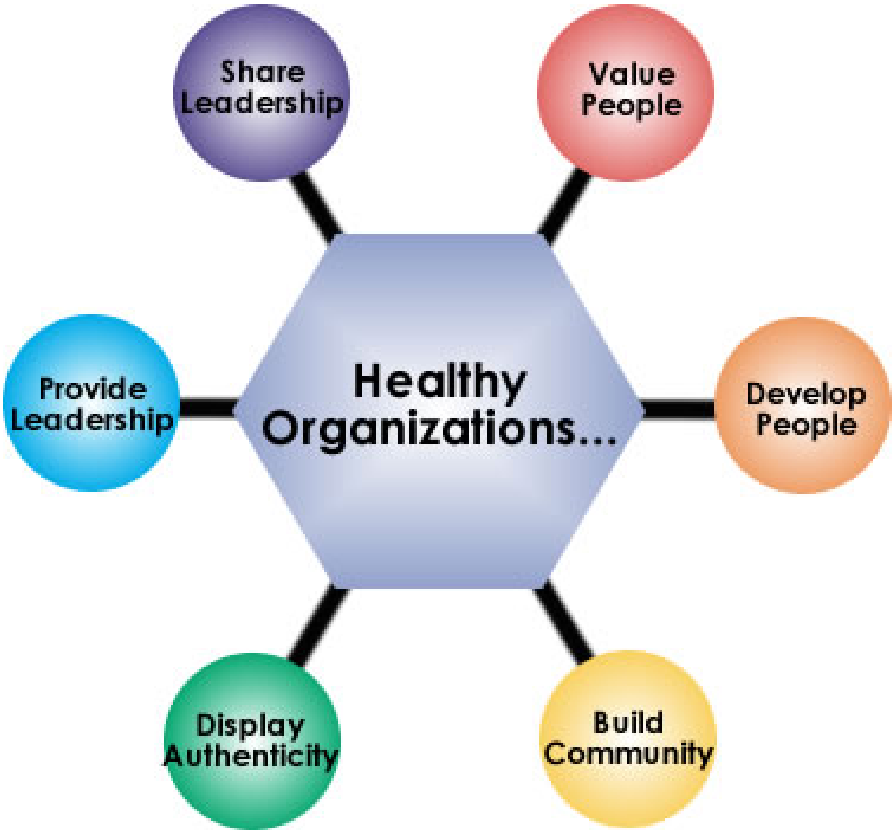
Figure 2.13 Model of servant leadership with Winston’s extension added

2.7 Addressing servant leadership at the organisational and individual level: Measuring instruments

2.7.1 Measuring servant leadership at organisational level: The Organisational Leadership Assessment (OLA)

While empirical measures of servant leadership such as Dennis (2004), Dennis and Bocarnea (2005), Sendjaya (2003), Page and Wong (2003) have emerged, Laub's (1999) Organisational Leadership Assessment (OLA) has been the dominant instrument used for measuring servant leadership at the *organisational level* in recent years as evidenced by works such as those by Drury (2004), Hebert (2004), Irving (2004), Laub (1999, 2003), and Ledbetter (2003). As Irving (2005, p. 843) notes: "if leadership practitioners want the teams in their organization to be effective, then servant leadership is vital for increasing the effectiveness of teams". Covey (1998, p. xvii) states that: "If you really want to get servant-leadership, then you've got to have institutionalization of the principles at the organizational level". Of the servant leadership instruments, the OLA seems the best suited for addressing servant leadership at this level of analysis (Laub, 2003; Irving, 2005).

Laub's (1999) 66-item (Servant) *Organisational Leadership Assessment* was designed and developed through a Delphi investigation. The instrument was put through a broader field test for reliability. A Cronbach alpha coefficient of .98 was found. Three perspectives were measured in the Delphi process: (1) the organisation as a whole, (2) its top leadership, and (3) each participant's personal experience. Sixty characteristics of servant leaders were identified and eventually clustered into six key areas: (a) valuing people, (b) developing people, (c) building community, (d) displaying authenticity, (e) providing leadership, and (f) sharing leadership. According to Laub (2003) these six key areas constitute a "healthy organisation". This is illustrated in Figure 2.14. Ledbetter confirmed the reliability of the OLA among law enforcement agencies, and also found a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .98.


Share Leadership
Value People
Provide Leadership
Healthy Organizations...
Develop People
Display Authenticity
Build Community

(Laub, 2003, p. 16)

Figure 2.14 Six key areas of healthy organisations

Accruing from this, Wong and Page (2003) conclude that servant leadership, in essence, covers two areas: servanthood, and leadership. With respect to servanthood aspects, the leader develops the people, who co-build the organisation. Thus, the focus here is on the leader's character and desire to serve. With respect to the leadership part, the leader builds the organisation by effectively utilising people as resources. Therefore, the emphasis here is on leadership skills, such as vision-casting and team-building (Wong & Page, 2003).

Laub (1999) found that shared vision builds up others (empowers), and others' needs (service). His development of the *Servant Organisational Leadership Assessment* (SOLA) revealed higher scores on the SOLA of participants who had higher perceptions of job satisfaction than servant leaders. This suggests that managers and workers would have higher levels of job satisfaction in servant-led organisations – resulting in higher levels of organisation performance (Dennis & Winston, 2003).

However, servant leadership cannot merely be focused on institutional leaders. Rather, organisations should heed Covey's (1998) concern. However, the examination of context within the leader/follower relationship is undoubtedly important due to the impact various conditions have on the nature of the leadership challenge (Humphreys 2005; Gibbons, 1992). Consequently, leadership and its effectiveness are by and large dependent upon the context (Osborn *et al*., 2002; Boal, 2000, Shamir & Howell, 1999; Smith *et al*., 2004), and therefore ought not only to focus on the organisation as context but also to the leader from an individual's context.

2.7.2 The priority of servant leadership at the individual leader level

Having addressed the priority and importance of servant leadership at the organisational level, the discussion of research implications will now be focused on servant leadership at the individual leader level.

While, as Covey (1998) has noted, the institutionalisation of servant leadership principles at the organisational level is vital, Irving's (2005) study provided complementary data supporting the priority and importance of servant leadership at the individual leader level. Irving used the SLAI for measuring servant leadership at an individual level. Of the five essential characteristics of servant leadership that are a part of the SLAI (love, empowerment, vision, humility, and trust), all were positively (with a Pearson r ranging between .325 - .493) and significantly ($p = .000$) correlated with the effectiveness of teams. Irving's (2005) significant findings between teams and the dimensions of servant leadership, confirmed the impact that servant leadership might have on team effectiveness, not only at the organisational level, but also at the individual leader level. However, a lower ($r = .325$), though still significant, correlation with the SLAI trust scale and team effectiveness was found – an aspect that warrants additional future research. As a whole, Irving's findings associated with the relationship between servant leadership at the individual leader level and team effectiveness provide statistical support for affirming the positive correlation of the constructs, and opened up new pathways for investigating the relationship further.

For leadership practitioners, especially those interested in the practice of teams, servant leadership at the individual leader level takes on a fiduciary status, alongside servant leadership at the organisational level, due to its high correlation with the effectiveness of teams (Irving, 2005). Though Covey (1998) claims that institutionalisation of the servant leadership principles ought to be made at the organisational level, it is also vital that servant leadership be addressed at the individual leader level because the two levels are inextricably linked, however differ contextually. This means that, while organisations could pay attention to the institutionalisation of servant leadership at the organisational level, an institutionalising of servant leadership cannot occur until a critical mass of individual leaders begin to practice servant leadership at the individual level. While, not ignoring Covey's (1998) valid concern of the institutionalisation of the servant leadership principles at the organizational level, examining servant leadership at the individual leader level provides the opportunity to evaluate key individual dimensions of servant leadership (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Irving, 2005).

2.7.2.1 Measuring servant leadership at the individual leader level: Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ)

Spears (1995) extended Greenleaf's work by articulating ten characteristics of a servant leader, and Spears (1998) then emphasised these dimensions — listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualisation, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and community building. This list of ten characteristics associated with the servant leader was developed through Spears's (1998) analysis of Greenleaf's (1977) original writings. This work did not connect to, or distinguish itself, from other conceptualisations of leadership as Graham's (1991) work had; however, it did provide the closest representation of an articulated framework for what characterises essential servant leadership (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2002; 2006). If Graham (1991) provided a parsimonious list of the inspirational and moral aspects of servant leadership, Spears (1998) provided a broader range of concepts to consider. Spears and Lawrence's (2002) later work reiterated the ten characteristics affirmed in Spears's earlier work.

Barbuto and Wheeler (2002) described servant leadership as composed of eleven characteristics – built on the more influential works in the field (e.g. Greenleaf, 1970; Spears, 1995). This framework built on the ten characteristics specified by Spears (1998) and Greenleaf (1977), but added an eleventh dimension, calling, as fundamental to servant leadership and consistent with Greenleaf's original message. This work was however targeted primarily for practitioners and lacked the theoretical development necessary to advance the servant leadership construct to an operational level. Notwithstanding, Barbuto and Wheeler's (2006) work addresses the conceptualisation and measurement of the servant leadership construct – at an individual level. A review of the servant leadership literature and that of similar constructs has led them to the development of operational definitions for eleven servant leadership dimensions (as explained in Chapter 1, pp. 23-24). Barbuto and Wheeler's (2006) research on the concept of servant leadership resulted in the refinement of the servant leadership concept as a five-dimensional construct. The results provided five dimensions of servant leadership, constituting the Servant Leadership Questionnaire, comprising of: (a) altruistic calling, (b) emotional healing, (c) persuasive mapping, (d) wisdom, and (e) organisational stewardship. Since they developed a new measure of servant leadership for their study, additional data were collected to help demonstrate its construct validity. Specifically, 254 employed university students completed the measure of servant leadership (SLQ), along with measures of transformational leadership (MLQ; Bass & Avolio, 1996) and LMX (LMX-7, Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Participants also completed a number of outcome measures describing their attitudes and behaviours at work. Several analyses were conducted to demonstrate that the servant leadership measure was related, but distinct from the other two leadership measures.

Since Barbuto and Wheeler's SLQ was used for the present study, further details of the instrument are described in Chapter 3.

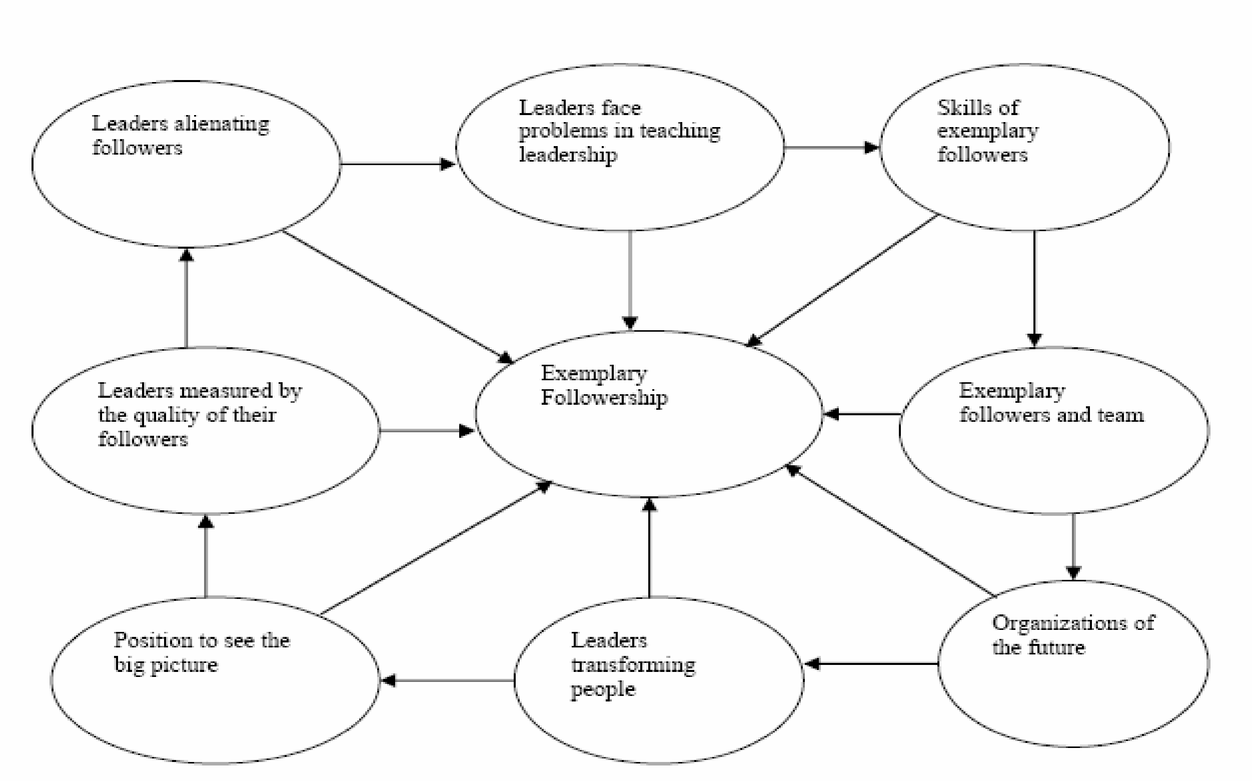
2.7.2.2 Measuring servant leadership at the individual leader level: Servant Leadership Assessment Instrument (SLAI)

While, as Covey (1998) has noted, the institutionalisation of the servant leadership principles at the organisational level is important, examining servant leadership at the individual leader level provides the opportunity to evaluate key individual dimensions of servant leadership. Dennis (2004) highlighted five essential characteristics of servant leadership: (a) *agapao* love, (b) empowerment, (c) vision, (d) humility, and (e) trust, which are five of the seven theoretical dimensions put forward in Patterson's (2003) leader-follower model. In responding to Winston's (2003) call to empirically measure the variables proposed by Patterson (2003), Dennis and Bocarnea (2005) attempted to measure Patterson's seven identified dimensions: (a) *agapao* love, (b) empowerment, (c) vision, (d) humility, (e) trust, (f) altruism, and (g) service. These seven specific component concepts were used to build items for a servant leadership instrument. Dennis and Bocarnea used Devellis's guidelines in scale development, in attempting to construct an instrument measuring Patterson's servant leadership conceptualisation. A stratified sample was taken from the study response database. Three separate data collections were used for the development of this instrument, reducing the 71-item scale to 42 items, yielding five factors: (a) empowerment, (b) love, (c) humility, (d) trust, and (e) vision – similar to the five put forward by Dennis (2004). The instrument yielded a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.92. The authors intended that the SLAI should have the ability to predict, or measure, the concepts of Patterson's (2003) model, in order for a leader to assess his/her effectiveness as a servant leader at an *individual level.*

Though these authors conducted exploratory factor analysis to help define the underlying constructs to measure the identified dimensions, they did not employ confirmatory factor analysis in order to establish the construct validity of the instrument. This is indicated by Pett, Lackey and Sullivan (2003) as an important aspect in the use of factor analysis, in the development of an instrument.

Banutu-Gomez (2004) focused on the impact of exemplary followership and servant leadership. He examined their relationship and the roles they play in the creation of the "learning organisation of the future" (discussed earlier in Chapter 2). In the first part of his framework Banutu-Gomez (2004) addresses the process of being a good follower. In this process Banutu-Gomez (2004) includes aspect such as: leaders alienating followers, leaders face problems in teaching leadership, skills of exemplary followers, exemplary followers and team, organisations of the future, leaders transforming people, and leaders measured by the quality of their followers. The second part of Banutu-Gomez's (2004) framework deals with the servant leader. Its process consequently includes: servant leaders eliciting trust in followers, modern western societies, the community providing love for humans, the expectation of organisations to serve, and modern organisations' searching for new missions. According to Banutu-Gomez these two parts, combined into one organised framework (the Great Leader model), with servant leadership at its core, can potentially provide insights and guidelines for managers and leaders in leading organisations of the future.

Figure 2.15 is a representation of Banutu-Gomez's (2004) Great Leader model brought together in an organised framework, with servant leaders at the core. The logic is that each Great Leader component is of central importance to the development of a servant leadership system within each employee in the organisation, or community. The potential payoffs include enhancing and increasing employees or citizens to be able to foresee the unforeseeable, and establish a vibrant sustainable strategic vision for the organisation or community (Banutu-Gomez, 2004). It seems as if an essential ingredient to Great Leader is boundless optimism about the potential of ordinary people to accomplish extraordinary things (Banutu-Gomez, 2004).


Leaders alienating followers
Leaders face problems in teaching leadership
Skills of exemplary followers
Leaders measured by the quality of their followers
Exemplary Followership
Exemplary followers and team
Position to see the big picture
Leaders transforming people
Organizations of the future

(Banutu-Gomez, 2004, p. 144)

Figure 2.15 Great leader: Exemplary followership through servant leadership model

2.8 The necessity for further and continued research in the domain of servant leadership

Most reviews of the literature on servant leadership begin with Greenleaf’s (1977) influential work. Flowing from Greenleaf’s work, a number of theoretical publications have directly and indirectly related to servant leadership emerged, as illustrated in the literature overview. Consequently, prevailing literature on servant leadership is filled with anecdotal evidence and sometimes appear indeterminate. Sufficient empirical research is critically needed to test and validate these various concepts and to create further predictions and hypotheses in order to fully develop the concept of servant leadership (Farling *et al*., 1999; Russell & Stone, 2002; Sendjaya. & Sarros, 2002). Bowman (1997) points out one criticism of servant leadership – that it lacks support from “published, well-designed, empirical research” (p. 245).

Although, quantitative research on servant leadership has been conducted, hitherto the amount of quantitative research on servant leadership remains insufficient and limited in comparison to the majority of theoretical and conceptual research proffered by various authors (Irving, 2004). However, this could be attributable to the relatively “new” interest in this field by scholars. Sendjaya and Sarros (2002) claim that another possible reason for the scarcity of research on servant leadership, is due to the very notion of the ‘servant as leader’ – being an oxymoron. Though this is likely the case, the necessity for more research – both quantitative and qualitative in nature – is sequentially needed to establish a solid research baseline that may be used to inform industries of servant leadership in 21st century organisations (Irving, 2004).

From a research perspective, Russell and Stone (2002) posit the usefulness to define and examine what personal values are mutual among servant leaders. Additionally, significant research might determine if the values of servant leaders correlate with excellent organisational performance (Russell & Stone, 2002). According to Russell and Stone (2002) and Farling *et al*. (1999) researchers should not only refine the characteristics constituting genuine servant leadership, but also take the next step of analysing the impact of servant leadership on organisations.

Thus, servant leadership can be regarded as a developing notion and therefore requires further testing of its components, and further examination of its significant processes. Qualitative approaches, including interviews, case studies, examples of servant-led organisations, and focus groups have mainly been conducted in servant leadership research (Bowman, 1997). Therefore, the next stages of major development are surveys and longitudinal studies that will further inform the development of theory and practice.

Nonetheless, despite the concern that the existing servant leadership literature consists of a miscellany of different styles, ranging from books, to journals, to research, and its application spanning across various and distinctive industries, fraternities, and fields, there is enough consistency in the literature to provide evidence of the existence of servant leadership (Russell & Stone, 2002). Spears (1999) emphasises the vital importance in honouring and accepting a diversity of opinions in the interpretation of servant leadership. However, to accomplish this, a great deal of significant, diverse, and contributing research in this field is still required. Ultimately servant leadership should lead to the constitution of a pragmatic ideal theory, with a focus on getting things done while helping people grow, and not be seen as a forced ideology (Spears, 1999).

Bass (2000, p. 33) too, is of the opinion that, as a concept, servant leadership theory requires substantial empirical research. Bass (2000) believes that its profound philosophical foundation provides avenues for its theoretical development, "The strength of the servant leadership movement and its many links to encouraging follower learning, growth, and autonomy, suggests that the untested theory will play a role in the future leadership of the learning organization". Given the present organisational context, with its increased emphasis on corporate social investment, a sense of community, empowerment, shared authority, and relational power, Bass' (2000) hypothesis on servant leadership suggests it may be a notion with great promise for the future. Bass (2000) further contends that the strength of the servant leadership movement and its many links to encouraging follower learning, growth, and autonomy, suggests that the untested and somewhat speculatively theory will play a role in the future leadership of the learning organisation. To this extent Greenleaf (1977, p. 85) eloquently states that the successful leader of the future, “will need to evolve from being the *chief* into the *builder of the team*". Linking onto this thinking Walz (2001, p. ii) states: "We live in a world crying out for leadership that is not concerned with self-aggrandizement but with selfless sacrifice to witness dreams and visions fulfilled in the lives of those being led."

2.9 Summary of the leadership construct

As a broad construct, leadership is still often one of the most studied and least understood aspects of the social sciences (Bennis, 1989). The early leadership research emphasised two general, broadly-defined behaviour categories ("metacategories") that are best described as relations-oriented behaviour and task-oriented behaviour. Examples include consideration and initiating structure (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957) in early research on leader behaviour, and concern for people, and concern for production in the managerial grid model (Blake & Mouton, 1982). For three decades, research on leader behaviour was dominated by a focus on these two broadly-defined categories of behaviour. Many studies were conducted to see how measures of consideration and initiating structure were correlated with criteria of leadership effectiveness, such as subordinate satisfaction and performance. A meta-analysis of this survey research found that both behaviours have a positive but weak correlation with subordinate performance (Fisher & Edwards, 1988). Subsequent research on specific types of task and relations behaviour found correlations with unit performance that were sometimes stronger but still not consistent across situations (Yukl, 2002).

A wide variety of other formulations/prescriptions of leadership followed, culminating in transformational leadership, and now servant leadership, receiving major attention.

2.10 Trust theory

2.10.1 Introduction

The literature on trust (Lewicki & Bunker, 1996; Kramer, 1999; Butler, 1999) suggests that trust is history-dependent; and that trust and leadership interact in a complex, self-reinforcing cycle. Which of the two comes first is a question that has not yet been addressed conclusively (Reinke, 2004). In the absence of a definitive answer, Reinke (2004) argues that leaders could benefit to behave as though they are responsible for earning the trust of employees. This is illustrated by Baier’s (cited in Wicks *et al.*, 1999, p. 4) statement, where he points out the value of developing new levels of trust in an organisation, claiming that: “both individuals and organizations should seek to trust and be trusted, not only because it is a desirable moral quality but because it also creates economic benefits for the self and others”.

Various factors have been proposed as leading to conditions of trust (Reinke, 2004). As a result of experimental research, Hovland, Janis and Kelley (1953) proposed that credibility was based on the perceived expertise and trustworthiness of the communicator or trustee (Hovland *et al.,* 1953). Mayer *et al.* (1995) suggest that to be perceived as trustworthy, leaders must exhibit ability, benevolence, and integrity. Mayer *et al*. (1995) refers to ability as the skills and competencies needed within a particular arena, and is related to Hovland *et al.*'s (1953) concept of expertise. Mayer *et al*. (1995, p. 719) describe benevolence as: "the extent to which a trustee is believed to want to do good to the trustor”. While integrity refers to the trustor's perception that the trustee believes in, and behaves in accordance with, an accepted set of principles (Mayer *et al*., 1995).

2.10.2 Theoretical overview and models of trust

Upon examining the definitions of trust, as presented in Chapter 1, it appears as if trust consistently involves (1) the significance of risk-related behaviours as evidence of trust, and (2) trustworthiness of the trustee as an antecedent of trust. Some researchers have attempted to integrate these trust perspectives into theoretical categories based on the significance of their contribution to the trust literature (Lewicki & Bunker, 1995, 1996; Clark & Payne, 1997; Masacco, 2000; Albrecht, 2000). Since trust is clearly not a recent or “new” concept, much of the writings about trust seems to be expressed in popular terms – thus not properly considering its roots and background in different disciplines (cf Erickson, 1968; Giddens, 1990; Kramer & Tyler, 1996; Lane & Bachmann, 1998; Luhmann, 1973, 1979; Rotter, 1967; Williamson, 1993; Wrightsman, 1964). According to Büssing (2002) the increasing prominence of trust is associated with the belief, and the admission that traditional concepts in organisational science, particularly those with a rational/cognitive foundation, fail to explain the processes and behaviour in organisations. Besides these fundamental concerns, Büssing (2002) reports on the limited evidence for the status of trust, meaning, whether trust is part of a more comprehensive model, like the psychological contract (e.g. Guest, 1998), and/or the role of trust – being a causal, moderating, or mediating variable, or a consequence in organisational settings (e.g. Dirks & Ferrin, 2001).

Substantially different approaches to trust seem to exist among the social sciences (Büssing, 2002). Some of these claim to be theoretical (e.g. Luhmann, 1973), while others (e.g. Rotter, 1967) use a hypothetical construct to derive corresponding measures from (Hay, 2002). Despite these discrepancies, the majority of approaches agree that trust is fundamentally a psychological state (Büssing, 2002). Rotter (1971) postulates that trust ought to be socially learned in certain institutions/associations (e.g. families, schools), and according to Luhmann (1973), in organisations (e.g. business enterprises, companies). Trust is assumed to be fundamental to the human existence (e.g. Wrightsman, 1964), and plays an important role in the formation of personality and identity establishment during childhood and adolescence (e.g. Erickson, 1968). Thus, it seems as if a distinction can be made between approaches accounting for personal, and systems-oriented trust (e.g. Fukuyama, 1990). While sociology, political, and organisational sciences often direct their attention to trust in social systems, psychology and other social sciences seem more concerned with personal trust (Büssing, 2002). Giddens (1990, p. 34) offers a definition that integrates both these perspectives, stating: “The reliability of a person or system, regarding a given set of outcomes or events, where that confidence expresses faith in the probity or love of another, or in the correctness of abstract principles (technical knowledge)”. Concerning this Luhmann (1979, p. 58) states that: “systems trust is latent and is beyond the day-to-day experience that influences personal trust”. In the light of this more eclectic perspective, personal trust is viewed by Rousseau *et al*. (1998, p. 395) as: “a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another”. Thus, despite these evident theoretical problems associated with trust, recent empirical research emphasises the important role of trust in organisations (Büssing, 2002).

Massaco (2000) suggested that workplace/organisational trust could be viewed from six bases of enquiry: early experimental, dispositional, sociological, psychological, ethical, and a generalist organisational perspective. An overview and critique of each of these positions is included in Table 2.7.

The type and number of dimensions used to frame trust fluctuates across scholars. Levin (1999) suggested that three dimensions could be used to structure an integrative trust perspective; cognitive trust, affective trust and cognitive-affective trust. Extending this, some empirical evidence suggested that trust might at least be measured using cognitive, affective (McAllistar, 1995), and behavioural bases (Albrecht & Sevastos, 1999, 2000; Clark & Payne, 1997; Cummings & Bromiley, 1995). Albrecht and Sevastos (1999) found support for the convergent and discriminant validity of five dimensions of trust in senior managers in their research: dispositional, cognitive, affective, behavioural, and normative-based trust. To date no known studies have examined trust from various levels of analysis (co-workers, manager, organisational) using a comprehensive measure inclusive of each possible trust modality (i.e. dispositional, cognitive, affective, behavioural, and normative dimensions). Of these underlying aspects, i.e. cognitive, affective, behavioural and normative dimensions, the behavioural approach to measuring trust seems to be gaining particular momentum (Albrecht & Sevastos, 2000; Gillespie & Mann, 2003).

Table 2.7 Theoretical approaches to studying trust

Orientation / e.g. Authors	Emphasis	Criticisms
Early Experimental Social Psychologists Deutsch (1958, 1960a, 1960b); Loomis (1959)	Pioneering trust studies. Stated that trust involved expectations, weighing options and making conscious choices. Trust can create motivational opportunities for an individual to maximise potential. Demonstrated the importance of confidence in others, context, cooperation and communication to trust.	Artificial experimental environment. Subjects were strangers. Deutsch inaccurately assumed that ‘cooperation’ was a parallel to trust (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995). Cooperation may be better thought of as an outcome of trust (Masacco, 2000). A cognitive-based approached to trust, ignored emotional aspects.

Orientation / e.g. Authors	Emphasis	Criticisms
Dispositional Perspective Erickson (1963); Rotter (1967, 1971); Johnson-George, & Swap (1982); Rempel & Holmes (1986)	Trust is personality variable- individuals have a propensity to trust or not to trust. Previous experiences or socialisation are antecedents to trust.	Although Rotter emphasised that situational uncertainty influenced trust (Bigley & Pierce, 1998; Couch & Jones, 1997) early studies did not capture trust as a contextual variable. Limited explanation of other determinants of trust (Masacco, 2000).
Sociological Perspective / Luhman (1979, 1988); Barber (1983); Lewis, & Weigert (1985); Doney, Cannon & Mullen (1998); Seligman (1997)	Trust is embedded in social systems. It is a broad cultural construct viewed at the level of societal norms (Albrecht & Sevastos, 1999). The function of trust is to help reduce complexity in social life and to facilitate social order and harmony.	Limited empirical evidence available (Masacco, 2000). Limited utility for applied researchers due to difficulty in identifications of specific behaviours of members within social group (Mayer & Davis, 1999). Focus in the applied literature is on the social / psychological dimensions of trust between two individuals or groups.
Psychological Perspective Lewicki & Bunker (1995, 1996); Sheppard & Tuchinsky, (1996); Tyler & DeGoey (1996)	Most trust theorists agree that trust is a psychological state. Various theoretical perspectives on trust exist within this category, e.g. calculus-based, knowledge-based, identification-based, rational-choice models. Early experimental studies into trust and much of the research in the organisational perspective can also be termed psychological in focus.	Criticisms vary across the different of types of trust framed within this perspective. Generally, criticism is leveled at those perspectives that emphasise cognition only. E.g. Trust may still be evident in the absence of thorough cognitive computations (Bigley & Pierce, 1998). Also, affective, social and relational dimensions of trust are not dealt with adequately in purely cognitive models (Albrecht & Sevastos, 1999).
Ethicists Perspective Hosmer (1995); Brenkert (1998); Flores & Solomon (1998); Wicks, Berman & Jones (1999)	Focused on viewing trust as an ethical or moral principle in terms of individual responsibility and social synchronisation. Many ethicists outlined the action of trusting, the trustworthiness of the person, and engendering mutual trust as denoting goodwill and good character.	Conceptualisations based on assumption and philosophical thought rather than empirical evidence (Masacco, 2000).

Orientation / e.g. Authors	Emphasis	Criticisms
Organisational Perspective Zand (1972); Jones, (1998); Shaw, (1997); Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard & Werner (1998); Creed & Miles (1996)	Continues to stimulate interest in exploring trust as an important part of organisational effectiveness. Fuses the breadth of theoretical approaches of trust and then determines its impact on individual employees or leaders, work teams or groups, and organisational structures and processes.	Despite exploding research into the area recently, there is limited uniformity in the interpretation, comparability and evaluation of organisational trust research. Principle indicators of employee and organisational effectiveness, such as 'effort' or 'productivity' are sometimes intangible and very difficult to measure. Very few studies investigate the relationship between trust and these factors.

(Adapted from: Ferres, 2001, pp. 2-3)

2.10.3 The importance of (organisational) trust

Current organisational developments reflect the importance of trust for sustaining individual and organisational effectiveness, especially when organisations are restructuring and/or downsizing, trust is an imperative element in the management process (Büssing, 2002; McAllistar, 1995). Underscoring this, Gibson *et al*. (2006) report on a recent study conducted on American and Canadian office workers, where it was observed that only 38% of employees who participated in the survey, considered management to be honest with them. Only 27% of individuals believed that management cared about them as individuals.

In searching for “newer models” related to defining and building trust in organisations, Basso (2004) found that the parallels between public human services and public education are significant. These include marginal control over resources and choice of clients, tremendous scrutiny by the public, and difficulties in attracting, retaining, and developing staff. The other parallel is that those leaders who take trust-building seriously can and will achieve extraordinary results despite these environmental challenges, while those who are not trusted will be confounded with organisational difficulties despite the level of other resources at their disposal. To this end, Basso (2004) claims that potentially useful methods of assessing trust could include individual and organisational assessments, using measuring instruments from personal self-reflection to supervisory observation and feedback to full-scale climate and 360-degree assessment studies. However, Dirks and Ferrin (2002) note a variation in the opinion of researchers concerning its effects. In their recent meta-analysis, organisational trust (as defined as trust in leadership) was most strongly related to work attitudes, followed by most citizenship behaviours, and finally job performance. While the following outcomes are not exhaustive, the next section contains these, and other consequences of organisational trust that have been documented in the literature.

2.10.4 Antecedents to organisational trust: Organisational determinants

Besides significant main effects on workplace behaviour and outcomes (e.g. job satisfaction, OCB, individual, and unit performance), Dirks and Ferrin's (2001) review contains some evidence for the moderating function of trust in diverse relationships. Guest (1998) for instance views trust as the key integrative concept, and that it serves as a mediator between causes and consequences in the psychological contract model.

According to Ferres (2001) openness of communication, perceived organisational support, and justice are examples of organisational aspects that have been specified in research as determinants of trust. With reference to communication, early writings by Gibb (1964, 1972) theorised that trust is reliant on openness within the organisation, citing effective communication as a primary element of his trust-level theory. This point is supported by more recent research which found that functional, open communication facilitated organisational trust (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard & Werner, 1998; Gilbert & Tang, 1998; Mishra & Morrisey, 1990).

Perceived organisational support, which can be viewed as a measure of an organisation's concern for its employees (Shore & Wayne, 1993), has also been found to influence trust at an organisational level (Tan & Tan, 2000). Based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), and the norm of reciprocity (Setton, Bennett, & Liden, 1996), it is likely that the level of organisational support perceived by an individual contributes to positive attitudes and behaviour. Deming (1986) writes that leaders create an environment that encourages trust and in doing so builds a culture in which accountability (Wood & Winston, 2005) allows for the public disclosure of the leader's behaviour and the organisational expectation of consequences to be a result of that behaviour.

Sonnenberg (1994) posits that when trust is high in an organisation morale is higher, turnover is lower, performance is higher, information is shared more freely, criticism is accepted more freely without retaliation, and innovative ideas are more frequent. Sonnenberg cautions, though, that trust does not come about easily. Trust must be “sought, nurtured and reinforced” (p. 14) and, he adds, can be destroyed by a single negative event. Followers, who make themselves vulnerable and experience negative results, tend to reduce trust at a faster rate than when they build trust.

Winston and Patterson (2006) argue that the followers' act of “trusting” results in a condition of vulnerability for the follower, just as an act of faith leaves a person vulnerable to the possibility of the faith being misplaced, and necessitating the acceptance of the repercussions of the leader not performing as expected. Gregersen (2003, p. 344) seems to agree with this connection of trust with faith and risk of negative consequences through the use of the formula: “risk = probability (of events) × the size (of future harms)”. In this formula, as the probability of negative events decrease, so does the perceived risk. As risk decreases, willingness to engage in behaviour by the follower increases.

Empirical studies in the organisational sciences that address the relationship between trust and organisational commitment seem rare, and only few deal with organisational behaviour (cf Laschinger, Finegan & Shamian, 2001; Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler & Martin, 1997; Nyhan & Marlowe, 1997). Büssing (2002) asserts that few results from organisational behaviour suggest a moderate positive correlation between personal trust and (affective) commitment. Consequently, in the following section, trust and its relationship to other variables will be looked at. However, Brockner *et al*., (1997) claim that despite the fact that most studies search for influences of trust on commitment, they actually perform correlational analyses of the trust-commitment relationship.

2.10.4.1 The relationship between subordinates' felt trustworthiness and their work attitudes and behaviours

A study by Lester and Brower (2003) looked at the above relationship by specifically investigating how subordinates' perceptions of their leaders' trust in them (labelled subordinates' felt trustworthiness), influence their performance, OCB, and job satisfaction. Lester and Brower’s (2003) results demonstrated a positive relationship between felt trustworthiness and these dependent measures. Furthermore, felt trustworthiness was a more significant predictor of these outcomes than the subordinates' perceptions of their leaders' trustworthiness. Their findings supported their hypotheses that subordinates' perceptions of their leader's trust in them (felt trustworthiness) are positively related to the subordinate's performance, OCBs, and job satisfaction.

Consequently, the authors conclude that when employees perceive that they are trusted, they will work harder, go beyond the call of duty, and be more content with their work. Their findings regarding leader trustworthiness were similar to previous research (e.g. Dirks & Ferrin, 2001), in that, subordinates' perceptions of how trustworthy their leaders were, demonstrated a significant, positive correlation with job satisfaction and a weaker (in Lester & Brower’s 2003 study, non-significant) relationship with behavioural outcomes. An interesting finding of their study, were the results of the hypothesis tests comparing the amount of variance explained in the outcomes by subordinate trustworthiness and leader trustworthiness. When both were entered into the regression equation, leader trustworthiness did not have a significant relationship with any of the outcomes, including satisfaction. Conversely, felt trustworthiness exhibited a significant, positive relationship with performance, OCB, and satisfaction even when accounting for leader trustworthiness (Lester & Brower, 2003). Thus, not only does felt trustworthiness explain variance above and beyond that of the leader’s trustworthiness, it is this perception of trustworthiness that is demonstrating the strongest relationship with employees’ attitudes and behaviours.

2.10.4.2 Trust and perceived organisational justice

Trust is also associated with perceived justice within organisations (Brockner & Siegel, 1996; Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991). In particular studies have shown that the “procedural” element of perceived justice influences trust outcomes (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). This component describes the equity and fairness of procedures used to determine these outcomes (e.g. performance appraisals) (Folger & Greenberg, 1985). The other focus of justice research is the domain of “distributive justice”, which relates to the fairness of actual outcomes an employee receives and has not been readily associated with trust (Folger, & Greenberg, 1985). There may be a limited relationship between distributive justice and trust because some employees may perceive some distributive outcomes follow standard norms that are largely beyond organisational or management control (e.g. award payments) (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

In addition, Carnevale and Wechsler (1992, p. 490) found that greater trust resulted from employees who felt more secure in their jobs and protected to some degree from “arbitrary action from the organization”. These researchers state that secure employees are more likely to take risks and trust compared to those who feel their job is under threat.

2.10.4.3 Trust and transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is another variable recognised as a principal determinant of trust (e.g. Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Den Hartog, Shippers & Koopman, 2002; Gillespie & Mann, 2000, 2003). Transformational leaders, in contrast to their transactional counterparts who rely on contingent rewards, elicit followers' inner motivation to carry out the organisational goals. The most effective leaders are generally identified as being transformational rather than purely transactional leaders (Bass, 2002).

Several theorists have suggested that transformational leaders stimulate trust primarily by communicating a comprehensible, appealing and achievable vision, which creates a set of shared values and objectives. This in turn engenders trust and a common organisational purpose (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Bryman, 1992; Fairholm, 1994; Sashkin, 1988). In addition, transformational leaders are held to build trust by conveying their willingness to comprehend the individual needs and capabilities of followers, and to serve those needs (Fairholm, 1994). Empirically, Pillai, Shriessheim, and Williams (1999) found that transformational leadership indirectly influenced OCB through trust, and Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) found that employee trust was influenced by transformational leadership behaviours.

Posner and Kouzes (1988) reported significant positive correlations between three dimensions of credibility: (1) trustworthiness, (2) expertise, and (3) dynamism and five transformational leadership practices: (a) challenging the process, (b) inspiring a shared vision, (c) enabling others to act, (d) modelling the way, and (e) encouraging the heart. In another study, Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer (1996) reported that only three of the six transformational leadership practices: (a) providing an appropriate model, (b) individualised support, and (c) fostering acceptance of group goals had a significant impact on subordinate trust in the leader. In contrast to both studies by Podsakoff *et al.*, (1990, 1996) Butler and Cantrell (1999) reported that all six transformational leadership practices had a significant impact on trust in the leader. These findings generally suggest that most transformational leadership practices are positively associated with the perceived trustworthiness of the leader.

2.10.4.4 The importance of trust in examining servant leadership

Research has shown that trust is a critical element of effective leadership (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Dirks, 2000; Hogan, Curphy & Hogan, 1994; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Shamir, Zakay, Breinen & Popper, 1998; Zand, 1997). Solomon (1998) succinctly summarises leadership as an emotional relationship of trust. Maxwell (1998) states clearly that trust is the “foundation of leadership” (p. 55). Therefore, the main purpose of examining trust, in the present study, is to gain an understanding of the role it plays in servant leadership (Farling *et al.*, 1999). In servant leadership (like in other leadership models), trust is “an important factor in the interdependence that exists between leaders and followers” (Mayer *et al.*, 1995, p. 710). When considering the role of trust in servant leadership, Greenleaf (1977, p. 25) states that: "trust is at the root of servant leadership and decision-making … [and that] leaders do not elicit trust unless [followers have] confidence in [the leader's] values and competence (including judgment) and unless [the leaders] have a sustaining spirit (*entheos*) that will support the tenacious pursuit of a goal" (p. 16). Similarly Howatson-Jones (2004) sees trust as the cornerstone of servant leadership. Kouzes (1998, p. 323) regards the dimension of trust in leadership as critically important, claiming it to be “the First Law of Leadership”.

The literature repeatedly identifies the essential variable of trust and its importance within the servant leader framework (Covey, 1992, 2004; De Pree, 1990; 1997; Fairholm, 1994; Ford, 1991; Gaston, 1987; Greenleaf, 1977; Howatson-Jones, 2004; Kouzes & Posner, 1993; Krajewski & Trevino, 2004; Mayer *et al.*, 1995; Melrose, 1995, 1996; Neuschel, 1998; Patterson, 2003; Schein, 1996; Sims, 1997; Snodgrass, 1993; Whetstone, 2002; Wilkes, 1996). According to Banutu-Gomez (2004) servant leaders elicit trust in followers because they respond to crisis by owning the problem. Trust is therefore regarded as the vital prerequisite for servant leadership (Autry, 2001, Greenleaf, 1997; Kiechel & Rosenthal, 1992). Howatson-Jones (2004) contends that trust is the cornerstone of the servant leader model of leadership. It also requires a level of maturity to move from self-interest to service, combined with a willingness to be influenced and shaped by others – thus becoming interdependent (Kerfoot, 2001; Vitello-Cicciu, 2002). Manning (2004) expresses the trust required in the servant-follower relationship, as “resonant trust” (p. 6). Thus, by showing concern for others (followers) and making their needs and interests a priority, the servant-oriented leader demonstrates empathy and elicits trust (Banutu-Gomez, 2004; Bennis, 1997; Block, 1993; Greenleaf, 1977; Kouzes & Posner, 1993).

Winston (2003, p. 5) points out that a “greater trust in the abilities of the followers” results as the leader grows in his knowledge of the capabilities of his/her followers. As a result, the leader is “more willing to empower the followers to accomplish tasks for the organization” (Winston, 2003, p. 5). Spears and Lawrence (2002, p. 105) assert that the servant leader: “must generate and sustain trust” that implies “demonstrating competence and constancy” and that this is most efficiently done on a face-to-face basis. Farling *et al*. (1999, p. 6) add: “trust is the emotional glue binds leaders and followers together”. Greenleaf (1998, p. 132) contends that faith is a communicated confidence that breeds “a feeling of trust by followers in the dependability of the inner resources of the leader". Thus, the synergy that the inter-dependence of trust produces in leader-follower relationships, seems to be an essential component to the successful accomplishment of goals.

McGee-Cooper's (2003, p. 13) view on the unequivocal role trust plays in the servant leadership model is made very clear:

> The most precious and intangible quality of (servant) leadership is *trust*. The confidence that the one who leads will act in the best interest of those who follow. The assurance that s/he will serve the group without sacrificing the rights of the individual.

This discussion illustrates the importance of the attribute of trust in servant leadership. It is furthermore evident that, to be a leader, one must have followers and these followers must trust their leaders (Wilson, 1998). This was confirmed in the surveys conducted by Kouzes and Posner (1995). Honesty was ranked as the highest characteristic of admired leaders. The 1995 survey indicated that 88 percent of respondents indicated that honesty was critical - it encompassed truthfulness, ethical behaviour, and integrity. Consistency between word and deed is how most people judge someone else as to their honesty (Wilson, 1998). This ties with the claim, earlier mentioned by Melrose (1996), pertaining to the erroneous perception of linking leadership to position, causing an impossibly to develop an atmosphere of trust, when leadership is thought of in terms of position or rank in an organisation. This aspect is very credible in examining servant leadership. The reason being, that when an incumbent begins to focus on his/her position, demanding the rightly associated honour and respect due to him/her, the thought of service and followers' needs disappears due to the shift in focus from others to self (Fryar, 2002). Due to the nature of leadership (specifically servant leadership) being a trust-based relationship, it is a service that the servant leader offers, but cannot force upon followers (Fryar, 2001). In return, it is an honour followers give to their chosen (servant) leader, because of the followers' belief in their leader's capacity to best serve their needs (Gibb, 1964; Fryar, 2001).

Both Greenleaf (1977) and Fairholm (1994) presume that leaders, through their control over information sources and organisational rewards and sanctions, are the principal architects or creators of organisational culture (Reinke, 2004).

Fairholm's (1994) concept of a "culture of trust" also illustrates the connection between leadership, organisational culture, values, trust, and performance. According to Fairholm, leadership "facilitates joint action by accommodating difference and redirecting it to joint action" (Fairholm, 1994, p. 56). In Fairholm’s view, leaders are responsible for building an organisational culture founded on trust that will, in turn, produce organisational success. In this regard, Reinke (2004) calls on leaders to exhibit predictability and consistency within an open and ethical climate in order to build the "culture of trust."

Values, according to Fairholm (1994), are at the core of organisational culture. Among his "elements of a trust relationship," Fairholm (1994) lists authentic caring, ethics, individual character (expectations of openness and trust), and leadership with a service orientation. The view of ethics he advances is consistent with the substantive justice stage of moral development of Rest and Narvaez (1994). Fairholm (1994) proposes that leaders build trust in organisations by fostering participation, engaging in helping relationships with employees, actively listening to workers, and using a consistent leadership style.

The above discussion encapsulates Wicks *et al.*’s. (1999, p. 102) concern of the imperative value of developing new levels of trust in an organisation, emphasising that: “both individuals and organizations should seek to trust and be trusted, not only because it is a desirable moral quality but because it also creates economic benefits for the self and others”.

2.10.4.5 The role of trust in commitment

One of the major potential consequences of trust – theoretically (Büssing, 2000) as well as empirically (Dirks & Ferrin, 2001) – appears to be organisational commitment (Büssing, 2002). In this light Büssing (2002) argues that there seems to be an overlap in functioning between trust and commitment. To this end, significant theoretical and empirical support for the linkage between organisational commitment and trust has been found (e.g. Albrecht & Travaglione, 2003; Tan & Tan, 2000; Laschinger, Finegan, Shamian & Casier, 2000; Liou, 1995; Cook & Wall, 1980). Meyer and Allen (1984) claim that, trust functions similarly to affective organisational commitment. The latter concept is generally referred to as "the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). This component of commitment represents the degree to which the individual wants to stay with the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991) and has been shown to positively influence a number of variables related to organisational well-being, such as job satisfaction (Liou, 1995; Vanderberg & Lance, 1992), and perceived organisational support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sowa, 1986). Due to its positive relationship with job involvement, job performance, and organisational citizenship behaviours (Allen & Meyer, 1996), employees with strong affective commitment also contribute more to the accomplishment of organisational goals. Affective commitment also enters into a motivational and decision-making process that produces an intention to stay with the organisation (Home & Griffith, 1995). Organisational commitment can be further divided into two other principal dimensions: continuance, and normative commitment. Continuance commitment represents the cost to the employee associated with leaving the organisation. Finally, normative commitment refers to the bond that occurs when an employee feels as though he or she ought to remain with the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Matthai (1989) specifically evaluated the relationship of trust and affective commitment and found a strong, positive relationship ($r = .74$). She concluded trust to be a predictor of organisational commitment. Similarly, Büssing (2002) found in his study, a positive and significant correlation between affective commitment and personal trust in the supervisor/organisation, while calculative (instrumental) commitment was statistically uncorrelated to personal trust. Nyhan (1999) notes that Blake and Mouton's (1984) view of trust is synonymous with mutual respect and a key to developing affective commitment. Conversely, Diffie-Couch (1984) concludes that mistrust leads to decreased commitment, and an unquantifiable cost in untapped potential.

Tan and Tan (2000) imply that studying trust from different levels of analysis may produce dissimilar antecedents and outcomes depending on the trust referent. In a study by Ferres, Connell and Travaglione (2004), the relationships between co-worker trust, perceived organisational support (POS), turnover intention, and affective commitment were similar to those found in studies, detailing the consequences of “trust in management” or “trust in organisation” (e.g. Albrecht & Travaglione, 2003; Laschinger *et al*., 2000; Mishra & Morrisey, 1990; Tan & Tan, 2000; Whitener, 2001; Whitener *et al*., 1998).

2.10.4.6 The role of co-worker trust in affective commitment

Based on the trust literature, it seems as if co-worker trust is aligned with affective commitment. Processes of reciprocation that exist due to social exchanges at work serve to initiate, strengthen and maintain interpersonal relationships. Consequently, a co-worker may begin to see a colleague as predictable and dependable, and respond by developing trust (Ferres *et al*., 2004). If the co-worker responds benevolently (is trustworthy) then commitment to the relationship and the organisation could be fostered (Holmes & Rempel, 1989). Cook and Wall (1980) earlier offered evidence to support this position, as they found that trust in peers correlated significantly with organisational identification and organisational involvement. However, Ferres *et al*. (2004) claim that limited attention has been given to co-worker trust in detailing affective commitment outcomes. For an employee, the foundational concept of workplace commitment is identified along multiple foci, including commitment to one's work, career, job, union and organisation (Mueller, Wallace & Price, 1992).

More than continuance or normative commitment, affective commitment has been shown to positively influence a number of variables related to organisational well-being, such as job satisfaction (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch & Topolnytsky, 2002) and POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Owing to its positive relationship with job involvement, job performance, and organisational citizenship behaviours (Allen & Meyer, 1996), employees with strong affective commitment also contribute more to the accomplishment of organisational goals. Affective commitment may enter into a motivational and decision-making process that produces an intention to leave. Conceptually, higher commitment implies weaker desire (or motivation) to leave the company and results in lower intention to leave. Indeed, the empirical evidence speaks clearly on this point (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). A number of studies conducted in a variety of settings support a relationship between organisational trust and intention to leave (Tan, & Tan, 2000; Cunningham & MacGregor, 2000; Mishra, & Morrisey, 1990). Intention to leave is probably the most important predictor of actual turnover and is defined as the strength of an individual's conviction that he or she will stay with or leave the organisation in which s/he is currently employed (Elangovan, 2001). Ferres *et al*. (2004) found that co-worker trust is positively related to, and predictive of, affective commitment.

2.10.4.7 Trust of subordinates and their organisation on job satisfaction and organisational commitment:

Supervisors who trust their subordinates and have a good relationship with them are able to spend more time on their own development rather than having to directly oversee their subordinates on a continuous basis (Bradach & Eccles, 1989; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Crockett, Gaetner and Dufur (as cited in Gomez & Rosen, 2001) concurred by adding that trust is the basis for effective delegation, two-level communication, giving and receiving feedback, and a sense of team spirit. The delegation and relinquishing of various responsibilities to subordinates improves the quality of the supervisor’s job because it enables the supervisor to have higher job visibility which leads to promotional opportunities. Further, the subordinates’ ability to be effective, reliable, and consistent leads to a high performance work team that helps the supervisor achieve his or her goals. This ultimately leads to higher overall job satisfaction.

Additionally, if a supervisor trusts subordinates more and believes that his or her subordinates treat the supervisor fairly (Bromiley & Cummings, 1993; McGregor, 1967), the supervisor has a more positive affect on his or her subordinates. In fact, researchers defined trust as the expectation that an exchange partner will not engage in opportunistic behaviour despite short-term incentives and uncertainty about long-term rewards (Bradach & Eccles, 1989). However, greater trust in another party, in terms of concern, goes beyond believing that the party will not be opportunistic. For example, Carnevale and Wechsler (1992) found that trust “involves faith or confidence in the intentions or actions of a person or a group, the expectation of ethical, fair, and non-threatening behaviour, and concerns for the rights of others” (p. 473). Further, Barber (1983) and Ouchi (1981) posited that one party will refrain from taking unfair advantage of another party and will be concerned about the party’s interests or the interests of the whole. In addition to being treated fairly, supervisors who feel this sense of affect of their subordinates ultimately feel more positive about their personal relationships at work, and have a greater overall job satisfaction for supervisors (Straiter, 2005). The results of Straiter's study supported the study's hypothesised relationship between supervisors' trust of their subordinates, and their job satisfaction. Previous studies have found that job satisfaction of supervisors suffered when reciprocal trust was lower between a supervisor and selected subordinates (Straiter, 2005). This study investigated the supervisor's trust based on judgements about all of the supervisor's subordinates. This finding suggests that if a supervisor can depend on his/her subordinates as being reliable and competent, the supervisor's time is freed up, and s/he is able to do his or her own job well.

Thus, prior research (Driscoll, 1978; Liou, 1995) could already be established that both interpersonal trust (subordinates' trust of their supervisors), and organisational trust led to job satisfaction. However, previous studies (Blau, 1964; Butler & Cantrell, 1984; Deutsch, 1958; Scott, 1980) examined the trust relationship between supervisors and subordinates from the viewpoint of the subordinate. Because these studies have failed to investigate trust from the perspective of the supervisor, Straiter (2005) investigated the effects of supervisors' trust of their subordinates and their organisation on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Using survey data collected from 117 district sales managers in one large pharmaceutical company, the study found a significant relationship between supervisors' trust of their subordinates, and supervisors' job satisfaction. Further, supervisors' trust of the organisation was found to have a greater effect on job satisfaction than that of supervisors' trust of their subordinates (Straiter, 2005).

2.10.4.8 The role of trust in teamwork

The introduction and practice of teamwork is associated with changes in the way employees interact with each other, i.e. a move towards collective effort, joint goal-sharing, and increased interdependency (Safizadeh, 1991). Sanow (2004) claims trust to be the foundation of real teamwork. Co-operative functioning and teamwork appear essential in almost all new generation organisations – the alternative seems to be anarchy and chaos, that might lead to rapid and risky change processes with high levels of uncertainty (Erdem, Ozen & Atsan, 2003). Therefore, trust looks like a key factor that strengthens effective co-operative behaviours, that in turn has a significant effect on change processes and associated risks (Shockley-Zalaback, Ellis & Winograd, 2000). The former understanding that organisations are made “trustworthy” through the creation and adoption of formal polices and rigid rule-sets (Grey & Garsten, 2001) is not necessarily transferable to modern organisations which demand a much more flexible framework in which to operate in, and empower employees. A climate or culture of trust which is built by the ongoing intensive relationships among the organisation’s employees is probably much more likely to provide the required levels of trust and flexibility (Erdem *et al*., 2003). Owen (1996) claims that where there is a lack of trust, or deficient levels of trust, there often are failings in communication, delegation, empowerment, and quality in the organisation.

Not unexpectedly, trust is thus seen as a key element of high performing teams (Katzenbach & Smith, 1993). Trust between team members has empirically been linked to the salient promotion of cooperative behaviour (Hay, 2002; Jones & George, 1998; Mayer *et al*., 1995; Shockley-Zalaback *et al.*, 2000), successful teamwork (Jones & George, 1998), and as a prerequisite for teamwork (Erdem, 2003; Erdem & Ozen, 2000).

According to Erdem (2003) is trust in teams, a function of the perceived abilities, integrity, and good-will of other team members as well as the team members’ own inclination to trust. It is therefore suggested that trust may not only be required between individual team members within a team, but also be imperative to relations between teams (Hay, 2002). Teams usually do not function in isolation. Consequently, teams will either develop a competitive or cooperative orientation towards other teams in the organisation (West, 1994). This serves to substantiate that the presence of trust between teams may enhance cooperative behaviour (Hay, 2002; Mechanic & Schlesinger, 1996).

Trust is also seen as fundamental to the success of teamwork at management level, since it is frequently required of teams to function with a degree of autonomy (Mechanic & Meyer, 2000) and freedom (Mechanic & Rosenthal, 1999; Procter & Mueller, 2000) to perform their task at hand.

Hay (2002) posits that despite the prevalent importance of trust to the practice of teamwork, there exists a paucity of empirical studies.

2.10.4.9 Trust, team performance, and team effectiveness

Working as a team is significantly different from working in a hierarchical relationship (Erdem *et al*., 2003). This is possibly attributed to the reason that team members mutually have to discover, adopt, or even adapt approaches to create cohesiveness in which deep, continuous, and reciprocated relationships sustain co-operative behaviours, even in the face of extreme pressures. If such relationships can be established and maintained, the result can be a level of performance which is synergetic in nature – thus, more than can be predicted by merely adding the competencies, skills, and abilities of the individual team members (Erdem *et al*., 2003).

It seems challenging to impose effective team dynamics and behaviours, since these depend on a number of factors which often only emerge later, as the team starts combining their efforts, and move towards a mature team (Erdem *et al*., 2003). For example, the "values" adopted by, and reflected within, the group, emerge only as the team members co-operate and interact (Sundstrom, De Meuse & Futrell, 1990). Trust can have the effect of accelerating the appropriate levels of interaction – it has been found that relationships that are based on trust, co-operative behaviours are much more likely (Jones & George, 1998). However, Erdem *et al*. (2003) caution that this can be taken to extremes – in some circumstances team members may have their primary allegiance to the team, rather than to the organisation.

Schindler and Thomas (1993) found that trust is based on evaluations of integrity, competence, commitment to one another, consistency, and openness regardless of whether the relationship is between oneself and a supervisor, a subordinate, or a peer. Thus, it can be said that trust is based on perceptions of prior performance or reputation. Subsequently, subordinates who are more competent, reliable, and responsible will most likely work together to increase performance of the work unit. This leads to a greater probability that the supervisor's work unit will perform better, and be more effective (Rousseau *et al*., 1998). Having trusted subordinates may lead to better performance reviews and rewards for the supervisors (Gambetta, 1988; Pennings & Woiceshyn, 1987; Seabright, Leventhal, & Fichman, 1992). Better performance and rewards are linked to higher levels of job satisfaction of the supervisor (Barnes, 1981; Friedlander, 1970; Gabarro, 1987; Leana, 1986).

Team performance (as a team, rather than as a task-competing entity) can be evaluated on basic criteria such as evidence of continuous problem solving, the continual search for alternative solutions, continuous improvement of quality of outputs, error and wastage rates, productivity improvement, and client/customer satisfaction (Erdem *et al*., 2003; Kirkman & Shapiro, 1997; Manz & Neck, 1997). This necessary high level of team-functioning and continuous goals, require intensive co-operation that is typically produced by trust (Erdem *et al*., 2003). Thus, trust becomes almost the “hygiene factor” (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959) for team performance – a necessary reinforcement – but not sufficient in itself. However, team performance will not improve simply because trust exists, nor will it always improve when trust is present within team relationships (Erdem *et al*., 2003). There are situations, for example, where an excess of trust can cause groupthink, or escalation of commitment, or a lack of questioning, i.e. creative criticism, innovative thinking, (Gibson *et al.,* 2006; Manz & Neck, 1997). However, trust is seen as a hygiene factor in that, in a collective effort that is not based on trust, team members will be unable to explain their ideas fully and sincerely, unable to display their actions intimately, and will refrain from helping others willingly (Sitkin & Roth, 1993; Jones & George, 1998). Consequently, the required synergy will not be generated, and the consequent performance less than the minimum (or desired) level of expected performance. To this point, Erdem *et al*. (2003) investigated the relationship between the level of trust between 148 members of 28 workteams across four different organisations and the performance of the teams involved, comparatively. They found that team members who do not have very strong perceptions of resource-sharing did not have very strong perceptions relating to “encouraging each other”. With regard to performance-related items, perceptions among respondents were generally positive, specifically, members of the first organisation had more homogeneous perceptions toward the different performance items. Interestingly, the team members from the third organisation had a very low regard to performance in terms of (in)completion of tasks in the scheduled time period. It was interpreted that teams did not consider "critical quality errors" to be a particular problem – though it was uncertain whether this could be ascribed to ill-formulated definitions of "critical" or due to the use of continuous quality improvement programme-initiatives. However, the major part of their analyses were in establishing any relationship between perceptions of trust and team performance.

But their findings did not show a consistent relationship – findings for each organisation were different. The first organisation has the strongest relationships between trust and performance (positive correlations were found in 23 of 28 situations) suggesting that team performance increases as trust increases. For the second organisation, positive correlations were found in 16 of 28 situations. In addition, in both these organisations, the relationship between critical errors of teams and specific trust items was inversely correlated – thus, as trust increased, critical quality errors decreased. Thus, increased trust among team members seemed to have increased team performance for these organisations (Erdem *et al*., 2003). Although there is a range of factors which determine team success in terms of high levels of performance (such as training, technology, and motivation) – trust can be regarded as a necessary underpinning of team performance (Erdem *et al*., 2003).

Likewise, the role trust plays in team effectiveness seems correlative. Buitendach and Stander (2004) investigated the extent to which interpersonal trust is related to team effectiveness. The results of their study indicated that there exists a significant correlation between trust among team members and the effectiveness of the team. Similarly, Cloete (1998) reports on his finding of successful trust relationships among team members, leading to higher levels of cooperation and support of organisational goals, increased productivity, the enhancement of team members' development potential, open communication, and honesty .

Mechanic (1996) claims that inter team trust is dynamic and fragile, therefore inter team trust and managerial trust display greater fragility, which could be more susceptible to changes in the organisation. Interestingly, however, Hay (2002) found in her study the opposite, i.e. team trust displayed greater resistance to organisational change/events over the period of her longitudinal study of 21 months.

The presence of trust in the researched organisation, seemed to have facilitated the change to teamworking (Hay, 2002).

2.10.5 Measures of trust

To date, a limited number of instruments have been used to study the psychometric properties of trust – many of them are however, grounded in personality theory (e.g. Rotter, 1967). Also, research in the area of trust appears to suffer from weak methodology (Büssing, 2002). This probably explains Kramer's (1996) call for more trust research that implements a conjunctive qualitative and/or quantitative design. Nonetheless, some of these measures, developed to assess trust in organisational settings will be discussed next.

2.10.5.1 Interpersonal Trust Scale (ITS)

Rotter (1967) developed an Interpersonal Trust Scale (ITS), to measure the propensity to trust, based on the definition of trust as the: "expectancy held by an individual or group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon" (p. 651). These definitions are however limited in scope, failing to address the relationship of trust with risk-taking, and failing to allow for the varying perceptions of trust based on structural relationships within the organisation. Notwithstanding, the ITS has been tested, and the results showed acceptable construct and discriminant validity for the scale (Rotter, 1967).

2.10.5.2 Cook and Wall's work and organisational trust measure

Cook and Wall (1980) developed a 12-item classification scale to be applied in a work setting to differentiate trust as two dimensional: (a) faith in the intentions of peers/colleagues and management, and (b) confidence in colleagues and management's respective actions. Cook and Wall (1980) developed their scale to specifically measure interpersonal trust – trust in management, and trust in co-workers. Six items measure trust in colleagues ($\alpha = .85$) and six items assess trust in management ($\alpha = .87$). However, the results of the factor analysis in their study showed that trust is not differentiated by the constructs of faith or confidence, but that: “the principal distinction within the trust scale between peers and management is functionally important; indeed they may be considered as separate measures” (Cook & Wall, 1980, p. 47).

2.10.5.3 The Conditions of Trust Inventory

The Conditions of Trust Inventory was developed by Butler (1991) to measure trustworthiness and interpersonal trust. The items for the Conditions of Trust Inventory were selected through a range of confirmatory factor analyses, and the resulting factor pattern supported the content and construct validity of the measure (Butler, 1991).

2.10.5.4 Organisational Trust Inventory (OTI)

Nyhan and Marlowe (1997) developed the *Organisational Trust Inventory* (OTI). This instrument allows for the measurement of an individual’s level of trust in the supervisor, and organisation as a whole. The OTI was developed in line with Luhmann’s (1979) definition of trust, stated earlier. The survey instrument was initially tested with 18 cadets in a campus Army ROTC unit. Although an ROTC unit is not the same as the work environment, like all military units, an ROTC unit places great emphasis on building trust between its commissioned officer faculty (cadre) and the cadets, and *esprit-de-corps* within the unit. The OTI consists of 12 items, eight items on the supervisor and four items on the organisation sub-scale. In their study, Nyhan and Marlowe obtained Cronbach’s alpha (reliability estimate) for their OTI of .96 (for both types of trust). As stated previously, Nyhan and Marlowe (1997) originally developed their scale to measure trust of supervisors and trust of the organisation.

Nyhan and Marlowe (1997) maintain that the OTI covers both (inter)personal trust (through the sub-scale supervisor) and systems (organisational) trust (through the sub-scale organisation). However, Büssing (2002) claims that the organisation sub-scale seems not like an adequate measure for systems trust, since on the whole the items are directed to aspects of personal trust in the organisation.

Bromiley and Cummings (1993) developed a short and long version of *their Organisational Trust Inventory* (OTI) that measures the level of trust between units in organisations or between organisations (OTI-Long Form/OTI-LF, and the OTI-Short Form/OTI-SF). Although the authors' instrument was shown to be reliable and properly validated, it measures the overall feeling of trust of a group within an organisation only. Consequently, the overall feeling of trust of a group of people could be skewed if one person within that group has an overwhelming positive or negative impact on the respondent.

Kramer and Tyler (1996, p. 319) demonstrated the OTI-SF to measure trust in organisations. According to Kramer and Tyler (1996, p. 319), the measurement of trust: “has been either anecdotal or by unvalidated survey measures” and their instrument provides “a properly validated measure of this important construct.” Kramer and Tyler (1996) proposed a multidimensional definition of trust (as mentioned in Chapter 1) for the development of the instrument. Consequently, Kramer and Tyler (1996) designed the survey items to reflect these dimensions of trust. The theory and measurement are based on trust as a belief and that trust should be assessed across three dimensions, namely: “trust as an affective state, as a cognition, and as intended behavior” (Kramer & Tyler, 1996, p. 305). The survey items for the OTI-LF have been designed to reflect these three dimensions. The OTI-SF comprises 12 questions, six focus on the affective dimension and six focus on the cognitive dimension.

2.10.5.5 Workplace Trust Survey (WTS)

In an attempt to address trust in co-workers, the manager, and the organisation, Ferres (2001) extended Cook and Wall's (1980) investigations into the correlates of peer trust. Similar to Cook and Wall's findings, the results found a link between trust at the co-worker level and organisational commitment. The results suggested that co-worker trust also facilitates commitment and a desire to stay in a job. The results of Ferres’s instrument also offer further empirical evidence of Cohen and Prusak’s (2000) idea that co-worker trust is genuinely linked to the production of social capital within organisations. The dispositional trust sub-scale of WTS had a significant influence on the trust factor scores, which advocates the inclusion of a dispositional measure when surveying trust in organisations.

While some relationships were stronger than others, findings demonstrated that higher trust at each organisational level (Trust in Organisation, Trust in Immediate Manager, Trust in Co-workers) was positively related to perceptions of support, transformational leadership and affective commitment. Respondents also reported lowered intention to leave when trust was evident. These findings lend support to the literature identifying transformational leadership (e.g. Dirks & Ferrin, 2002) and perceived support (e.g. Tan & Tan, 2000) as antecedents of trust, and turnover intention and affective commitment as probable consequences (e.g. Albrecht & Travaglione, 2003). These findings consequently authenticated the convergent validity of the WTS factors, which correlated as expected with theoretically relevant variables (Ferres, Van Wyk, Travaglione & Boshoff, 2004).

Interesting findings concerning WTS Trust in Co-worker were also evidenced in the study. The correlations between Trust in Co-worker, POS, turnover intention, and affective commitment were similar to those found in studies detailing relationships with "trust in management" or "trust in organisation" (Tan & Tan, 2000; Whitener, 2001; Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, Werner, 1998; Mishra & Morrissey, 1990; Albrecht & Travaglione, 2003; Laschinger, *et al*., 2000).

Since the WTS was used in the present study, further details on the instrument are reported on in Chapter 3.

2.10.5.6 Subordinates' felt trustworthiness and leader trustworthiness measures

These scales were developed by Schoorman, Mayer and Davis (1996) and published by Mayer and Davis (1999) to measure three dimensions of trustworthiness: ability, benevolence, and integrity, constituting a total of 17 items. In their study on the relationship between subordinates' felt trustworthiness and their work attitudes and behaviours, Lester and Brower (2003) combined these dimensions into single scales of subordinates' felt trustworthiness and leader trustworthiness. In order to do this they adapted the Schoorman *et al*. (1996) items to reflect who the focal point of the question was – supervisor or subordinate – and then they asked employees to complete the scales twice; once asking about their perceptions of their supervisor's trustworthiness (leader trustworthiness) and in the second section asking about their perceptions of their supervisor's estimate of the subordinate's trustworthiness (felt trustworthiness).

Though these trustworthiness scales have been used separately in previous research; researchers have found the ability, benevolence and integrity scales to be highly correlated in previous studies (e.g. Davis, Schoorman, Mayer & Tan (2000); Mayer & Davis, 1999). Furthermore, Mayer and Davis (1999) found the separate dimensions of trustworthiness to be distinctive in a Confirmatory Factor Analysis, though highly correlated. In Lester and Brower’s (2003) study, the three constructs, i.e. ability, benevolence, and integrity, were highly positively correlated ($r >.75$ in all cases). A factor analysis of these scales revealed three eigenvalues greater than one, thus three factors were found. However, all the items loaded strongly on the first factor (all factor loadings >.50). By also conducting a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) on all 17 items (on the measures of felt trustworthiness and leader trustworthiness) the parsimony fit indices showed that both the single factor and three-factor solutions were acceptable with both measures. The three factor solution accepted by Mayer and his colleagues (Davis *et al*., 2000; Mayer *et al*., 1995; Mayer & Davis, 1999) shows a slightly better fit for the felt trustworthiness measure.

Other instruments reviewed by the present researcher failed to report sufficient psychometric property and validity testing data (e.g. Hart, Capps, Cangemi & Caillouet, 1986; Larzelere & Huston, 1980).

2.11 Commitment theory

2.11.1 Introduction

Despite the growing importance of the human aspect in changing and modern organisations, past research tended to apply a systems, or macro approach, paying little attention to human attitudes or behaviours (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Stanley, Meyer & Topolnytsky, 2005). One such human aspect, emphasised by previous research, is the study of human attitudes towards global changes, particularly employee commitment (Coetsee, 1999; Connor & Patterson, 1982; Umble & Umble, 2002; Yardley, 2002). Employee commitment is often regarded as the key for successful change implementation initiatives (Kotter & Schlesinger, 1979; Piderit, 2000).

Generally speaking, the commitment and support literatures have both been grounded in social exchange theory (cf Cropanzano, Rupp, Mohler & Schminke, 2001). Social exchange theory has been considered a cornerstone for research on commitment (e.g. Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000) and support (e.g. Shore & Shore, 1995). However, for individuals to engage in social exchanges, they need to be able to ascertain who is supporting them (e.g. discern organisational support from team support) and to separate their commitment to a social entity from a social entity's support for them. Social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity propose that when one person or entity does a favour for another, the recipient of the favour is obliged to reciprocate (Blau, 1964). The norm of reciprocity has a "division of labour" component that states that reciprocation will be made in terms of goods and services that are of value to the object of the reciprocation and is within the capability of the donor to give (Gouldner, 1960). More specifically, when individuals perceive that organisations or teams care about their well-being, then they are inclined to reciprocate by putting forth greater effort on its behalf. Furthermore, those who perceive such supportive consideration are likely to infer that such behaviours and attitudes represent underlying values of the entity and they then internalise them.

The topic of commitment in organisation psychology has received much attention. Bennet (2000) notes that commitment has evolved into a complex concept that can serve as the summary index of work-related experiences, and as a predictor of work behaviours and behavioural intentions. Morrow and McElroy (1993; in Meyer & Allen, 1997, p. 138) note that: "organisational commitment is the most maturely developed of the work commitment family of constructs". There, however, tends to be more agreement about the outcomes of commitment than of the operational definition of the construct. Analysts typically describe a committed employee as one who tenaciously stays with the organisation, who attends work regularly (puts in less inauthentic sick leave), gives a full day's work (or more), protects company assets, and shares company goals (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

At present the understanding of the relationship between various facets of organisational commitment, and their relationship to other variables (e.g. job performance), remains unclear. Iles, Mabey and Robertson (1990) argue that different types of commitment have different relationships to organisational behaviour, and that research has consistently demonstrated that affective, continuance and normative commitment are conceptually and empirically distinct. Iles Forster and Tinline (1996, p. 19) argue that:

> Work on organizational commitment has been criticised for adopting a too simplistic model of commitment. On the one hand, there is a need to differentiate among the various facets or targets of commitment … in addition, it also makes more sense to speak of organizational commitments … Commitment itself is a more complex construct than it first appears.

However, the concept's popularity for researchers has not diminished; on the contrary, it is increasing (Iles *et al*., 1996). This popularity may be due to the assumed impact organisational commitment (OC) has on employees, and organisational performance. About 40 years ago, Lawrence's (1958, cited in Randall, 1987, p. 208) study provoked the necessity and rationale for research in this area when he asserted: "Ideally, we would want one sentiment to be dominant in all employees from top to bottom, namely a complete loyalty to the organizational purpose".

2.11.2 Early conceptualisations of commitment

Research on commitment can be traced to the middle of the previous century, when various researchers indirectly referred to the modern concept of commitment while focusing on organisational or bureaucratic effectiveness (Swailes, 2002). The importance of employee commitment, and its relatedness to the organisation, was introduced during the 1960s (Meyer, Allen & Topolnytsky, 1998). During this period, *organisational commitment* (OC) emerged as a distinct construct, and soon became the most developed focus of employee workplace commitment with regards to theory and research (Meyer *et al*., 1998; Swailes, 2002).

Regarding OC there seems to be a few different approaches from different disciplines (cf Morrow, 1983; Moser, 1996). The earliest attempts to conceptualise commitment were those by Etzioni (1961), Kanter (1968), and Salancik (1977). All three seem to rely on two main sources of commitment: the instrumental and affective source. Where affective commitment focuses on attachment to the organisation, and additional effort-inputs beyond the call of (required) duty, instrumental commitment highlights the ideas of exchange and continuance with the organisation. Regarding the latter aspect, Penley and Gould (1988, p. 44) imply the following: “An employee exchanges his or her contributions for the inducement provided by the organization [and that the extent of instrumental commitment depends on the] degree to which an employee’s intention to behave are consistent with the organization’s behavioural demands”.

It was only during the 1970s that empirical research on OC gained momentum, and culminated to a specific definition and measurement, i.e. the *Organisational Commitment Questionnaire* (OCQ), developed by Porter *et al*. (1974). OC, as measured by the OCQ, was defined as an employee’s acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation, and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation (Porter *et al*., 1974). Amongst others, Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979), found the OCQ both a valid and reliable scale to measure OC – consequently it became a widely used definition and measuring instrument of OC.

In similar light, Randall (1987) makes a distinction between three different levels of commitment: (1) high level, (2) medium level, and (3) low level commitment. High level commitment refers to a strong belief in the organisation’s set goals and values. Medium level commitment entails an eagerness to exercise considerable and extensive effort on behalf of the organisation. Lastly, low level commitment encompasses the prevailing aspiration to continue to function as an organisational member, and as part of a given team/unit. According to Randall (1987), the commitment literature is mainly based on the idea that high levels of commitment are good.

Thus, during the 1970 – 1980 periods, the dominant research method that emerged was empirical, specifically quantitative in nature. OC was considered as a salient predictor of workplace behaviour, with equally important consequences to work-related variables, such as absenteeism, employee turnover, and job satisfaction (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990 Mowday *et al*., 1982), as well as non-work-related variables like non-work satisfaction (Romzek, 1989). In this regard, Begley and Czajka (1993) found that OC moderates employee stress, job satisfaction, and intention to quit, during organisational change and turmoil.

2.11.3 Empirical development: First milestone in commitment research

According to Swailes (2002) this empirical development is viewed as a first milestone in commitment research, as it lend a new dimension to the construct both methodologically (i.e. employing quantitative methods), and conceptually (i.e. defining OC and its antecedents, correlates, and consequences). However, during this time OC was still largely regarded as a one-dimensional construct – mainly defined as an employee's identification and involvement with an organisation (Mowday, 1999), with little consensus concerning its underlying dimensionality (Meyer *et al*., 1998).

This narrow definition of the OC construct changed during the 1980s and early 1990s, when various frameworks of multidimentional OC emerged. Despite other multidimensional definitions of commitment, two frameworks dominated and generated most research (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Firstly, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) developed a three-dimensional framework of *compliance, identification* and *internalisation organisational commitment*. A scale to measure these dimensions was developed and widely used by researchers.

Secondly, Allen and Meyer (1990) developed another framework of OC. This framework regards OC three-dimensional, comprising *affective, normative* and *continuance commitment*. In their view, *affective* OC refers to the emotional bond of the employee to the organisation. *Normative* OC refers to the obligation felt by an employee to remain a member of an organisation. Finally, *continuance* OC is the concern of employees with regard to the perceived costs associated with leaving the organisation. This last type of commitment can be divided further into two separate, but highly correlated sub-scales concerned with the costs of leaving the organisation namely: p*ersonal sacrifice* and l*ack of alternatives* (Meyer, Allen & Gellatly, 1990). These three commitments together form the commitment profile of an employee. A comprehensive review of studies covering this area is beyond the scope of this thesis, but factor analyses have generally shown that the three dimensions were distinguishable, yet related (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Dunham, Grube & Castaneda, 1994; Hackett, Bycio & Hausdorf, 1994; Irving, Coleman & Cooper, 1997). A recent meta-analysis of the OC construct generally confirms past research on the construct and in particular on its three-dimensional structure (Meyer *et al*., 2002).

Meyer and Allen (1997) argued that, despite differences across frameworks of *Organisational Commitment*, there are also important similarities, and that they share the core essence of commitment. One fundamental similarity is that the different dimensions are merely different mind-sets of how an individual is compelled towards an entity (e.g. organisation, or union) or a course of action (e.g. organisational goals). Furthermore, most models also show an emotional bond with the organisation as one of the dimensions (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). According to Mowday (1999), there is also an overlap between Porter *et al*.'s (1974) definition of commitment and the above multidimensional frameworks. O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) internalisation commitment and Meyer and Allan's (1991 affective commitment are seen as the same as Porter's commitment (Dunham *et al*., 1994), as measured by the OCQ. Meyer and Herscovitch further argued that another similarity shared by different frameworks of commitment is the assumption that commitment binds and individual to an organisation and that all definitions reflect an affective, cost concerned and moral component. According to Meyer and Allen, the lack of consensus about the definition of commitment helped to establish commitment as a multidimensional construct and showed that the different dimensions are just different labels given to similar mind-sets underlying commitment.

2.11.4 One-dimensional to multi-dimensional definition shift: Second milestone in commitment research

The shift from a one-dimensional definition to a multi-dimensional one can be seen as a second significant milestone in commitment research. It is today widely accepted that OC can take multiple dimensions and that these dimensions have different antecedents and consequences (Mowday, 1999; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Various studies have assessed the varying consequences of the dimensions on job performance (Meyer *et al*., 1989; Randall, Fedor & Longenecker, 1990; Wasti, 2005), employee turnover, absenteeism (Somers, 1995), and intentions to quit (Jaros, 1997).

Other studies found that hypothesised antecendents, such as employee stock ownerships relate differently to the three OC dimensions (Culpepper, Gamble & Blubaugh, 2004). Meta-analytic evidence also suggests that this construct predicts work outcomes, like job attitudes, turnover intentions, and organisational citizenship behaviours (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Stanley, Meyer, Topolnytsky & Herscovitch, 1999). Negative correlations between organisational commitment and intention to leave the organisation (e.g. Bishop *et al*., 2000; Meyer & Allen, 1997) have been found. These correlations seem strongest when the commitment is affective. The theory behind this relationship is that the employees experience affective commitment for the company when they perceive the company provides support to them (Bishop *et al*., 2000). These and other antecedents are elaborated on in Section 2.12.1.

To date, the approaches of Etzioni (1961) and Kanter (1968) seem to dominate much of the empirical OC research – probably because suitable commitment scales were developed by Penley and Gould (1988) and Meyer and Allen (1991) – focusing on the general, main approaches – instrumental and affective. Following Etzioni's (1961) thinking, Penley and Gould (1988) operationalised three facets of commitment: moral, calculative, and alienative commitment. Moral and alienative commitment represent the affective type of commitment, while calculative commitment is representative of the instrumental type. Moral commitment is generally characterised by the acceptance of, and identification with organisational goals. Calculative commitment is based on the employee's perception of incentives that match his/her contributions. Alienative commitment is a negative organisational attachment (or disengagement) characterised by low intensity of intensions to meet demands, and still remaining (or sticking) to the organisation, despite the lack of rewards for efforts – i.e. lack of control such as a lack of generating alternatives (Penley & Gould, 1988).

2.11.5 Multiple foci of commitment: Third milestone in commitment reesearch

Apart from the debate about the underlying dimensionality of commitment, another issue that was criticised was the dominance of OC as the only focus of commitment. It was pointed out that other foci were equally important in predicting behaviours (Becker, 1992; Becker & Billings, 1993; Becker, Billings, Eveleth & Gilbert, 1996; Mueller, Wallace & Prince, 1992; Reichers, 1985, 1986; Swailes, 2004). Such foci of commitment include the work itself, the union, or the profession (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993; Morrow, 1983). Other foci include top management, co-workers, supervisors, and customers (Gregersen, 1993), but OC was still seen as the key mediating focus (Hunt & Morgan, 1994) and thus attracted the main attention of research (Meyer *et al*., 2002; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

It is widely recognised today that employees can be committed towards multiple foci at the workplace (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). The move towards multiple foci (Swailes, 2002), and in particular toward a general multi-dimensional model of commitment, constitutes a third significant milestone in commitment research. The implication is that various foci of commitment can be used to predict change related behaviours. As such, organisational change often becomes a focus of commitment.

2.11.6 Models of organisational commitment

Though the author has already briefly mentioned Meyer and Allen's (1991, 1997) Three Component Model of commitment, it is worth mentioning how this model was developed. Meyer and Allen's (1997, p. 13) classification system "was derived from an effort to identify themes or commonalities in existing definitions of commitment". Meyer and Allen's model thus represents an overview of the many different perspectives on commitment. A major criticism the current researcher has of the Three Component Model, is that it does not provide an underlying theoretical explanation of how and why commitment occurs. An integral part of any theoretical model should constitute an explanation of how something works, and should therefore provide more than just the measure of the extent of the construct (even if the measure is valid and reliable) (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Devellis, 1991; Epstein, 1973; Gibb, 1964; Griffin, 1967; Kozlowski & Klein, 2000; Lewin, 1951; Morgeson & Hofmann, 1999).

In the following section a "classic" theory of commitment developed by Hofmeyr (1989) is presented. Unlike most theories and models of organisational commitment, Hofmeyr's model was not developed to explain commitment within the organisational context, but more to explain religious commitment. Subsequently, Hofmeyr's model has been used to explain and measure commitment to political parties, social issues, organisations, and certain brands.

2.11.6.1 Hofmeyr's general theory of commitment

Hofmeyr's theory of commitment is profoundly influenced by his studies within religion and politics. Hofmeyr raised the question of how a theory developed to explain why people remain committed to religious beliefs can also have value in the organisational context. Hofmeyr (1989, p. 3) states that religion: "teaches the extent to which human behaviour is driven by the attempt to satisfy needs and realise values". Hofmeyr states further that this should be considered within the context of the environment, meaning that an individual behaves in such a way to optimally satisfy their needs and values (Hofmeyr calls this the *needs-value fit*). In the organisational context, this is the extent to which any choice satisfies all the goals, motivations, needs, and values a person has regarding that choice. Traditional employee surveys measure the needs-value fit as overall job satisfaction.

By and large, traditional employee satisfaction measures equate an improvement in satisfaction, and considers its relation to an increase in commitment or engagement. There is also the assumption of linearity that leads to the assumption that changes in commitment need to be gradual, in order to satisfy the first assumption of linearity. Studies of religious conversation have differentiated between gradual and sudden conversion. Though it is unsure whether this distinction has been made within organisational commitment, the argument could be transferable. That is, some employees may gradually reduce their commitment, while others are committed up to some point when they make a sudden transition in their level of commitment. It seems that few studies have integrated the concept of gradual and sudden conversion. For this reason Hofmeyr turned to chaos theory in order to integrate gradual and sudden conversion. In essence, chaos theory allows for small changes in one dimension to make a big change in another. For example, a small change in an employee's level of satisfaction can possibly account for a substantial change in their commitment level. There probably need to be more than two dimensions, to cause such a transition or leap.

Hofmeyer (1986) postulates that "religious seriousness" is another force that impacts on commitment. He states that it is the more religiously inclined people who are susceptible to sudden conversion. Adler and Hammet (cited in Hofmeyr, 1990) argue that the desire of security causes people to resist change, and thus be susceptible to sudden conversion. Therefore, it is the extent to which an individual is invested in the decision to follow a specific cause of action, or follow a set of beliefs and values that causes a leap in commitment (Hofmeyr, 1990).

Thus, when an individual has invested substantially in a decision s/he will attempt to maintain the status quo as long as possible, even to the point where their needs and values are not being met. Escalating stress will move the individual closer to a point of breakdown and restructuring. Where eventually, as Sarbin and Adler (1970; in Hofmeyr, 1990) note, even the smallest event can trigger dramatic changes. Than commitment will be broken and the individual turns to another organisation. For those individuals who are not very invested, a failure of the organisation to satisfy needs and values will result in the individual drifting away from the organisation (at least in terms of their attachment to the organisation).

Thus, a change in the extent to which the employee's needs are met, and the extent to which the decision is important to the employee, will determine the extent to which the individual is committed to the organisation. Hofmeyr concedes (1990) that at this point the theory is incomplete as it does not take into account the environment and existence of alternatives to the current situation. Thus, employees may find that their current needs and values are being satisfied until s/he is shown an alternative, which may undermine his or her sense of satisfaction. In turn this undermine his or her commitment to the organisation. Another dimension in Hofmeyr's theory is the extent of uncertainty that develops as the employee shifts emotionally towards, and away from the current choice. This state of ambivalence arises when the individual feels that both his or her current choice and the alternative are equally attractive.

This summarises Hofmeyr's general theory of commitment. The theory is best explained in the context of relationships and, in Meyer and Allen's terminology, measures affective and moral commitment – the emotional attachment individuals have towards people, groups and things. In the organisational context, employees can be committed to the work they do, or to the company they work for, or both. This notion that people can be differently committed to multiple entities (the work they do, their manager, work group, the organisation they work for, the organisation's vision) has also been put forward by Meyer and Allen (1997) who make it clear that commitment can be directed at various entities.

2.11.6.2 Meyer and Herscovitch's general model of commitment

In 2001, Meyer and Herscovitch suggested a general model for studying commitment at the workplace by emphasising that commitment should have a core framework. This general model is an expansion of Meyer and Allen's (1991) model of OC and comprises three dimensions that can be directed at multiple foci at the workplace. In this model, commitment is defined as a binding force, influenced by different mind-sets (perceived costs, desire and obligation), which shape behaviour. Different bases underlie and influence these mind-sets (e.g. a lack of alternatives, personal characteristics, and personal involvement). The shaped behaviour is then directed at a target (e.g. an entity or a course of action). Meyer and Herscovitch classified these behaviours as either focal or discretionary behaviours towards a target. With regard to the former these refer to an employee's course of action affected by his or her commitment. With regard to the latter, these refer to an employee's behaviour not specified in terms of commitment, but affected by the discretion of the employee, such as showing extra effort. This behaviour can then be directed at an explicit or implied target. This target can be an entity (e.g. and organisation), or an intended outcome of a course of action, such as an organisational change initiative. Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) note that the best predictors of behaviour tend to be target-related. For example, in situations of competing commitments (Kegan &

Lahey, 2001; Reichers, 1986), it can be more effective to measure multiple commitments to predict behaviour.

To summarise what has been said thus far, it can be stated that broadly speaking, since Lawrence's (1958) study, four main approaches have emerged for conceptualising and exploring OC (Iles *et al.,* 1996):

The attitudinal approach:

This is the most famous approach for conceptualising OC. It was initiated by Porter *et al*. (1974). According to this approach, Porter *et al*. (1974, p. 27) defined OC as: "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization".

The behavioural approach:

This approach emphasises the view that employee investments (e.g. time, friendships, pension) in the organisation bind him/her to be loyal to their organisation. Kanter (1968, p. 504) defined OC from this point of view as: "profit associated with continued participation and a 'cost' associated with leaving".

The normative approach:

According to this approach, congruency between employee goals and values and organisational aims make him or her feel obligated to their organisation. From this conceptual background, Wiener defined OC as "the totality of internalised normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests" (Wiener, 1982, p. 421).

The multi-dimensional approach

This is the most recent approach to conceptualising OC. It assumes that OC does not develop simply through emotional attachment, perceived costs or moral obligation, but through the interplay of all these three components. Some valuable studies have contributed to the birth of this new conceptualisation. Kelman (1958) put forward the basic principles underlying this approach in his study entitled: "Compliance, identification, and internalisation: three processes of attitudinal change". According to Kelman (1958, p. 53): "the underlying process in which an individual engages when he adopts induced behaviour may be different, even though the resulting overt behaviour may appear the same". Meyer and Allen (1984) adopted Becker's (1960) side-bet theory to introduce the concept of continuance commitment alongside the concept of affective commitment that was dominating commitment studies.

Reichers (1985) offered three different OC definitions, based on side-bets, attributions, and individual/organisational goal congruence. She argued that researchers should ignore the global view of OC and focus on specific commitments to various entities within the organisation. O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) also called for consideration of OC as a multidimensional construct. They brought Kelman's (1958) three processes approach again to the forefront by adopting it in their study as a basis for conceptualising OC. Allen and Meyer (1990) expanded their set of OC dimensions offered in 1984 to include normative commitment as a third dimension of OC. Allen and Meyer (1990, p. 4) contend that: "the net sum of a person's commitment to the organization, therefore, reflects each of these separable psychological states [affective attachment, perceived costs and obligation]". Since then the multidimensional approach has increasingly been gaining support. Many researchers (e.g. Allen & Meyer, 1996; Benkhoff, 1997; Brown, 1996; Jaros, 1997) suggest that it could bring an end to the disappointing, and inconsistent results often reported for OC research.

Of these four main approaches, the two major approaches to studying commitment in research, (as mentioned in Chapter 1) appear to be the attitudinal and behavioural approaches (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Reichers, 1985).

2.11.7 Summative concerns of the one-dimensional versus multi-dimensional views of commitment

Bishop *et al*. (2005) postulate that research on employee commitment has produced two distinct and growing literature streams. The most recent of these takes the perspective that employees have perceptions regarding commitment they believe their employing organisations have for them, referred to as perceived organisational support (POS) (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986). Even though POS and OC are conceptually independent, researchers were concerned as to whether they were empirically distinguishable (Bishop *et al*., 2005). Fortunately, subsequent work supported the notion that the commitment individuals have toward their organisation is distinct from the support they perceive their organisation offers them (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Shore & Tetrick, 1991) – implying, when it comes to the level of the organisation, employees can distinguish the direction of the commitment, and available instruments are able to detect this discernment (Bishop *et al*., 2005). The second perspective, conceptualised by Reichers (1985) and empirically supported by Becker (1992), views employee commitment as a multiple foci phenomenon. Both Reichers and Becker argue that there are a number of foci, or entities, upon which employees may bestow their commitment (e.g. company, department, union, or team). Additionally, different levels of commitment held for the various foci are independent within individuals (Becker & Billings, 1993).

The criticism regarding studies applying a one-dimensional measure, for instance only affective commitment (e.g. Iverson, 1996; Lau & Woodman, 1995; Vakola & Nikolaou, 2005), of OC is twofold. Firstly, by measuring only one dimension of this variable, the other dimensions are neglected. Research in the area of commitment has shown that these dimensions have varying behavioural consequences (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin & Jackson, 1989; Wasti, 2005). Secondly, it can be argued that, for instance, the underlying concept of the OCQ is outdated, as it had been developed during the early 1970s within a different work setting and job market. Compared to the 1990s, and the 21st century, the 1970s were characterised by greater job security and little change, thus casting doubt on whether the OCQ can still be relevant to the modern workplace (Swailes, 2002).

Studies applying a multi-dimensional definition of OC in relation to *attitudinal organisational change* (Swailes, 2004; Yousef, 2000a, 2000b) can be criticised, for applying the OC focus only. Recent developments in commitment research indicate that predictions of employee behaviour can be improved by using a target specific commitment focus, and not only on OC focus (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). For example, a shift in focus from OC to TC (team commitment), by means of changing the referent or context. Another weakness concerns the relevance of OC in relation to the recent drastic changes taking place in the workplace. Due to waves of redundancies and downsizing processes during the past 10 years, Baruch (1998) states that, overall, OC is on the decline. Kontraduk, Hausdorf, Korabik and Rosin (2004) found that increased career mobility associated with recent changes in the workplace could also have a negative impact on OC. Organisational change can also have an adverse impact on OC and lead to the dissolution of internalised commitment, and an increase in compliance commitment (Bennett & Durkin, 2000). Other researchers found a significant decline in employee loyalty during the 1990s (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999). This has made it necessary to measure the commitment of employees not only to the organisation, but also to organisational change and other targets (such as a focus on team context, team or organisational goals).

2.11.8 Recent views on commitment

2.11.8.1 Reward-based commitment and trust-based commitment

Recent studies in commitment brought new notions to the fore. In a study of the nature of managerial commitment to strategic change, based on the data gathering of 25 in-depth interviews with: five top or owner-managers, five upper-level, and 15 middle managers. Lämsä and Savolainen (2000) synthesised the nature of managerial commitment in two dimensions: reward-based, and trust-based commitment. Both dimensions and elements affecting their formation are highlighted as follows. *Reward-based commitment* refers to the advantages which managers perceive they can gain by committing (Lämsä & Savolainen, 2000, p. 300). The elements that underlie reward-based commitment formation include the following aspects: economic advantages, status and social benefits, and interesting content of a task. They are material, social, or psychological in nature. If managers evaluate that they need some of them and the situation of change satisfies the need, they seem to prefer committing to change than to quitting (Lämsä & Savolainen, 2000). Consequently, trying to control the elements in an organisation may influence this type of commitment in practice.

Trust-based commitment refers to the perspective of other than self in commitment formation (Lämsä & Savolainen, 2000, p. 300). Instead of the intent to gain personal benefits, trust-based commitment is created through emotional and value-laden bonds between a manager and change. The meaning of commitment is such that managers commit to change because they think it is valuable and emotionally important as such. It is conceivable that the elements of emotionality and morality of commitment are probably embedded within trust (Lämsä & Savolainen, 2000). The elements that underlie trust-based commitment formation include: a feeling of being competent, a feeling of safety and caring, a sense of autonomy and empowerment, consistency and fairness in social relationships, especially with peers and supervisors, congruence in the values of a manager and the intent of change (Lämsä & Savolainen, 2000). As a whole, trust-based commitment formation implies managers' reliance on other persons, especially peers or supervisors, good intent of change, and fairness in a change process. The elements behind trust-based commitment seem to have an influence on the sense of being trustworthy among managers. This, in turn, creates trustful attachment to change. Thus, the creation of open communicative and collaborative processes between partners involved in change seems to be important (Lämsä & Savolainen, 2000).

2.11.8.2 Rational (cognitive) commitment and emotional (affective) commitment

Buchanan (2004) states that employee engagement – the degree to which employees commit to something or someone in their organisation – influences performance and retention. According to a study conducted by the Corporate Leadership Council (CLC), which surveyed more than 50,000 employees in 59 organisations worldwide, increased commitment can lead to a 57% improvement in discretionary effort – an employee's willingness to exceed their duty's call. Greater effort (an average) produces a 20% individual performance, ad an 87% reduction in the intention to quit. According to Buchanan (2004) the CLC divides engagement into two categories or types: rational commitment, and emotional commitment.

Rational (cognitive) commitment is the result of a job serving an employee’s financial, developmental, or professional self-interest. While emotional (affective) commitment, arises when employees value, enjoy, and believe in what they do. Buchanan (2004) claims, that according to the CLC’s findings, emotional commitment has four times the power to affect performance as its more pragmatic counterpart, rational commitment. The CLC report on 11% of the workforce, called “true believers” by the CLC, exhibited very high levels of both types of commitment, conversely another 13% revealed extremely little. Employees on the declined end of the Bell curve were four times more likely to leave the organisation than average committed employees. This group was labeled “the disaffected” by the CLC. The remaining 75% were “moderates”, who generally demonstrated a strong level of commitment to one person or aspect of their jobs, who could either tolerate or not the others. These moderates neither shirked responsibility, nor strived for achievement. Their intent to quit is variable (Buchanan, 2004).

2.12 Team commitment

Research shows commitment has a positive effect on productivity, turnover, and employees’ willingness to help co-workers (Bishop & Scott, 1997). But downsizing, remuneration-attrition, and productivity demands of recent years have reduced this commitment. While commitment has been declining, the use of work teams has been on the rise (Bishop & Scott, 1997). Based on these (and the above) concerns, it therefore seems appropriate to address team commitment, instead of organisational commitment only, as a seemingly increasing field of research interest.

Groups that turn out to be actual teams, are persistently determined by their presentation and results (Johnson & Johnson, 2006). Thus, it is when this focal point on performance is demonstrated by the team, that the team members’ commitment is put together. Johnson and Johnson (2003, 2005) argue that shared commitment in the team is the fundamental nature underlying the team, and the consequent success which is to be achieved by the team. Within the realm of team commitment, the members develop into an influential component of cooperative performance, exclusive of their performance as individuals (Johnson & Johnson, 2006). If persuasive common goals do not serve as a significant mechanism of performance in a team, the team might fall at a distance of each of the individual members, and the goals will be unaccomplished (Johnson & Johnson, 2003). Teams consequently develop direction, trust, and commitment in the course of the aforementioned direction and mechanism. The composition of reason and precise goals are however, unnecessary in order to achieve team performance (Johnson & Johnson, 2006).

Consistent with this thinking, Bishop *et al*. (2005) argue that in modern team-based organisations, it seems likely that workplace commitments vary along two dimensions/entities: (1) foci (organisation and/or team), and (2) the direction (from or to the employee) on which they could confer their commitment.

Sound and meaningful research on employee commitments is complicated by the idea that people can experience commitment to a number of entities in the workplace in addition to the organisation (Baruch, 1998; Becker, 1992; Reichers, 1985). To this end, Bishop *et al*. (2005) reason that organisations are groups of groups, meaning, organisations are composed of smaller groups or work teams. This implies that the feelings one has toward one's co-workers may or may not parallel one's feelings toward one's employer/the organisation. Therefore, according to Bishop *et al*. (2005) it is important to separate the commitment that one has for the organisation from the commitment that one has for his/her teammates and toward his/her team. In this regard, research to date is promising. It seems that individuals can separate organisational commitment from their commitment to work groups (Becker, 1992) and work teams (Bishop & Scott, 2000). Based on this reason, and Baruch (1998) and Kontraduk *et al*.'s (2004) claims that OC is increasingly on the decline, it was decided to include specifically team, and not organisational commitment, in the present study.

In the next section antecedents to, and correlates of, to commitment will be looked at.

2.12.1 Antecedents, correlates, and outcomes of (team) commitment

Due to a lack of one universally accepted conceptual definition of organisational commitment (identified in Chapter 1 and elaborated on in this chapter), and as O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) point out, previous research has often confused antecedents with consequences of commitment. Thus, the basis for psychological attachment to an organisation has not adequately been identified in many studies. For example, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) cite the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), in which commitment is measured as a combination of belief in an organisation's goals and values, a willingness to exert considerable effort, and a desire to maintain organisational membership (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979). They note that the first component of the OCQ is focused on internalisation as the psychological basis for attachment. However, the second and third measures are the likely consequences rather than the antecedents of organisational commitment.

Nonetheless, literature dealing with commitment identifies a number of antecedents to commitment in the workplace (specifically organisational commitment) that are also related to employees’ tasks and roles and relationships between and among employees and their supervision (Mowday *et al*., 1982). Steers (1977) grouped antecedents of organisational commitment into three categories: (1) personal characteristics, (2) job-related factors, and (3) work experience. Research conducted by Bishop and Scott (1996) suggest that it may be possible to mediate employees’ level of commitment by focusing on specific antecedent variables like: (a) task interdependence, (b) interceding role conflict, (c) resource-related role conflict, (d) satisfaction with leadership, and (e) satisfaction with co-workers. Organisational as well as team commitment research suggest that, in general, task interdependence (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Morris & Steers, 1980); satisfaction with leadership (Brief & Aldag, 1980; Nijhof, De Jong, & Beukhof, 1998); and satisfaction with co-workers (Brief & Aldag, 1980) have positive influences on organisational and team commitment while role conflict variables influence it negatively (Bishop & Scott, 1996; Morris & Koch, 1979).

Doherty (1998) summarises this scenario by discerning between compliant and commitment environments. In compliant environments, employees are told what to do. Although they might be empowered to perform their jobs, the goals and objectives come from upper-management. In commitment environments, employees are involved in determining the strategies, directions, and tasks needed to achieve the organisation's objectives. In this regard, Doherty (1998) contends that the leader’s style plays a vital role in determining which kind of environment will be established.

Outcomes of commitment

There is more agreement on the potential outcomes of OC. In general, commitment should lead to improved relationships and performance. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) identify job performance, perception of alternatives, intention to leave, and turnover as outcomes influenced by OC. Many OC studies focus on intent to leave and turnover as the primary outcomes (e.g. Whitener & Walz 1993; Jaros *et al*. 1993). All of these proposed outcomes are important to organisations.

Antecedents of commitment

Mathieu and Zajac’s (1990) meta-analysis identified the following antecedents to organisational commitment: personal characteristics (i.e., age, tenure, sex, ability), role states (i.e., role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload), job characteristics (i.e., task autonomy, challenge, job scope), group-leader relations (i.e., group cohesiveness, leader initiating structure, participative leadership), and organisational characteristics (i.e., size, centralisation). Other antecedents of organisational commitment could include internalisation, identification, and compliance (Hunt & Morgan 1994). Other authors have demarcated the antecedents of organisational commitment in terms of the different components of commitment. Dunham, Grube and Castenada (1994) identified antecedents of affective commitment (e.g. task autonomy/identity, supervisory feedback, organisational dependability, perceived participatory management, age, tenure), antecedents of normative commitment (e.g. co-worker commitment, organisational dependability, participatory management), and antecedents of continuance commitment (e.g. age, tenure, career satisfaction, intent to leave). Similarly, Whitener and Walz (1993) indicated that attractiveness of alternatives and comparison with others' balance of rewards and costs are primary indicators of affective commitment. In the following section some of these antecedents to commitment will be addressed.

2.12.1.1 Climate dimensions associated with commitment

DeCottiis and Summers (1987) cite various instances of climate dimensions such as trust, cohesiveness, and autonomy being associated with commitment. Their results indicated that climate explained 43% of the variance in organisational commitment. Roodt (1997) argued that the use of climate as a predictor could possibly enhance organisational commitment predictor models. His findings, that climate dimensions such as identity, rewards and standards explain 56% of the variance in organisational commitment, supported that of DeCottiis and Summers (1987). Isaksen and Lauer (2002, p. 77) applied collaborative climate to teamwork, and state that: “Productive teamwork does not just happen. It requires a climate that supports co-operation and collaboration. Organisations desiring to promote teamwork must provide a climate within the larger context which support co-operation”. For example, Isaksen and Lauer (2002) found that a climate of fairness in teams caused team members to believe that their own interests and those of the team coincide. Colquitt (2002) found similar results with the measurement of procedural justice climate in teams. Characteristics of such teams were team performance and low absenteeism.

2.12.1.2 Job satisfaction and affective commitment

Straiter (2005) found a significant positive correlation between the two dependent variables: job satisfaction and affective organisation commitment ($r = .39$, $p < .01$). Whereas, negative affectivity was negatively correlated with trust of organisation ($r = -.20$, $p < .05$) and with positive affectivity ($r = -.19$, $p < .05$). Straiter surprisingly found that a supervisors’ tenure at the organisation was positively correlated with negative affectivity ($r = .18$, $p < .05$). Also, supervisors’ tenure was negatively correlated with job satisfaction ($r = -.19$, $p < .05$) and with trust of the organisation ($r = -.26$, $p < .01$). The positive relationship Straiter (2005) found between tenure and affective organisational commitment is consistent with other research (e.g. Dunham, Grube & Castaneda, 1994; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). This finding may indicate that it is easier for the managers to trust their organisation versus their subordinates which could lead to greater affective organisational commitment because they want to stay with thier organisation longer – possibly due to the amount of stability, security, and growth opportunities it offers its employees. Organisational commitment has also been related to person/job characteristics such as tenure, job level, and task autonomy such that those with greater tenure, higher job level, and greater task autonomy – experiencing greater intrinsic commitment to the organisation (Harris, Hirschfeld, Feild & Mossholder, 1993). In general, traditional organisational commitment research supports these expectations (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

2.12.1.3 Justice judgements and its relationship to job satisfaction and commitment

In their study on the role of justice judgements in explaining the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the results of Martin and Bennett's (1996) study indicated that (a) procedural justice, distributive justice, and referent cognitions determine outcome satisfaction; (b) procedural justice, age, and perceived importance of the individual's job determine organisational commitment; and (c) neither satisfaction nor commitment determine one another. Results supported their contention that organisational commitment and extrinsic satisfaction are causally independent. Their results further suggest that procedural fairness, rather than distributive fairness or job satisfaction, is a direct cause of organisational commitment. Thus, organisational commitment is determined by the perceived fairness of the policies and procedures used to arrive at outcomes, and not by what an individual in fact receives. Employees will not necessarily be committed to organisations if they do not perceive the organisation to be procedurally fair. Further, fair procedures may protect levels of organisational commitment from erosion due to dissatisfaction with poor outcomes (Martin & Bennett, 1996).

2.12.1.4 Supervisors' trust of the organisation and supervisors' affective commitment

Straiter (2005) claims that a series of factors build the argument for the positive relationship between supervisors' trust of the organisation and supervisors' affective organisational commitment. Implying that a supervisor's level of trust of the organisation may reflect his/her understanding of what the organisation practices and represents. Then, if the supervisor believes that the organisation will conduct things in the best interest of its employees, the supervisor will have a greater sense of belonging and membership within the organisation (Porter *et al*., 1974). Supporting this argument, Luhmann (1979) contend that trust allows an organisation's members to reduce the complexity of organisational life in productive ways. Further, Kallenberg and Berg (1987), Oliver (1990), and Steers (1977) assert that the affective dimension of organisational commitment reflects the nature and quality of the linkage between an employee and an organisation. Ultimately, the supervisor will gain an increased level of affective commitment of the organisation (Straiter, 2005). In addition, if a supervisor trusts the organisation, then s/he has a feeling of job importance, that is, the job is critical to organisational success. If the supervisor is treated like an asset, then s/he will have less anxiety, a greater sense of belonging, and a positive affect on the organisation (Straiter, 2005). This bond leads to greater affective organisational commitment (Martin & Bennett, 1996). For instance, Buchanan (1974) argued that if individuals' positions are seen as being crucial to the functioning of an organisation, the position will increase their self-esteem, and image of the organisation, thus positively influencing affective organisational commitment.

2.12.1.5 Citizenship behaviour at the team level (TCB) and its effects to team leadership, team commitment (TC), perceived team support (PTS), and team size

Pearce and Herbik (2004) did a study on citizenship behaviour at the team level/team citizenship behaviour (TCB) and analysed it by looking at the effects of team leadership, team commitment, perceived team support (PTS), and team size. What the authors found was that team leader behaviour, team commitment, and perceived team support all had large effects on TCB, whereas team size had a small-to-negligible effect. Thus, their study generally extends previous findings on the antecedents of citizenship behaviour at the individual level of analysis to the team level of analysis. For example, whereas Farh Podaskoff and Organ (1990) reported a positive effect of leader fairness on the display of altruistic behaviour by individuals, Pearce and Herbik's (2004) study extends their finding by reporting a large positive effect of leader encouragement of teamwork on the display of TCB. Similarly, whereas previous researchers identified a positive relationship between individuals' commitment and individuals' display of OCB (e.g. Mayer & Schoorman, 1992; Munene, 1995). The authors of study also seem to extend their findings to the team level of analysis by identifying a large positive effect of team member commitment on TCB. Whereas Setton, Bennett and Liden (1996) reported a relationship between perceived organisational support (POS) and individual employee reciprocity, Pearce and Herbik’s study seem also to further their finding by positively relating perceived team support to the display of TCB. From the results of Pearce and Herbik’s (2004) study it thus appear that leader encouragement of teamwork, team member commitment to the team, and perceptions that the team is well supported by management seemingly are important elements in the development of high levels of TCB, thereby extending the findings on citizenship behaviour at the individual level of analysis (mentioned earlier in Chapter 2) to the team level of analysis.

Adding to the above, Bishop *et al*. (2005) posit that the generalisability of the distinctiveness of the three constructs of OC and the ability of current instruments to measure the distinctiveness of team-related constructs seem to lack support. Invoking the same concerns expressed by Shore and Tetrick (1991) to team-based work environments, it therefore appears critical to investigate the empirical distinctiveness between team commitment and perceived team support (PTS). However, Bishop *et al*. (2005) caution that in team-based environments the commitment/support issue is more complex. Therefore, for researchers to test theories related to employee commitment involving both the organisation and the team, they ought consider that there are two sources of support rather than one, two foci of commitment rather than one, and as many as four potential exchange paths rather than two (Bishop *et al*., 2005).

2.12.1.6 Team performance and commitment

Employee commitment has been found to be positively correlated with organisational performance (Benkhoff, 1997) – a variable of high interest to many organisational leaders. Results of a study by Bishop and Scott (1997) showed that satisfaction with supervision promotes employee commitment towards the organisation, while task interdependence and satisfaction with co-workers enhance team commitment. They found that satisfaction with supervision and resource-related conflict had significant positive and negative influences on organisational commitment, respectively, but no significant influence on team commitment. Task interdependence had positive and significant influences on both organisational and team commitment. Although task interdependence had an impact on team commitment, it was not significant. Thus, this specific finding indicates that commitment resulting from satisfaction with supervision would focus more strongly on the organisation than on the team. Prior research had indicated that in work team environments, many employees view supervisors as representatives of the company and, often, an extension of it (e.g. Bews & Uys, 2002; Büssing, 2002; Den Hartog *et al*., 2002; Ogilvie, 1987; Straiter, 2005).

Though it was thought that task interdependence would have a greater effect on team commitment than on organisational commitment, Bishop and Scott's (1997) results indicated this was not the case. The influence of task interdependence on organisational commitment was not significantly different from its influence on team commitment. Task interdependence and satisfaction with co-workers had positive influences on team commitment, while inter-sender conflict had a negative effect. The authors also found that satisfaction with co-workers significantly affected team commitment, but not organisational commitment.

Bishop and Scott's (1997) study indicated that commitment significantly influenced team productivity, intention to quit, and willingness to help. However, commitment to the team and the organisation did not influence all the outcomes equally. Only organisational commitment had a direct influence on intention to quit. The influence of team commitment on intention to quit, when the influence of all other variables were considered, was not significant. Team commitment led to increased productivity, but organisational commitment did not. Though prior research indicates that organisational commitment is related to intention to quit (e.g. Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004; Boshoff & Arnolds, 1995; Boshoff, Van Wyk, Hoole & Owen, 2002; Shore, Newton, Thornton, 1990; Zaccaro & Dobbins, 1989), Bishop and Scott (1997) found that a high commitment to the organisation translated into lower intention to quit, but that commitment to the team did not have a significant effect on intention to quit. Thought there is a relationship between team commitment and intention to quit, the relationship is not causal.

Willingness to help was positively influenced by both organisational and team commitment. However, the data indicated that the path from organisational commitment to willingness to help did not differ significantly from the path from team commitment to willingness to help. They also found that task interdependence (the extent to which individuals in the work group interact and depend on one another to accomplish their work) had a significant and positive influence on willingness to help.
In similar light, Kumpfer, Turner, Hopkins and Librett (1993) reported positive relationships between a group's level of empowering leadership and levels of team efficacy, and between efficacy and group effectiveness.

2.12.1.7 Leadership and commitment

Leader behaviour is an important determinant of organisational commitment (Jans, 1989). Commitment to top management has been significantly and positively been related to organisational commitment (e.g. Arnolds & Boshoff, 2004; Erwee, 1980; Gregersen, 1993).

2.12.2 The importance of team commitment in examining servant leadership

Within the emerging philosophy of servant leadership, emphasis is placed on the aspect that *leadership* makes the difference between one organisation and another (Peck, 1995; Senge, 1990; 1995; Snodgrass, 1993). The fulfilment of associates' needs therefore becomes the ultimate goal of a servant-leader. Effective leadership is demonstrated minute by minute in the things that are being said, every day. People see, note and feel every action, and word being uttered. Therefore, any incongruity in what is seen, heard, and felt dissipates trust and leads to little or no commitment. The servant leader therefore has to instil commitment and confidence in their followers. Therefore, shared commitment grows out of servant leadership (McGee-Cooper & Looper, 2001).

Drury (2004) conducted a quantitative research study in which she related servant leadership to other organisational constructs. Since two other organisational constructs, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, were consistently found to be positively correlated with each other in the literature (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Brooke, Russell & Price, 1988; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) and even causally related (Brown & Gaylor, 2002; Curry, Wakefield, Price & Mueller, 1986; Farkas & Tetrick, 1989; Lance, 1991; Vandenberg & Lance, 1992; Williams & Hazer, 1986), Drury's study sought to compare servant leadership with each of these two constructs, in a university setting. In her study, organisational commitment was measured with the Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993) commitment scales. Perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction were measured with the Organisational Leadership Assessment (Laub, 1999).

The findings of Drury's (2004) study demonstrated that servant leadership can be measured in a workplace setting, was perceived differently by employees at different levels in the organisation, and correlated differently with job satisfaction and with organisational commitment. Pearson correlation tests found a statistically significant and positive relationship between job satisfaction and servant leadership. However, contrary to what the literature indicated, organisational commitment and servant leadership had a statistically significant inverse relationship. This relationship is probably due to fact that these two constructs had not been compared previously in research studies. ANOVA tests and *post hoc* analysis of categorical data found hourly workers differed significantly from faculty members in their perceptions of servant leadership and organisational commitment. Servant leadership was positively correlated with job satisfaction.

Ensuing from the above, it appears evident to include team commitment in the proposed research, since organisational, but not team commitment, had been related to servant leadership before (Drury, 2004). Drury (2004) calls either for a replication study to be conducted with several types of organisations to test the reliability of the servant leadership and organisational commitment inverse relationship, or another survey with the same instruments in a university context to test the reliability of the organisational commitment findings in her study site. Also, a study using different scales — especially for organisational commitment — should be used to test the results in this study and to further test the relationship between servant leadership and organisational commitment. Drury (2004) contends that such information will enhance the research stream for the emerging theory of servant leadership as well as inform organisational leaders about employee perceptions of these variables.

Jans (1989) asserts that leader behaviour is an important determinant of the level of commitment experienced by employees. Commitment and faith to top management has been found to be significantly and positively related to organisational commitment (Gregersen, 1993; Cook & Wall, 1980). Based on surveys of more than 360 000 employees by the International Survey Research (ISR) organisation, employees' assessment of leadership in the organisation, was identified as the most important determinant of employee commitment to organisations (Bennet, 2000).

2.13 Measures of commitment

Since employee commitment has expanded (in the literature) to include commitment to multiple organisational entities, and multiple entities from which employees may detect varying levels of appreciation for their contributions and care for their well-being (i.e., support), care still ought to be taken in measuring this construct. Concerning this saliency, Shore and Tetrick (1991, p. 640) point out that: "given the popularity of commitment measures among researchers, it is critical to carefully evaluate the construct validity of each new measure prior to its extensive use". When this aspect is taken into consideration, researchers are able to detect and measure employees' capacity to distinguish between both the direction of commitment (for instance rational and/or emotional) and the entity with which it is associated (for instance organisation and/or team).

2.13.1 Psychological Attachment Instrument (PAI)

In an attempt to improve on traditional treatments of organisational commitment, O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) argued for emphasising commitment's "central theme" – the nature of individuals' psychological attachments to organisations. O'Reilly and Chatman suggested that there were three dimensions of psychological attachment: compliance, identification, and internalisation. Compliance refers to attachment based on the expectation of receiving extrinsic rewards such as pay and employment as the result of work activities. Identification refers to attachment based on valued membership in, and affiliation with, the organisation or the degree to which an individual takes pride in an organisation and its values (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Internalisation refers to attachment based on the congruence between organisational and individual values or the degree to which individuals adopt an organisation's values as their own. In addition to positing these three dimensions of psychological attachment, O'Reilly and Chatman developed a 12-item instrument (the Psychological Attachment Instrument or PAI) to measure them. The psychological attachment perspective articulated by O'Reilly and Chatman and the measurement instrument they developed have shown potential in expanding the understanding of the nature and consequences of organisational commitment for management, scholars, and practitioners.

However, due to the entrenchment of more traditional measures of organisational commitment such as Mowday, Steers and Porter's (1979) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire, relatively little research employing the PAI has been reported. However, three interesting findings have emerged from the limited studies that are available (Harris, Hirschfeld, Field & Mossholder, 1993). First, internalisation and identification are often indistinguishable, both in terms of the psychometrics of the PAI and in their relationships to other variables of interest. Second, compliance seems to have relationships with several variables opposite those of identification and internalisation, suggesting that identification and internalisation reflect attachment that is in some sense fundamentally counter to that reflected by compliance. Third, unlike compliance, internalisation and identification are associated with extra-role, pro-social behaviours (Martin & Bennett,1996). This suggests that organisational members who identify with the organisation and have internalised its values are more likely to go beyond the call of duty when needed and are more likely to do it without having to be persuaded.

2.13.2 Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) of Penley and Gould

The Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) was developed by Penley and Gould (1988). The OCS consists of 15 items, comprising of their identified three sub-scales of commitment, i.e. moral, calculative, and alienative commitment, as described earlier in Chapter 2. each sub-scale comprises of five items.

Since commitment constituted one of the focal variables in the present study, and to be consistent in the handling of the respective measures of the identified variables, the author thought it appropriate to use the entire Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) as developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) – as oppose to only using the Affective Scale of the OCQ – as part of a unified measure of the overall POB variables of servant leadership, trust, and team commitment. However, for the present study the Team Commitment Survey (TCS) as developed by Bennett (1997, 2000) by modifying the items in the Allen and Meyer (1990) was used. In the TCS the OCQ has been modified, through changing the referent from organisation to team and adding 11 additional items believed to measure team commitment. This was done in line with the above arguments in favour of changing the referent (in lieu with the organisation) in order to measure team (as appose to organisational) commitment. The James, Demaree and Wolf. (1984) r_{wg} usually serves as a change-of-referent guide, since it conforms to the requirements of Chan's (1998) third compositional model, the "referent-shift consensus model." Within-group consensus is used to justify aggregation of individuals' perceptions of collective commitment to represent the value of the higher level construct, namely, team commitment. This measure is further elaborated on in Chapter 3.

2.13.3 Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) of Allen and Meyer

Allen and Meyer (1990) developed their Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) in an attempt to reconcile the various conceptualisations of organisational commitment. The OCS reflects a three-dimensional approach to commitment and purports to measure 1) affective, 2) calculative and 3) normative commitment. The *affective* component of organisational commitment refers to employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. The *continuance* component refers to commitment based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organisation. The *normative* component refers to employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation.

A total of 51 items were originally generated according to the authors' conceptualisation of organisational commitment. Some of these items were modified versions of those used in other scales, while the authors wrote other items. The 15 items of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ, Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979) were added to these items – resulting in a total of 66 items. Responses to all 66 items were made on seven-point Likert scales (“Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree”). A series of decision rules were then employed for purposes of item selection. Items were eliminated under the following conditions: when the endorsement proportion was greater than 0.75; when the item correlated less with its keyed scale than with one or both of the other scales, and when the content of the item was redundant with respect to other items on the scale. Finally, 24 items were retained that loaded on three dimensions of eight (8) items each.

Straiter (2005) used the Affective Organisational Commitment Scale, developed by Meyer and Allen (1997) in her study of investigating the effects of supervisors’ trust of their subordinates and their organisation on job satisfaction and organisational commitment, by using survey data collected from 117 district sales managers. In prior studies, internal consistency estimates (for the Affective Organisational Commitment Scale) ranged from .77 to .88 (Allen & Meyer, 1990). In Straiter’s (2005) sample, Cronbach’s alpha for this measure was .82. The variable was measured with a 7-point scale.

The OCS has been used extensively to measure organisational commitment. It has also been successfully modified to refer to other forms of commitment and commitment to other entities including professional commitment (Grover, 1993; Gunz & Gunz, 1994; Wallace, 1995), occupational commitment (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1994), departmental and occupational commitment (Vandenberg & Scarpello, 1991), group commitment (Zaccaro & Dobbins, 1989), and team commitment (Bishop & Scott, 2000; Bishop *et al*., 2000; Strauss, 2004).

In measuring organisational commitment and team commitment Bishop *et al*. (2000) and Bishop *et al*. (2005) used a short form of the OCQ (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979) to measure organisational commitment. Team commitment was measured by modifying the short form of the OCQ to refer to the team rather to the organisation. This technique was suggested by Reichers (1985) and has been referenced in the literature (e.g. Scott & Townsend, 1994). Bishop *et al*. (2005) also assessed organisational commitment using the Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) of Allen and & Meyer (1990). Commitment to quality teams was measured by altering the ACS in a manner similar to that which was used with the OCQ.

Pearce and Herbik (2004) measured team commitment, by means of assessing team commitment at the individual level of analysis and aggregated it to the team level. They used a 6-item scale adapted from Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) to assess individuals' aggregate level of commitment to their respective teams. The internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's α) for the measure of commitment was .89. The r[subWG(J)] was .95. The eta-square was .51.

2.13.4 Hrebiniak and Alutto’s (1972) organisational commitment measure

Witt, Hilton and Hochwarter (2001) conducted a study where they examined the relationship between perceptions of matrix team politics and several outcomes indicative of an effective team — ratings of effectiveness and expressions of satisfaction with, and commitment to remain on the matrix team. They also investigated whether member-team goal congruence might alleviate the negative influence of team-level politics on effectiveness, satisfaction, and commitment.

In order to measure team commitment, Witt *et al*. (2001) revised the Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) 4-item organisational commitment measure to assess team commitment. The scale was originally designed to measure the calculative involvement with the organisation by assessing employees’ inclination to leave the organisation as a function of alternative inducements (i.e., continuance commitment). However, Meyer and Allen’s (1984) study suggested that this measure may assess affective commitment as well. Witt *et al*. (2001) revised the items to reflect organisational realities, and replaced organisation with team. Items were recoded so that higher scores reflect greater commitment.

2.14 Summary of the commitment construct

From the above discussion, it seems clear that since its inception, organisational commitment has been defined as the psychological identification that an individual feels toward his or her employing organisation (Mowday *et al*., 1982). More specifically, organisational commitment is characterised by (a) a strong belief in, and acceptance of, the organisation’s goals and values; (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation. Bishop *et al*. (2005) draw the attention to this definition containing a clear direction (from the employee to the employer) and an explicit focus or target (the organisation). Organisational commitment has inspired a tremendous amount of research (see Meyer & Allen, 1997, for a review). Given this interest, it seems especially important to distinguish organisational commitment from other related constructs, including team commitment, POS, and PTS.

2.15 The construct unit effectiveness

2.15.1 Background

The organisational domain has shown some shift from questions of *what* predicts team effectiveness and viability to more complex questions regarding *why* some groups are more effective than others (Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson & Jundt, 2005). Ilgen *et al*. (2005) reviewed what has been learned over the past seven years by categorising findings in terms of their relevance to the formation, functioning, and final stages of teams' existence. From the outset, Ilgen *et al*. (2005) note that whereas there seems to be consensus on the need to study affective, cognitive, and behavioural mediational processes, this effort has been somewhat fragmented and non-cumulative due to a proliferation of constructs with indistinct boundaries at the conceptual level and item overlap between measures of constructs at the level of individual studies.

It seems as if leadership (or lack of it) has been identified as one of the leading causes of failures in implementing a team-based work system (Katzenbach, 1997; Sinclair, 1992; Stewart & Manz, 1994). Yet, only a few models of team effectiveness (e.g. Gladstein, 1984; Kozlowski, Gully, Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 1996) have explicitly considered leadership as one of the determinants of team effectiveness. Although many authors have focused on examining the leadership of a single individual leading a team (Cohen, Chang & Ledford, 1997; Manz & Sims, 1987, 1993), there has been no attempt to examine the impact of leadership within or by the team (Sivasubramaniam, Murry, Avolio & Jung, 2002). Dunphy and Bryant (1996), after reviewing the literature on teams and identifying gaps, concluded that future research ought to include leadership within teams when attempting to model team effectiveness.

2.15.2 A focus on effectiveness

I/O psychology is an approach to understanding organisational functioning and effectiveness by focusing first on individuals, and relationships between individual attributes, and individual job behaviour (Schneider, 1984). The trait of I/O psychology has been a concern for discovering what individual characteristics (abilities, needs, satisfactions) are useful for predicting work behaviour required for the organisation to be effective (productivity in terms of quality and/or quantity, absenteeism, turnover, sales). Thus, work conducted in this domain is based on the simple assumption that, when accurate predictions about the effectiveness of individuals are made, then it follows that the organisation, and or work units (groups) will be more effective (Schneider, 1984). Thus, issues surrounding the definition and measurement of effectiveness seem to be a major focus for within organisational settings (Parks & Sanna, 1999; Schneider, 1984; Witt, Hilton and Hochwarter (2001).

Thus, the increased research interest in teams over the last two decades, has numerously been demonstrated in Chapter 1, and reiterated in Chapter 2. The importance of teams and their effectiveness will next be discussed by examining antecedents to unit (team effectiveness).

2.15.3 Antecedents and concerns pertaining to unit effectiveness

Effective leadership was found by several researchers to be crucial for successful team performance, no matter how advanced the team (Katzenbach, 1998; Williams, 1998; Wilson, George & Wellins, 1994). According to Gibson, Ivancevich, and Donnelly (1994) and Avolio, Waldman, and Einstein (1988), a leader can make a difference in terms of end result factors, like financial performance, goal attainment and individual growth and development. According to Bass (1985, 1997) leaders aspiring to be successful, need to adopt more transformational-type leadership behaviours. These behaviours are positively related to reported satisfaction with leadership, effective decision-making, and overall team effectiveness and performance (Flood, Hannan, Smith, Turner, West & Dawnson, 2000). Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002) argue that emotional intelligence, which is found to be related to successful transformational leaders (Ashkanasy & Tse, 1998), is one of the single most important factors for leadership effectiveness and effective performance (Sosik & Megerian, 1999; George, 2000; Lewis 2000).

Research conducted on unit effectiveness has demonstrated the critical role it plays in the prediction of performance (Ferris, Perrewe, Anthony & Gilmore, 2000; Ferris, Witt & Hochwarter, 2001; Ferris, Perrewe, & Douglas, 2002). Leadership, or a lack thereof, is often regarded as the factor that dictates a team and ultimately an organisation's effectiveness (Howatson-Jones, 2004).

Campion, Medsker and Higgs (1993) report on a study that examined the relationship between various work team characteristics and team effectiveness measures, such as productivity and satisfaction. Their data indicated that variables both "internal" to the team (e.g. workload sharing, performance) and "external" (e.g. leadership, trust and commitment) significantly predict team effectiveness.

In their study on leadership and work team performance, O'Connell, Doverspike and Cober (2002) revealed that none of the three measures of team performance, as rated by managers, were significantly correlated with team leadership as rated by team members. However, team member ratings of leadership were significantly correlated with team member ratings of productivity, quality, and overall performance. In addition, the managers' ratings of team productivity, team quality, and overall performance were not correlated significantly with the ratings of the same team characteristics by the team members.

Johnson and Johnson (2006) state two critical dimensions of team effectiveness that ought to be given consideration in organisations: *performance* (including production, cost-reduction, innovation), and *attitude* (including satisfaction, cohesion & commitment). Thus, the role of supervisors and managers in effectiveness seem to encompass these two aspects. However, employee's perception of managers and supervisors seem to differ. Pursuing this occurrence of supervisor versus managerial perceptions of organisational effectiveness, Weitzel, Mohoney and Crandall (1971) in their study investigated the relationships between this differing effectiveness perceptions. Supervisors seem often to be faced with conflict of interests. This is clearly illustrated by Weitzel *et al.*'s (1971, p. 37) following statement:

> The supervisor's man-in-the-middle task is to serve both superiors and subordinates. As the last in the managerial chain, he must translate managerial demands and expectations into terms and tasks employees can understand. At the same time, he tends to be the link between management and the technology of the workplace and the work force. He is the only element of the managerial force with "hands on" contact and knowledge of both the technology and the work force. He is expected to use this contact to get the results management wants. As the last man in the chain, he is less a formulator of management goals and more a transmitter and implementer of these goals to the work force.

Supervisory perceptions of organisational effectiveness were examined using information provided by 53 supervisors. The supervisors provided a variety of descriptive and evaluative information about their immediate work groups, the organisation units which they supervised. The descriptive information was summarised along nineteen dimensions of organisational characteristics, behaviour, and performance. In addition to the descriptions of their units, each supervisor supplied an assessment of overall effectiveness of each work unit. A method of analysis developed for earlier studies of managerial perceptions of organisational effectiveness (step-wise multiple regression and elementary linkage analysis) was employed to identify the relationships perceived by supervisors between the organisational dimensions and effectiveness.

From the results obtained, it was very clear that the first-level supervisor in their study seemed to equate production performance, i.e. quality, quantity, and efficiency of production, with organisational effectiveness. Production criteria alone accounted for more than 80% of the judgements of overall effectiveness.

Other dimensions of organisational behaviour were perceived as supportive of productive performance, although otherwise insignificant for organisational effectiveness. Mutually supportive relationships between the supervisor and his subordinates and the planning of performance within the unit such that disruptions of operations rarely occurred were perceived as important in achieving production criteria. Additionally, reliability of performance appeared to assist in achieving the production criteria

Interesting was that many of the organisational dimensions related to concepts from the human relations tradition did not appear in this supervisory model of organisational effectiveness or appeared only peripherally. Weitzel *et al*. (1971) employed the same basic approach with the supervisors as an earlier study by Mahoney and Weitzel (1969) of the perceptions of organisational effectiveness of managers. However, Weitzel *et al*. (1971) used a difference, yet relevant approach. Whereas the supervisor's attention was focused upon effectiveness of his/her own work unit, the managers'' attention was directed toward effectiveness of work units subordinate to them, i.e. work units whose supervisors reported to the managers. Thus, the managerial model of organisational effectiveness found by Wetzel *et al*. (1971) indicated that, what the manager sought in subordinate work units, were not the same what s/he sought in his/her own unit.

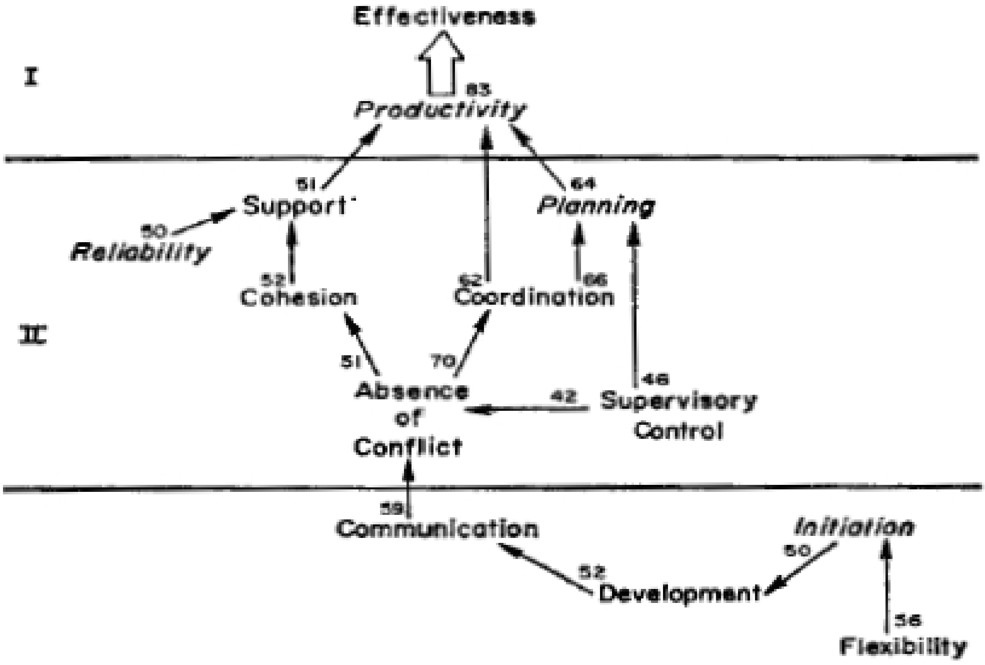
Interestingly, was that the production criteria was as centrally important for managers as for supervisors Managers perceived unit planning as independently related to effectiveness, and likely to be accompanied by cooperation with other units, good supervisory control of work progress, and the willingness of the unit to practice unusual solutions to problems. This aspect probably made the better units appear a great deal more flexible to the manager. Another relatively independent dimension which managers perceived as relevant for achieving effectiveness, was the degree of reliability of the organisational unit. The managers also looked for initiation, but more in line with the long term interests of the organisation. Thus, the managers' conception of organisational effectiveness included both reliability and initiation, as solitary dimensions of organisation effectiveness.

The value of Weitzel *et al.*'s (1971) study lies in the important of both the differences and the similarities between these two models of organisational effectiveness (supervisor versus manager). A reflection of the differences suggests that the manager appears to want productive subordinate units that are also characterised by planning, reliable performance, and initiative. Supervisors appear to understand only the demand for productive performance. Other criteria are relevant only as they aided such performance. Weitzel *et al*. (1971) suggest one possible reason for this lack of congruency between the two models, possibly pertaining to the reward system of organisations. Production criteria are available at short-term intervals, are relatively unquestionable, and often form the basis for rewarding supervisors. The other criteria, although desired by managers, are more subjective and tend to be noticed only when something goes wrong. Thus, they probably are not used consistently in the reward system, and the supervisor is less aware of the importance the manager attaches to them (Weitzel *et al*., 1971).

The differences in these two models of organisational effectiveness may also reflect differences in the work situations of the manager and the supervisor. Since the supervisor has direct contact with employee, s/he is necessarily concerned with short-term variations in performance, and constant action need to be taken to affect performance in the short term. Managers are one level removed from the work force, and can take a more long term approach to his/her responsibilities. In addition to having more than one unit under his/her direction, the manager is therefore concerned with total production of all units, and not necessarily as involved in the short term productivity in each. Weitzel *et al*. (1971) indicate that organisational criteria relating to long term performance, i.e. initiative, reliability, and planning, can have different importance for the manager than for the supervisor. This can perhaps be ascribed to the different degrees of freedom in the two situations, respectively. The manager could consider other variables independent of short term production. The organisational dimensions that related most closely to concepts of human relations, were perceived as instrumental in *both* models. Neither managers nor supervisors perceived these dimensions as independent criteria of organisational effectiveness.

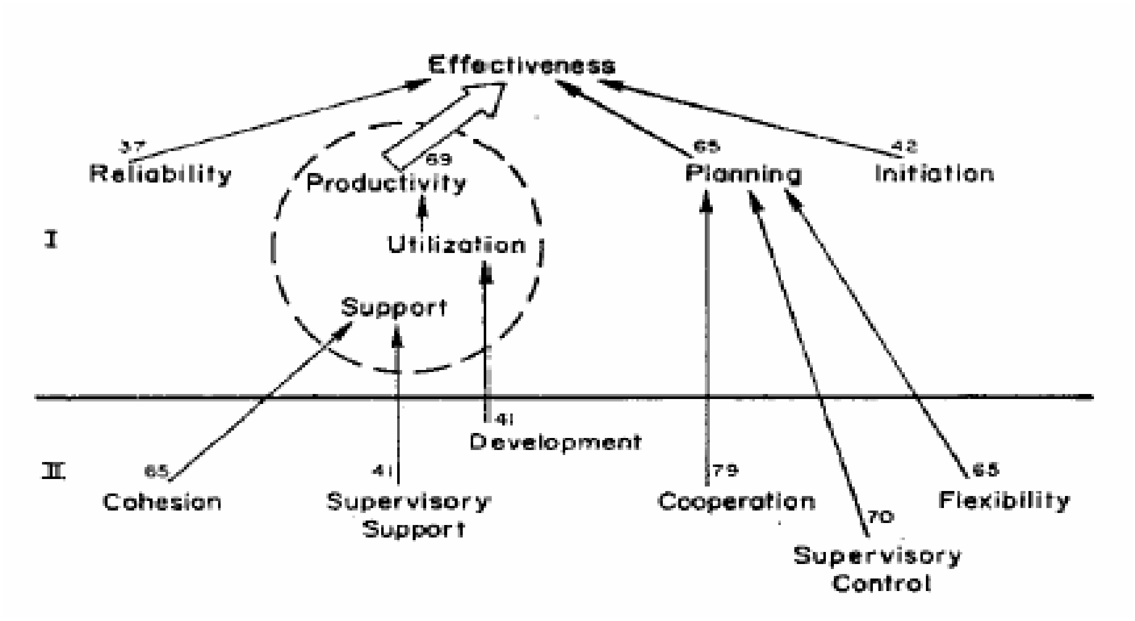
In summary, supervisors may therefore be caught between managerial and employee-related pressures. Consequently, supervisors hold priorities more akin to those of managers than of employees. Yet the supervisor’s criteria of organisational effectiveness appear generally reflective of managerial perceptions and goals. As a result, the supervisor, assigns less priority to human relations variables than does his/her superior (Weitzel *et al*., 1971). The supervisor tends to perceive human relations variables as instrumental in achieving productivity, and not as ends in themselves. Assuming that supervisory values reflect evaluation of the instrumental worth of these values, achievements in these human relations dimensions could serve more purposeful useful in achieving long term productivity performance. The priority and importance assigned to the human relational dimensions of organisations, is a value decision which cannot be answered through research alone (Weitzel *et al.*, 1971). Many will agree that they are important only as means to the economic performance dimensions; others will argue that they ought be given priority as independent ends. The supervisor does not appear to have been affected much by the numerous arguments concerning the appropriate ends of business organisations.

A comparison of the two models shows that the four dimensions of the managerial model (Figure 2.17) can also be found in the supervisory model (italicised dimensions in Figure 2.16). Although this model of organisational effectiveness does not reflect fully that of the manager, it appears even less reflective of what one might expect the model of the work force to be.


Effectiveness
I
83
Productivity
51
64
Support
Planning
50
Reliability
52
Cohesion
62
Coordination
66
II
51
70
Absence of Conflict
42
46
Supervisory Control
59
Communication
Initiation
50
52
Development
56
Flexibility

(Weitzel *et al.*, 1971, p. 39)

Figure 2.16 Supervisory view of effectiveness


Effectiveness
37
Reliability
69
Productivity
Utilization
Support
65
Planning
42
Initiation
I
II
41
Development
65
Cohesion
41
Supervisory Support
79
Cooperation
70
Supervisory Control
65
Flexibility

(Weitzel *et al*., 1971, p. 40)

Figure 2.17 Managerial view of effectiveness

Effectiveness seems to represent a broader construct. Theoretical and empirical literature provides some evidence for this presumption (Ferris *et al*., 2002). Organisational effectiveness represents the more expansive construct when compared to the relatively narrow concept of unit effectiveness. Complementing the previous point, research has noted the importance of individual adaptation as an important precursor of performance across a wide variety of work domains (e.g. Pulakos, Arad, Donovan & Plamondon, 2000).

2.15.4 Measuring unit effectiveness

Schneider (1984) contends that there are the two fundamental problems connected with the definition and measurement of effectiveness: (1) finding good indicators of effectiveness, and (2) measuring them reliably.

Finding good indicators pertain to the level of relevance of the effectiveness indices used in assessing effectiveness in organisations. This, seemingly is a difficult question to answer, and which requires proper judgments to be made. However, Schneider (1984) indicate that the indices organisations choose to use for indexing performance, are more often available or easily obtainable, than they are relevant.

Thus, a focus on indices that are easily countable rather than on indices that may be more relevant to long-term organisational viability has characterised the thinking of management when choosing performance standards against which employees are evaluated (Schneider, 1984). It therefore seems imperative that these indices be judged for relevance to long-term organisational viability, because employees behave in terms of the indices against which they are evaluated.

Reliably measuring the indicators, referring to consistency, and meaning whether it is possible for two managers to look at the same employee and agree on his/her performance. The answer depends a lot on whether the employee gets to perform under similar conditions for the two supervisors and whether the supervisors can agree on what they are looking at.

Specifically, there are very few reliable ways to adequately measure individual performance in group-based environments (Pritchard, Jones, Roth, Stuebing & Ekeberg, 1988). Pritchard *et al.* (1988, p. 338) note that it is: “impossible to separate out the contribution of each individual when the members must work interdependently to do the work.” Additionally, unit or team effectiveness measures are often limited to a “generic” one-size-fits-all effectiveness measures against which individuals and teams are assessed against. More often than not, such measures/scales were never designed to measure the contextual dimensions of effectiveness (Irving, 2005).

According to Schneider (1984) many of the contemporary rating techniques focus on assessments of behaviour, and this focus appears to avoid or diminish many of the problems associated with ratings, specifically halo (focusing on one or two incidents that intrude into all rated facets of performance), bias (in terms of sex, race, age, and so on), leniency, harshness, or central tendency (the tendency of a rater to put a large proportion of employees in a similar place on the rating scale). Development and preparation of these Behaviourally Anchored Rating Scales (BARS) or Behaviour Observation Scales (BOS) are essentially based on job analysis. However, it is worth noting that in the absence of reliable job analysis procedures, the development of relevant and reliable performance rating systems is not possible.

Another source of concern in assessing team effectiveness seems to pertain to the measure(s) employed. This limitation is one shared by much of the research that has employed group-based measures of performance, effectiveness, and/or productivity (Parks & Sanna, 1999; Witt *et al*., 2001).

Another concern in measuring effectiveness seems to pertain to the imperative of clearly establishing the boundaries, and construct domains of a construct, in this case unit effectiveness, in order to differentiate it from other effectiveness constructs. In this regard, there has been some discriminant validity evidence reported to demonstrate that some effectiveness constructs are unrelated, or modestly correlated at best, with other measures (Ferris, Perrewe & Douglas, 2002). Interestingly, there also have been some recent efforts for integration across some effectiveness constructs. For example, Jones and Day (1997) suggest that a way to integrate effectiveness constructs is to acknowledge that they all share a focus on behavioural flexibility. According to Hedlund and Sternberg (2000) self-monitoring and functional flexibility, which are also concerned fundamentally with cross-situational behavioural flexibility and adaptation, could be added to this category.

This concern is similar to that of Ehrhart (2004) where the three models he tested by making use of manager ratings of unit-level OCB were somewhat inconsistent and provided mixed support for his study's hypotheses. However, his hypothesis of servant leadership being significantly related to procedural justice climate in all three models, were supported, with path coefficients ranging from .60 to .81 (p [less than or equal to] .01 in all cases). Interesting, across all models, between-unit differences in levels of servant leadership were strongly related to procedural justice climate. This finding may indicate that leaders who recognise and respond to their responsibility to work for the good of their followers and other stakeholders, could lead to the unit they head, as a whole, perceiving fair treatment. Ehrhart (2004) could also establish the relationship between procedural justice climate and unit-level OCB, suggesting that units where members collectively feel they are treated fairly were characterised by higher overall levels of helping, caring, and conscientiousness behaviours. These relationships were generally stronger and more likely to be significant when employee OCB ratings were included. However, Ehrhart's (2004) study indicated that servant leadership did not appear to be related to unit-level OCB; i.e. in units where the leader acts in ways to benefit followers, and help them grow and develop. Unit members were more likely to act in ways to benefit other unit members (helping) and the organisation in general (conscientiousness).

Bearing the above concerns in mind, team effectiveness has to be approached with caution. In this light it seems appropriate to measure team effectiveness according to set goals. In order to measure these goals it is recommended to examine team member/management goal congruence. This can be accomplished by having business unit’s senior executives provide non-operational goals (March & Simon, 1958; Witt *et al*., 2001). Such goals ought to reflect value priorities rather than team-specific tactical objectives. In the present study this was incorporated, as well as including the Team Effectiveness Questionnaire (TEQ) developed by Larson and LaFasto (1989). Further details of these aspects are entered into in Chapter 3.

2.15.5 The importance of unit effectiveness in examining POB with servant leadership trust, and team commitment

Inherent in the development of team-oriented functioning is the notion that groups or teams perform tasks more effectively than individuals working independently (Beer, Eisenstat & Spector, 1990; Witt *et al*., 2001). According to Buitendach and Stander (2004) team effectiveness consists of the performance, attitudes, and behavioural outcomes of a team. Jex and Thomas (2003) and Hackman (1987, 1992) interpret team effectiveness as a team’s ability to produce something that is seen as acceptable. Jex and Thomas (2003) further regard it as a team’s ability to interact in such a manner that members of the team can work together in future, and ultimately experience a high level of team member satisfaction. Crainer (2004) summarises team effectiveness to consist of a combination of behaviours and practices merging to create an effective unit. However, for teams to function at maximum effective levels, it is imperative to investigate what is happening, both inside of the team (for instance team development, process, conflict management), as well as what is happening outside of the team (for instance committed leaders, trust, empowerment). In this regard, Kelly (1992) saw the need to view follower commitment and effectiveness in this manner, by developing a two-dimensional model of follower-behaviour. The two dimensions comprise a horizontal axis defining follower behaviour on a continuum ranging from passive to active, and a vertical axis describing follower abilities that range from dependent, uncritical thinking to independent, critical thinking. In between, it includes the ineffective follower behaviours of sheep, conformist, and alienated followers.

However, Irving (2004) stresses the importance of the nature of effectiveness and context. When engaging in the topic of leadership or team effectiveness, the literature argues that context is a mediating variable. Many authors agree that context is important in the assessment of leadership effectiveness (Klenke, 1996; Osborn, Hunt & Jauch, 2002; Leavy, 2003; Irving & Klenke, 2004). As with leadership effectiveness, so team effectiveness is best evaluated in terms of contextual parameters. For this reason, the assessment of leadership or team effectiveness often necessitates a contextual evaluation, a consideration identified by Doolen, Hacker and Van Aken (2003).

In a work team environment, physical proximity and regular interaction with the team suggests that it is easier for employees to receive feedback regarding how well their behaviour reflects team goals, values, and norms than it is to receive similar feedback with respect to the global organisation (Bishop *et al*., 2000). Therefore, the work team, when compared to the organisation, is more psychologically salient in terms of performance-related behaviour (Becker, Billings, Eveleth & Gilbert, 1996). The actual work performed by individuals takes place within the auspices of a team that is both physically proximal, and psychologically salient. To this end team commitment has been positively related to job performance (e.g. Bishop, 1997; Bishop *et al*., 2000). The significant relationship found between team commitment and job performance (e.g. Bishop *et al*., 2000; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) suggests that commitment may be related to performance when the focus of commitment is more immediate and proximal, and that the individual's performance has a more immediate and significant effect on the success of the object of commitment.

Accordingly, researchers have developed and refined models of team effectiveness. Most of these models (e.g. Gladstein, 1984; Tannenbaum, Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 1996) addressed team effectiveness from an input-throughput-output perspective. According to Witt *et al*. (2001) inputs have included structural variables, compositional factors, and member characteristics. Throughputs have included interaction processes, such as conflict and communication (Cohen & Bailey, 1997). Outputs have included various aspects of effectiveness, including quantitative and qualitative performance (Cohen & Bailey, 1997), team member perceptions, and affective connections to the team (Cohen, Ledford & Spreitzer, 1996).

Team effectiveness has also been measured in terms of many other variables. Examples of such research studies conducted on team effectiveness include: Leon, List and Magor's (2004) examination of team effectiveness in terms of personal experience, Gibson, Zellmer-Bruhn and Schwab's (2003) examination in the context of multinational American organisations, Ozaralli's (2003) in terms of transformational leadership, Cox' (2003) in terms of types of conflict, De Dreu (2002) in terms of innovation, and Jordan, Ashkanasy, Hartel and Hooper's (2002) in terms of workgroup emotional intelligence. Despite the prolific literature on teams and team effectiveness in recent years, no research until recently, has been conducted on the relationship between servant leadership and team effectiveness (Irving, 2004). To answer this void in the literature, Irving (2004) conducted pioneer, though limited, research on this proposed relationship. In his study, Irving (2004) administered Laub's (1999) *Organisational Leadership Assessment (OLA)* — viewed as an established measure of servant leadership — and Larson and LaFasto's (1989) *Team Effectiveness Questionnaire (TEQ)* to over 200 team leaders and team members from a broad pool of participants in churches, nonprofits, and businesses through random sampling procedures.

Irving's (2004) study found a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .9807 for the OLA and further explored the relationship between the servant leadership characteristics of the OLA and the characteristics of effective teams in Larson and LaFasto's (2001) Team Effectiveness Questionnaire (TEQ). In Irving's (2004) study the correlation coefficient was .592 (two-tailed Pearson *r* correlation) with a significance value of .000, indicating that the relationship between the two constructs was both substantial and highly significant.

The relationship between the two constructs, servant leadership behaviours, measured by the OLA, and team effectiveness, measured by the TEQ, indicated several important points worthy of consideration. First, the findings supported Irving's (2004) research hypothesis, for $r \neq$, 0. Second, in terms of the acceptance of the research hypothesis, servant leadership becomes an important additional concern for those interested in how teams function effectively. According to Irving (2004), this could be ascribed to servant leadership behaviours that are seen as statistically related to the effective performance of teams. Organisations utilising teams could benefit from paying attention to creating an organisational environment that fosters team effectiveness through servant leadership (Irving, 2004).

While Irving's (2004) study analysed the relationship between servant leadership and team effectiveness at the organisational level, the OLA is not suited for analysing servant leadership at the individual leader level. With Irving's (2005) study, he sought to confirm his 2004 findings with a larger sample size, and in a different not-for-profit organisation - addressing servant leadership not only on the organisational level with the OLA, but also at the individual leader level. Utilising two servant leadership instruments provided a means for Irving (2005) to analyse the relationship between the two constructs (servant leadership and team effectiveness) at both the organisational and the individual leader level.

Regarding trust in teams specifically, De Drue and Van Vianen (2001) argue that teams function effectively when team members have established a trusting team atmosphere, based on liking one another on an interpersonal level, as well as having shared norms and values. Mutual trust in a team is an essential attitudinal component of team effectiveness because it is important for collaborative team functioning, and is conducive to the required adaptive behaviour that a team needs to possess within complex organisational environments (Salas, Burke, Fowlkes & Priest, 2001).

With regards to team commitment, research by Vandenberghe, Bentien and Stinglhamber (2004) established that in addition to a team member's commitment to their team, a team member's commitment to their supervisor and organisation, has a direct influence on the team's level of effectiveness and turnover. If, as Buchen (1998, 2002) argued, servant leadership is associated with the curtailment and redirection of ego and image, reciprocity of leader-follower relationships, and the building of relationships; it appears as if servant leadership would positively relate to the effectiveness of teams, since teams are based on collaborative partnerships.

However, due to the limited research conducted in this area, one of the open areas for research surrounding servant leadership, is its relationship to teams and team effectiveness. Irving (2004) indicates, “the relationship between servant leadership and teams is a promising area for those concerned about the effectiveness of organizational teams. Ongoing work in this area will help to gain a better picture of the terrain of factors contributing to the practice of team effectiveness” (pp. 10-11).

Thus, according to the current research literature, servant-led followers would be expected to be like Kelley’s (1992) effective followers because of a trust investiture in the leader who has proved to be a trusted servant. In light of this, the findings of this proposed research will serve to further the literature on team effectiveness and servant leadership, by addressing this indicated void.

2.16 Conclusions and theoretical support based on the literature review

From the preceding discussions on the respective constructs, it appears that servant leadership is a supportive leadership style, and that it can be expected that servant leadership would be higher if team commitment is higher. However, this would not be the case if the followers (or team) do not trust their (servant) leader. If this appears to be the case, then it could possibly contribute to increased levels of unit effectiveness. Thus, against this argument it was consequently sought to be tested which accordingly led to the formulation of the research questions and propositions for the present study, set down in the following section.

Based on the discussed theoretical foundation and instrumentation, specific research questions guided the present study. Therefore, the purpose of the study was to answer these questions.

2.17 Research questions and propositions

Kerlinger (1992) states that defining propositions or hypotheses as conjectural statements about the relation between two or more variables is very important. However, Kerlinger, (1992) posits that (being scientifically correct) hypotheses should only be stated when experiments are done. For all other types of research, like survey research, propositions – instead of hypotheses – ought to be stated (Kerlinger, 1992). Kerlinger and Lee (2000) argue that there are two primary criteria for good propositions/hypotheses: (a) propositions/hypotheses are statements about the relationships between variables, and (b) propositions/hypotheses carry clear implications for testing the stated relations. Kerlinger and Lee (2000) further postulate the important and indispensable nature of propositions/hypotheses in research; arguing that propositions/hypotheses (a) are the working instruments of theory, (b) can be tested and shown to be probably true or probably false, and (c) are powerful tools for the advancement of knowledge. In order to provide the theoretical basis for the proposed research questions, and propositions, a discussion of the theoretical support found in the literature was presented in the preceding section.

In accordance with the aim of the study and the proposed relationships that are believed to exist between the concepts as stated in Chapter 1, the following research questions and propositions were formulated.

1. What are the content and the structure of the variables included in the study, and to what degree are the measuring instruments portable to a cultural setting different from the original ones in which the instruments were developed? (Proposition 1)

2. What is the relationship between the POB variables of servant leadership, trust, and team commitment? (Propositions 2, 3 & 4)

3. What is the relationship between the POB variables of servant leadership, trust, team commitment, and unit effectiveness? (Proposition 5)

4. What is the relationship between servant leadership, trust, team commitment, biographical, and organisational variables? (Proposition 6)

5. Can a model of sequential relationships among combinations of variables, *viz* servant leadership, follower trust, team commitment and unit effectiveness, within the realm of Positive Organisational Behaviour (POB), be built successfully? (Proposition 7)

Research propositions

To answer these five questions, several propositions were developed that had to be tested, when using a correlational research design with multiple measurements. The reason for this type of design was to determine causal relationships in the identified variables. In addition to identifying the relationships, it becomes possible to understand the dynamic interaction between the variables. In accordance with the aim of the study, and the findings of previous research, the proposed relationships were believed to exist between the constructs. As discussed in the previous sections, the following research propositions were formulated, and used to empirically investigate the research questions.

Proposition one

1. The content of the constructs will be comprehendible to the content identified by the developers of the measuring instruments.
2. There will be interpretable and understandable factor structures for each of the identified construct measures, in a cultural setting different from the one in which the particular instrument was developed.

Proposition two

A significant positive relationship exists between *servant leadership behaviours and follower trust*.

Proposition three

There is a significant positive relationship between *servant leadership behaviours* and the level of *team commitment.*

Proposition four

There is a significant positive relationship between *follower trust* and the level of t*eam commitment.*

Proposition five

Significant positive relationships exist between servant leadership, follower trust, team commitment, and unit effectiveness.

1. Unit effectiveness measured by sales managers (direct supervisors of the sales units in dealerships).
2. Unit effectiveness as assessed by organisation's marketing executives.

Proposition six

A relationship will exist between servant leadership, trust, team commitment, biographical, and organisational variables.

Proposition seven

The proposed conceptual model describing the relationships between servant leadership, follower trust, team commitment, and unit effectiveness, will produce a good fit with the data, outlined in Figure 2.18.

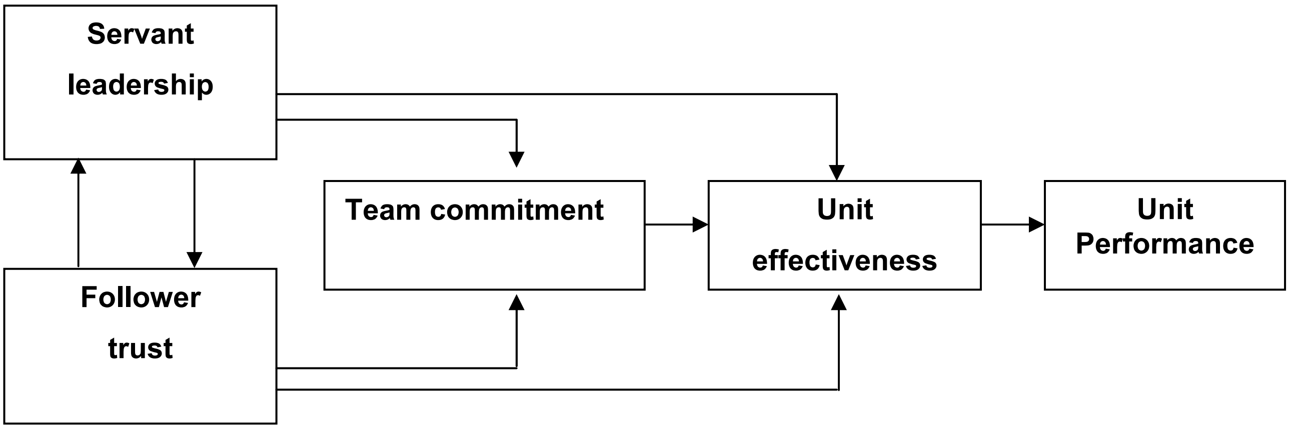

Servant leadership
Follower trust
Team commitment
Unit effectiveness
Unit Performance

Figure 2.18 Proposed model integrating the relationships between servant leadership, follower trust, team commitment, and unit effectiveness

The empirical work done in this study is discussed in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents information on the constructs of:

- Servant leadership, based on the research work of Barbuto and Wheeler (2006);
- Trust, based on the research work of Ferres (2001);
- Team commitment, based on the research of Bennett (1997, 2000); and
- Team effectiveness, based on Larson and LaFasto's (1989) work

within a South African context, specifically in a large national automobile retail company.

3.2 Overview of research design

The aim of the study design was to ensure that accurate empirical evidence was to be obtained that can be interpreted to determine if the research propositions, set for this study could confidently be accepted or rejected. In order to test the propositions, a mainly quantitative research approach was employed, making use of multiple measures. Therefore, to investigate the relationships between the various variables, the research approach took the form of an empirical quantitative design. Given the purpose of the study, a correlative *ex post facto* research approach (Huysamen, 1993) was viewed as the most appropriate. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), this type of study involves the observance of the independent and dependent variables across individuals to establish the extent to which the variables co-vary. This, however, not necessarily implying causality between such variables (Huysamen, 1980).

Another reason for choosing this design was because the constructs that were measured are not one-dimensional, but multi-dimensional. This approach offers strong support to the use of the structural equations model theory, which is used to test the validity of theories about causal relationships between two or more variables that have been studied in a correlational research design (Kerlinger, 1992). The methodological approach to this study was essentially empirical in nature, specifically making use of electronic survey data collection, that is, distributing the questionnaire(s) via email. Due to the nature of the study, bi-variate and multivariate correlation procedures were employed. The researcher therefore used survey research to test the proposed model of servant leadership. While survey research does test perceptions as opposed to 'reality,' it is appropriate for this research since it is individuals' perceptions of leader behaviour that trigger subsequent responses (Ilgen, Fisher & Taylor, 1979).

3.3 Sample design and participants

3.3.1 Research participants

The research was conducted in a large, automobile business – conducting business of a car retailer (i.e. motor franchises, other motor operations like car rentals, e-business, and marketing) and financial services – with 100 dealerships widely dispersed across South Africa. Covering so many outlets, over the widest geographical area, the company has a very large distribution network, which makes their distribution system one of the largest in the industry. The organisation employs 5,340 employees, of whom 907 (almost 1,000) employees are working within the sales division of the organisation. This was one of the main reasons for including the sales division in this study, since the majority of employees are employed within the sales division. The break-down figures of employees employed in each division, is reflected in Table 3.1 below. This break-down is based on the December 2005 figures, for it coincided with the same time when the survey was done. For purposes of the present study, the members of the sales department in each of the 100 dealerships were regarded as sales teams. Sales managers were regarded as team leaders. All the sales teams have been functioning together for at least a year, prior to conducting the study.

Table 3.1 Employee figures for the period December 2005

Job Category Code	Job Category Name	Total
101	SEN EXECS	17
102	EXECS/DIRECTORS	19
103	MANAGERS	190
104	DEPART MANAGERS	417
105	ASST DEPT MNGRS	61
106	FOREMEN NON-PROD	163
107	FOREMEN PRODUCT	37
108	CLERKS > GRD 6	501
109	**SALES - VEHICLE**	**907**
110	SALES - PARTS	235
111	SALES - OTHER	187
112	TECHNICIANS	80
113	JOURNEYMEN	383
114	CLERKS <= GR6	717
115	APPRENTICES	319
116	GEN WORKER-PROD	42
117	R S A/B S A	149
118	DRIVERS	536
119	GEN WORKER-OTHER	360
120	FORECOURT ATTEND	20
Grand Total		**5,340**

It was at the outset of the study decided that certain criteria had to be met by the organisation that was to serve as the research site. Core assets of the research organisation had to include:

- A strong balance sheet, indicative of a stable company;
- Clearly defined and focused business strategies;
- A clearly defined brand;
- Clearly defined work teams and a declared orientation and developed programme towards making teams effective;
- An expressed preference for a “people oriented” leadership orientation;
- A chief Executive known to have a “listen and learn” approach;
- An organisation culture perceived to be multi-facetted and containing individuals from all ethnic groups present in South Africa.

These criteria were established in order to ensure that a stable organisation was to form the research site. It was considered that the research organisation met these criteria to a large extent.

The specific organisation claims to be built on highly ethical business practices and the cornerstone of their philosophy is one of long lasting customer relationships that are founded on trust, reliability, and a sincere commitment to offer world class service.

For validation purposes, Babbie and Mouton (2001) recommend that the psychometric battery used in a study must be administered to a relatively large sample (approximately 100 subjects, depending on the number of tests or instruments in the battery). According to Jöreskog and Sörbom (1996) this number of subjects proves to be sufficient to arrive at credible results when the structural equations modelling approach is used. An attempt was made to get a sample evenly spread between female and male, as well as diverse ethnical respondents. All levels of education were to be represented in the sample, with the majority of the participants being individuals with some completed undergraduate tertiary degree, diploma or certificate.

For the purposes of this research study, the sales manager(s) of a dealership were regarded as the team leader(s). The composition of the teams that were studied, consisting of two to twenty sales persons, i.e. team members, was based on sales persons with email accessibility. These teams have been functioning for at least a year in the organisation.

The researched sample included a total of 531 respondents, constituting 417 responses obtained from sales persons, and 114 from sales managers, from 80 dealerships countrywide. These individuals were identified to take part in the survey, mainly due to all of them having email address accessibility (refer to data procedure section). They are people who work on a daily basis “on the sales’ floor”, selling either used and/or new commercial and/or passenger vehicles.

3.3.2 The sample of sales persons

The sample of sales persons consisted of 96 (23%) females and 321 (77%) males, totalling 417 sales persons. The mean age of sales persons was 36 years. Fifty three percent hold a post-school certificate/diploma or degree, while 43% have completed Standard 10 (Matric) or an equivalent qualification. Their median job tenure (as sales person) was two years. Sixty nine percent of the sample was White; 15% Black; 12% Indian; and 4% Coloured. Forty eight percent use English as their current home language, while 40% stated their current first language to be Afrikaans, and 5% as Zulu. Sixty seven per cent described themselves as Christians, 46% are Protestants, and 21% Catholics.

3.3.3 The sample of sales managers

Of the 114 sales managers, 16 participants were female and 98 male, constituting 14% and 86% respectively, of the sales managers' sample. The managers' mean age was 39 years, and their median number of years, in the position as a manager, was three years. Ethnically the sample was distributed as follows; White 84%; Indian 10%; Black 4%; and Coloured 1%. The majority of participants indicated that their religion is Christian-oriented; 47% of the sales managers are Protestants, and 14% Catholics. Fifty percent of the respondents indicated that their current language is Afrikaans, while 47% use English as their current language. The majority of sales managers (53%) have at least a Standard 10 (Matric) or equivalent qualification, while 47% either have a post-school certificate or diploma or degree.

3.3.4 General sample comments

- **Sample Size -** In terms of confidence in the results, the larger the sample size the better. That is, if the researcher has generated items and is looking to conduct a developmental study to check the validity and reliability of the items, then the larger sample of individuals administered the items, the better (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The larger the sample, the more likely the results will be statistically significant. When conducting factor analysis of the items to test the underlying structure of the construct, the results may be susceptible to sample size effects (Hinkin, 1995). Rummel (1970) recommends an item-to-response ratio range of 1:4, and Schwab (1980) recommends a ratio of 1:10. For example, if a researcher has 20 items s/he is analysing, then the sample size should be anywhere from 80 to 200 respondents. New research in this area has found that a sample size of 150 respondents should be adequate to obtain an accurate exploratory factor analysis solution given that the internal consistency reliability is reasonably strong (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988). An exploratory factor analysis is when there is no a priori conceptualisation of the construct (Nunnally, 1972). A confirmatory factor analysis is when the researcher is attempting to confirm the theoretical conceptualisation put forth in the literature (Nunnally, 1972). In the case of SL, for example, a confirmatory factor analysis would be conducted to see if the items "breakdown" or "sort" into five factors or "dimensions" similar to those suggested by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006). Recent research suggests that a minimum sample size of 200 is necessary for an accurate confirmatory factor solution (Hoelter, 1983).

- The total number of respondents, 417 sales persons and 114 sales managers constituting the sample of the present study, were sufficient to arrive at credible results when using structural equation modelling (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996). This number of subjects has been regarded as fairly representative of the population of sales people in the organisation. Based on Krejcie and Morgan’s (1970) sample size recommendation, this research sample provided a statistically representative sample. Thus, in terms of size and composition, this sample was regarded as adequate for use in a validation study, and scientifically very valuable for partial generalisation purposes.

- Based on previous research results, this organisation has an excellent response rate in-house climate surveys conducted annually response rate, i.e. 84,46 % for 2005.

- An attempt was made to ensure that the sample was demographic representative of the population at large.

- All levels of education were represented, with the majority being those with some completed undergraduate tertiary degree or diploma, but at least twelve years of schooling.

3.4 Measuring instruments

Kozlowski and Klein (2000) discussed the need for researchers to clearly delineate the level of theory and the level of measurement in their research. In this study, the level of theory was the sales department of a dealership (unit), and all the constructs included were conceptualised at the department level. Consistent with the level of theory, all the measures were worded at the department level.

Following guidelines developed by Churchill (1979) and Nunnally (1978) the study design was firstly centred around a ninety four item self-administered electronic questionnaire, delineating the research domain of the specific POB variables, and comprised of the:

- Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) that was based on the work of Barbuto and Wheeler (2006);
- Workplace Trust Survey (WTS), developed by Ferres (2001); and
- Team Commitment Survey developed by Bennett (2000), based on the Organisational Commitment Scale (OCS) developed by Allen and Meyer (1990).

This composite questionnaire was sent to all the sales persons to complete, rating their sales manager's behaviour. Thus, respondents (sales persons) had to assess the level of:

- servant leadership of their supervisor/manager;
- their own trust; and
- their commitment to the team of which they are members.

The sales managers received an eleven item electronic questionnaire, aimed at measuring the sales managers' views on the level of effectiveness of the sales teams under their direction. The Team Effectiveness Questionnaire (TEQ), developed by Larson and LaFasto (1989), was used for assessing this.

Apart from these instruments the composite questionnaire (sent to sales persons and sales managers) also contained demographic questions. Information was sought on the respondent's:

- age;
- time/tenure in her/his current position in the organisation;
- religious orientation;
- ethnic group;
- highest educational qualification;
- mother tongue;
- current home language; and
- gender.

Unit effectiveness was therefore evaluated by means of TEQ completed by sales managers, as well as performance appraisals by marketing executives of dealerships' sales divisions (see Appendix E). Each sales unit was assessed in terms of eight criteria, namely:

- meeting financial goals;
- meeting sales unit targets;
- CSI performance in general;
- effective marketing initiatives;
- development of human talent;
- success with race and gender transformation;
- achieving customer loyalty; and
- effective relationships with other departments.

All of the questionnaires, in its original format, were only available in English. The questionnaires were translated from English into Afrikaans by a professional translator. The Afrikaans questionnaires were then translated back into English to exercise greater control over any inconsistencies, as well as detecting any translation errors that might have occurred. This translation-retranslation approach corresponds with the translation procedure described by Brislin (1970).

The material in the composite questionnaires, and all other material used in the study were translated from English into Afrikaans according to the translation-retranslation approach advocated by Brislin (1970). In the composite questionnaires, instructions and a descriptive test-item example, preceded the relevant items included in the questionnaire, i.e. servant leadership, trust, team commitment, and unit effectiveness.

Data obtained from the 114 sales managers and 417 sales persons included in the present study were used to test the internal consistency, confirm factor structure, and in general determine the portability of the measuring instruments to the South African situation. The latter deems to be a critically important aspect in measurement, specifically with regards to the validity, generalisability, and fairness of a measuring instrument developed and standardised in another country (e.g. a developed country like the USA) and then applied to a totally different cultural setting and context (e.g. a developing country like South Africa). Various South African researchers, among whom Abrahams (2005), de Bruin and Nel (1996), Stead and Watson (1998), and de Bruin and Bernard-Phera (2002) stress that constructs that were developed in, for example, the USA, will not necessarily be valid when used in the South African context. Likewise, research findings in the USA can therefore not necessarily be generalised to contexts that differ substantially from the context in which the research was originally conducted. According to de Bruin and Bernard-Phera (2002) this is why it is important to empirically evaluate the validity of measuring instruments and the relationships between constructs in the new context.

More information on the different instruments follows.

3.4.1 Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ)

Prevailing literature on servant leadership is filled with anecdotal evidence and sometimes appears unclear as to the content of the construct. Although quantitative research on servant leadership has been conducted, the amount of quantitative research on servant leadership remains insufficient and limited in comparison to the theoretical and conceptual views proffered by various authors. Sufficient empirical research is critically needed to test and validate the various aspects of servant leadership and to create further predictions and hypotheses in order to fully develop this (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Farling, Stone & Winston, 1999; Irving, 2004; Russell & Stone, 2002; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). Bowman (1997, p. 245) summarises criticism of servant leadership – that it lacks support from “published, well-designed, empirical research”. Thus, the lack of theoretical underpinnings and no suitable measure, has greatly mired the empirical examination of servant leadership.

Consequently, there appears no consensus on the content of the construct that can be used in empirical research of servant leadership, despite the several conceptual papers on the topic. Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) argue that the majority of research papers have separated servant leadership qualities, but that the work to date has not yet evolved fully, with seemingly more discernment than integration in the literature. As a result, the most accepted views driving the field are those of Greenleaf (1970, 1972) and Spears (1995, 2002). Spears (1995) who extended Greenleaf’s work conveyed ten characteristics of a servant leader. These characteristics are listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualisation, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and community building. However, this work did not connect to or distinguish itself from other scholars’ conceptualisations of leadership. Nonetheless, it did provide the most contiguous portrayal of an articulated framework for what characterises servant leadership (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). Therefore, any operational work on servant leadership by and large begins with Greenleaf’s and/or Spears’s, viewpoints on servant leadership.

Since no empirical operationalisation of servant leadership exists, Barbuto and Wheeler (2002) proposed a framework that included the ten characteristics of Spears (1995) – adding the dimension *calling*, i.e. the natural desire to serve others, which is an essential part of servant leadership, especially in the early works of Greenleaf (e.g. 1970; 1972; 1974; 1996) and other scholars in the field (e.g. Akuchie, 1993; Farling, *et al.,* 1999; Graham, 1991; Polleys, 2002; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) then developed operational definitions and sub-scale items to measure the eleven potential characteristics of servant leadership, in congruence to Spears' (1995) descriptions where appropriate.

The purpose of their study was to develop and validate an instrument that ascertains these eleven characteristics of servant leadership. They followed a process recommended by Hinkin and Schriesheim (1989) and Devellis (1991), beginning with the development of new, conceptually consistent, and theoretical definitions of each of the constructs. Hence, they developed five to seven sample items for each of the eleven characteristics, by following item development strategies (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Devellis, 1991). After having developed the initial 56 items, the authors reviewed them to eliminate difficult or perplexing language and/or grammar. In the process ten to fifteen of the initial items were rewritten or edited prior to continuing. The 56 revised items were then tested for face validity. Thus, face validity of the SLQ was achieved by *a priori* categorisation of the items with an 80% acceptance criterion being used.

To test the psychometric properties of the questionnaire, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) administered it to a sample of 80 elected community leaders (who completed the leader self-report version of the SLQ) and 388 raters (who completed the rater version of the SLQ) from various counties in the Midwest of the USA – all members of a state-wide professional organisation. They conducted a series of exploratory factor analyses, using the data they had collected. A series of extractions guiding factor and item reductions resulted in five factors, as opposed to the eleven Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) had proposed. The reduced set of 23 items grouped into five factors with strong and unique loadings. Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) had labelled the five resulting factors of servant leadership altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organisational stewardship. According to Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) these five dimensions appear to capture the essence of servant leadership – as separate from the more leader-focused construct of transformational leadership. However, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) assert that it appears from their analysis that a refinement of the servant leadership construct is warranted and necessary for research and practice.

In order to determine the internal reliability of the scale, they made use of the SPSS scale internal reliability (alpha) functions, which featured a removal of poor item performance function based on item to total factor correlations (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). The reliabilities of the sub-scales ranged from .82 to .92. The factors correlated substantially with each other. Of the ten correlations between the dimensions, seven were above .50, with five higher than .60.

For the rater version of the SLQ sub-scales, mean item scores ranged from 2.58 to 3.24. The standard deviations of the scores were consistent for the rater version across the five sub-scales, ranging from 0.73 to 0.97.

Hence, maximum likelihood confirmatory factor analysis was used for the estimation. According to Jöreskog and Sörbom (2003) maximum likelihood confirmatory factor analysis makes it possible to assess the goodness of fit of a factor structure to a set of data. In order to assess this, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) conducted LISREL (version 8.54) analyses on the 23 servant leadership items. Initially each item was specified as orthogonal, and each of the five revised sub-scales was treated as not orthogonal. The five factors were set as latent variables. The overall model fit was indicated by the value of chi square (χ^2 (220)=1410.69; p = 0.0). The resulting root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was .010, and the normed fit index (NFI) was .96. The non-normed fit index (NNFI) was .96, the comparative fit index (CFI) was .96, the incremental fit index (IFI) was .96, and the relative fit index (RFI) was .95. The data appear to support the five-factor structure (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006).

Owing to the factor structures and good performance in all validity criteria of the SLQ, it served as indication that the instrument offers value for future research. Largely for this reason the SLQ was used as measuring instrument to assess servant leadership in the present study. Another reason for using the SLQ is the fact that it is possible to assess servant leadership behaviour of individuals (sales managers in this research study) as apposed to measuring servant leadership levels of the organisation, i.e. the (servant) organisation leadership assessment (S)OLA, developed by Laub (1999). This concern was discussed and substantiated in Chapter 2.

Summary of the SLQ

The Rater version of the Servant Leadership Questionnaire, used in the present study consists of 23 items, loading strongly and uniquely on five factors, identified as altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, and organisational stewardship. The internal reliability coefficients of the factors ranged between .82 and .95. The factors correlated substantially with each other. Of the ten correlations between the dimensions, seven were above .50, with five higher than .60. The SLQ consists of a leader self-report version, and a rater version. However, both versions of the SLQ exist of the same questions, with only the frame of reference differing. The former is answered from the leader's perspective on his/her own levels of exhibiting servant leadership, and the latter from the employees perception of his/her leader demonstrating certain servant leadership behaviours.

3.4.2 Workplace Trust Survey (WTS)

Ferres (2001) proposes that trust should be measured at different levels within an organisation, i.e. (a) organisational trust; (b) trust in immediate manager, and (c) trust in co-workers (36-items). On this basis she developed the Workplace Trust Survey to measure trust levels of respondents.

It was decided to use the WTS in the present study, since it rates the trustworthiness of co-workers, immediate managers and the organisation, as well as employees' trust (defined as behavioural intentions). Together, perceptions of trustworthiness and an intention to act on these perceptions would plausibly create a climate of trust. The concept of a “trust climate” is congruent with Argyris' (1986) view of trust as an atmosphere or environment.

The Workplace Trust Survey measures, as separately identified factors, trust in the organisation, trust in the immediate manager, and trust in co-workers/colleagues. The instrument consists of 36 items responded to in terms of a seven point Likert type scale with 12 items loading of items on each of the three sub-scales. Internal reliability coefficients of the three sub-scales were Trust in the organisation .95, Trust in the manager .96 and Trust in colleagues .93.

Descriptive statistics and reliability testing

Table 3.2 presents the mean scores, standard deviations, scale alphas and split-half reliabilities for the Workplace Trust Scale (WTS) factors, the comparative Cook and Wall (1980) trust scales and the dispositional trust control variable. The WTS was divided into a measurement at three organisational levels and the four projected dimensions (cognitive, affective, behavioural, normative).

Table 3.2 ***Mean item scores, standard deviations (SD), reliabilities (α), and split-half reliabilities (rho) for WTS***

Variable	**Mean[abc]**	**SD**	**α**	***rho***
Workplace Trust Scale (WTS)				
Organisation Trust	3.61	1.57	.95	.96
Manager Trust	3.65	1.72	.96	.96
Co-worker Trust	4.96	1.27	.93	.94
Cognitive Trust	4.30	1.43	.90	.84
Affective Trust	4.43	1.37	.89	.85
Behavioural Trust	4.27	1.45	.91	.86
Normative Trust	3.96	1.33	.91	.90
Trust in Managers (Cook and Wall)	3.61	1.73	.93	.90
Trust in Peers (Cook and Wall)	5.44	1.21	.88	.85
Dispositional Trust (NEO) Control Variable	5.59	1.07	.85	.88

[a] Higher scores indicate higher levels for each variable; [b]Scale Range 1 – 7 for each variable; [c]N = 299

Table 3.2 reflects several findings of note. Regarding the WTC scales, it can be seen that Organisation Trust and Manager trust scores fell below the scale midpoint (4), yet Co-Worker trust was above the midpoint. This result is consistent with findings for

Cook and Wall's (1980) scales, which showed a higher value for trust in peers compared to the trust in management score. The table also illustrates comparable means for the cognitive, affective, behavioural and normative scale dimensions. Each was uniformly close to, or just above, the scale midpoint of 4.

The internal reliabilities for the WTS and other scales were consistently high, with coefficient alphas from .85 to .96. The Spearman-Brown correlation coefficients also indicate that the individual WTC scales and other variables studied showed good split-half reliability. In every case, split-half reliabilities were higher than .84.

Factor analysis

A principal component factor analysis was conducted on the 36-item WTS to test its construct validity. The Scree test showed one sizeable factor (eigenvalue = 19.01) followed by three others with eigenvalues of 3.94, 1.9, and 1.1. These four factors explained a total of 72% of the variance in WTS scores. The four selected factors were rotated to oblique simple structure. However, the resultant correlations did not load cleanly onto four factors. Hence a three-factor solution was examined.

However, the results from this factor analytical investigation showed little support for the discriminate affective, cognitive, behavioural, and social normative intent dimensions of the third hypotheses and previous theoretical discussion of the WTS. 14 of the 36 items loaded onto Factor 1. This factor contained two affective, three cognitive, two behavioural, and five normative items. All but two of these items (Item 43 and 46 which have a 'manager' foci) are at the organisational level, and one item (item 15) loaded moderately on both Factors 1 and 3. Apart from these three anomalies, loadings and item descriptions suggested that Factor 1 could be referred to as "Trust in Organisation".

All 12 items loading on Factor 2 relate to trust at a peer level. This factor could be interpreted as "Trust in Co-Workers".

The items strongly loading on Factor 3 all referred to interpersonal trust in a manager and could be referred to as "Trust in Immediate Manager". In this analysis, this factor had uniformly negative coefficients. The sign of the loadings was reversed so that a higher score indicated a higher level of ability across tasks. Similarly, the sign of the factor scores and the scales based on Factor 3 were also changed. This procedure simplifies the presentation and discussion of results while remaining consistent with the substantiative findings (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 1999).

While the internal reliabilities of the emergent factors were very high (all over .94), the factor analysis could be improved by removing the items that did not clearly differentiate between factors (Items 28 and 15), and items that did not show content validity with their relevant factor (i.e. Items 43 and 46 which refer to manager trust within the emergent “Trust in Organisation” factor). From the factor analysis matrix with the remaining 28 items, each item had a loading with just one factor. In addition, each of the three factors was defined by at least nine items. There were three well-defined factors. Again, it was possible to interpret these as Trust in Organisation, Trust in Co-Workers, and Trust in Immediate Manager. Bartlett’s test of sphericity was significant, χ^2 (105) = 9324, *p<.05* and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .96, which can be regarded as very good. These measures indicated that the data was suitable for factor analysis. Internal reliabilities were all over .94 despite the reduction in the number of items.

In part, criterion validity was also established via known-instrument correlational analysis with the existing Cook and Wall (1980) trust measure that has two sub-scales: Trust in Management and Trust in Peers. Very high correlations between the WTS’ Trust in Organisation factor and the Cook and Wall Trust in Management sub-scale supported that both measured trust at an aggregate organisational level. This finding signifies that trust in management – as a group – determines trust in the organisation as a whole. Also, the strong relationship between Cook and Wall’s trust in peers and the WTS’ Trust in Co-workers factor suggested that the WTS appropriately estimated trust in one’s fellow workers.

Summary of the WTS

The Workplace Trust Survey measures, as separately identified factors, trust in the organisation, trust in the immediate manager, and trust in co-workers/colleagues.

The instrument consists of 36 items with 12 items loading on each of the three sub-scales. Internal reliability coefficients of the three sub-scales were Trust in the organisation .95, Trust in the manager .96 and Trust in colleagues .93.

3.4.3 Team Commitment Survey (TCS)

The Team Commitment Survey was developed by Bennett (1997, 2000) by modifying the items in the Allen and Meyer (1990) Organisational Commitment Scale through changing the referent from organisation to team and adding 11 additional items believed to measure team commitment. The rationale for this was that Becker (1992) had argued that it would be incorrect to measure organisation commitment as employees are more likely to be committed to their supervisor, team, union, or another entity than to an organisation that would be far less of a reality to them than other entities would be.

The scale was standardised on a South African sample of individuals at the supervisor/middle management levels in a large number of South African organisations. The resulting scale was found to measure team commitment by the same factors, as identified in the Allen and Meyer instrument, reflecting a three-dimensional structure of commitment and purports to measure (1) affective, (2) calculative, and (3) normative commitment. The *affective* component of organisational commitment refers to employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. The *continuance* component refers to commitment based on the costs that employees associate with leaving the organisation. The *normative* component refers to employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation.

The internal reliability coefficients of the sub-scales are Affective commitment .98, Continuance commitment .87 and Normative commitment .87. The scale consists of 35 items.

Becker (1992) believed that employees were committed to teams and departments, rather than to the organisation in general. This view led Bennett and Boshoff (personal communication, 5 November 2003) to reword the 24 items of the Allen and

Meyer (1990) Organisational Commitment Scale to change the referent subject of the items from “the organisation” to “the team”. They further developed an additional 11 items to the scale to measure the same three dimensions conceptualised by Allen and Meyer (1990). The adapted Team Commitment Scale was thereafter completed, under supervision of the researchers, by 600 middle managers from 50 organisations. The overall scale reliability (the standardised Cronbach alpha) of the questionnaire was .89, while the Cronbach alpha coefficients for the sub-scales were found to be: 1) Affective Commitment: α = .98; 2) Continuance Commitment: α = .87; and 3) Normative Commitment: α = .87.

In their study, Bishop *et al.* (2005) measured team commitment by modifying the short form of the OCQ to refer to the team in lieu of the organisation. In the case, organisational commitment was assessed using the Affective Commitment Scale [ACS] (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Commitment to quality teams was measured by altering the ACS in a manner similar to that which was used with the OCQ. An average Cronbach alpha coefficient of .88 was obtained.

Factor analyses

In a study on the relationship between transformational leadership behaviours, team leader emotional intelligence, and team commitment, Strauss (2004) performed EFAs of the responses to the Team Commitment Questionnaire, using 178 responses to the 35 items. The final factor structure was obtained after three rounds of EFA, and after eliminating ten items, the final factor structure contained 26 items. The EFA yielded three factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1,0: Factor one: eigenvalue = 6.45, explaining 24.79% of the total variance; Factor two: eigenvalue = 4.51, explaining 17.36% of the total variance; and Factor three: eigenvalue = 1.86, explaining 7.17% of the total variance. The three factors together therefore explained 49.32% of the total variance. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the instrument in this study was 0.85 and for the factors as follows: Factor one: α = 0.85, Factor two: α = .80 and Factor three: α = .87. After inspecting the items that loaded meaningfully, the three factors were identified as follows: Factor one = *Affective Commitment*, Factor two = *Continuance Commitment* and Factor three = *Normative Commitment*.

Summary of the TCS

The Team Commitment Survey was developed by modifying the items in the Allen and Meyer (1990) Organisational Commitment Scale through changing the referent from organisation to team and adding 11 additional items believed to measure team commitment. The rationale for this was that Becker (1992) had argued that it would be incorrect to measure organisation commitment as employees are more likely to be committed to their supervisor, team, union, or another entity than to an organisation that would be far less of a reality to them than other entities would be. The resulting scale was found to measure team commitment by the same factors *viz* affective, continuance and normative as identified in the Allen and Meyer instrument. The internal reliability coefficients of the sub-scales are Affective commitment .98, Continuance commitment .87 and Normative commitment .87. The scale consists of 35 items.

3.4.4 Team Effectiveness Questionnaire (TEQ)

Based on Larson and LaFasto's (1989) grounded theory work identifying the essential characteristics of effective teams, the TEQ (Larson & LaFasto, 2001) was developed as a short form providing a single-scale assessment of team effectiveness. Larson and LaFasto (1989) designed the TEQ to measure team effectiveness at the team level, in order to assess the eight factors identified by Larson and LaFasto (1989) as being associated with effective teams. These are: (a) Clear Elevating Goal, (b) Results-Driven Structure, (c) Competent Team Members, (d) Unified Commitment, (e) Collaborative Climate, (f) Standards of Excellence, (g) External Support/Recognition, and (h) Principled Leadership. The TEQ consists of 11 items responded to on seven point scales. Larson and LaFasto (1989) obtained a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .85 for the TEQ.

In his study on servant leadership and the effectiveness of teams, Irving (2005) employed the TEQ, to provide data on the variable of team effectiveness which was utilised to determine correlations between servant leadership at the organisational and individual levels with team effectiveness. Irving (2005) found in his study a

Cronbach alpha coefficient of .8126 for the TEQ research scale, measuring team effectiveness at the team level.

The TEQ was in the present study used to obtain assessments by sales managers of the effectiveness of the sales teams reporting to them.

Alpha coefficients for TEQ Research Scale – Irving 2005 study

In the present study, the alpha coefficients for each of the research scales were calculated in order to confirm the internal reliability of the scales utilised in the study. The following alpha coefficients were found: (a) .9713 for the OLA (Laub, 1999) servant leadership scale, measuring servant leadership at the organisational level; (b) .8230 for the OLA job satisfaction scale, measuring job satisfaction at the individual participant level; (c) .8126 for the TEQ (Larson & LaFasto, 2001), measuring team effectiveness at the team level – based on Larson and LaFasto's (1989) grounded theory work identifying the essential characteristics of effective teams, the TEQ (Larson & LaFasto, 2001) was developed as a short form providing a single-scale assessment of team effectiveness; (d) .9214 for the SLAI (Dennis, 2004) love scale, measuring servant leadership at the individual leader level; (e) .9200 for the SLAI empowerment scale, measuring servant leadership at the individual leader level; (f) .8637 for the SLAI vision scale, measuring servant leadership at the individual leader level; and (g) .9202 for the SLAI humility scale, measuring servant leadership at the individual leader level. A Cronbach alpha coefficient could not be calculated for the SLAI trust scale because it only has two items in the scale. Table 3.3 provides an overview of the alpha coefficients for each of the scales.

Table 3.3 Alpha coefficients for the research scales

Scale	**Cronbach Alpha Coefficient**
OLA — Servant Leadership	.9713
OLA — Job Satisfaction	.8230
TEQ — Team Effectiveness	.8126
SLAI — Love	.9214
SLAI — Empowerment	.9200

SLAI — Humility	.9202
SLAI — Vision	.8637
SLAI — Trust	N/A

The TEQ provided data on the variable of team effectiveness which was utilised to determine correlations between servant leadership at the organisational and individual levels with team effectiveness. Irving (2005) found in his study an alpha coefficient of .813 for the TEQ research scale (Larson & LaFasto, 2001), measuring team effectiveness at the team level.

Summary of the TEQ

The TEQ was developed by Larson and LaFasto (2001) to serve as a single-scale assessment of team effectiveness. The TEQ was designed to measure team effectiveness at the team level, in order to assess the eight factors as identified by Larson and LaFasto (1989) and comprises of 11 items.

3.5 Procedure

3.5.1 Data collection

Access to the members of the population was through their e-mail addresses. Within the biographical section of the composite questionnaire each respondent (whether it was a sales person or manager) had to indicate the dealership they are working at, by choosing their dealership from a provided drop-down list with its corresponding dealership-code. This eliminated the possibility for employees to report their personnel number, which would make a respondent identifiable to the researcher. This ensured total anonymity and confidentiality to the respondents. The only identification the researcher had of the respondents was the dealership-name and dealership code to which a specific participant belongs. This was a crucial aspect of the research design, since this was the only possible way to relate a specific dealership's sales persons to the same dealership's sales manager. As described in the sample design section, sales managers provided ratings of their sales team's effectiveness and sales persons provided ratings of their sales manager’s servant leadership behaviour.

The sales managers of the dealerships received a letter via e-mail in advance from the human resources (HR) director of the company, briefing them about the survey of the present study in which they, as sales managers, and their sales employees were requested to participate (attached as Appendix A). Approximately ten days later both samples of sales managers and sales persons of the 100 dealerships each received an e-mail consisting of:

- a covering letter – attached as Appendix B (which briefly explained the reason for the survey and how to complete the questionnaire); and
- a web-linked address of the composite questionnaire – attached as Appendices C and D for the sales managers and the sales persons, respectively (as described under measuring instruments) comprising of a biographical section, and the three measuring instruments.

Two follow-up e-mails were sent by the HR director to the sales managers requesting prompt completion of the questionnaire (see Appendix E).

All e-mail correspondence was both in English and in Afrikaans. The option existed for the respondent to complete the survey in the language of his/her choice, by clicking on the applicable web-link, which would take them automatically to complete the questionnaire in the language they preferred.

In order to lower error variance, the researcher exercised control by taking into account the following aspects regarding web-based surveying:

- A research website was established. The e-mail addresses of the sales people (sales persons and managers) were obtained from the company. The questionnaire was electronically programmed by a “third party” IT specialist. After a few “dummy runs” the e-survey was launched. Each participant was sent, via his/her e-mail, a link with the on-line survey, comprising of the composite questionnaire. Delivering a survey electronically does not change the basics of surveying. However, there are many advantages to conducting a survey electronically, including turnaround time. In a study to survey employees with web software, making use of their e-mail addresses, the *Metrus Group* found that most responses arrived within a single week (Zatz, 2000).

- Many people respond to their e-mail as soon as they receive it. Thus, a tendency exists for such surveys to be filled out immediately. A corresponding phenomenon was found in the present research study, since a total of 137 questionnaires were received within the first 24-hours of the questionnaires having been sent out. This constituted a 25.80% response rate of the total obtained responses (531) and 17.86% of the total sent questionnaires (767). In the present study only 31 of the 767 email messages sent to potential respondents, could not be delivered. Each questionnaire was sent out as “flagged” with a pop-up reminder to complete the questionnaire. Only three follow-up e-mails were necessary to send (one from the company’s HR Director and two from the researcher), prompting respondents to complete the survey before the set-out due date. The follow-up messages were sent, since it increases the response rate (Zatz, 2000). However, such a message should be short and stress the importance of responding, as was attempted in this research study.

- According to Zats (2000) other advantages include the computer mainly handling the data entry, reducing errors, missing values, and eliminating handwriting issues. It is easier and faster to click on a test-item-option with a mouse than to write a response out by hand. There is no cost for printing or postage, and no waste of paper. Furthermore, field personnel do not miss deadlines due to piles of paper-surveys on their desks. Since the data can be analysed with great speed, the respondents and organisation can receive a summary of the findings in electronic format.

- However, Zats (2000) states that electronic surveys do pose some problems. First, respondents must have access to e-mail. Less obvious is the non-anonymous nature of e-mail. One way to provide anonymity is to use an outside person for data collection, since this individual can analyse and organise the findings, "clean" answers (remove words that would identify specific people), and ensure that questions are well written (as was the case with this research study). The researcher also found that obtaining valid e-mail addresses for all the members of the study population to be one of the greater challenges in conducting this electronic survey.

- In view of the fact that employee concerns are of a more sensitive nature, and given that the information technology division of the participating organisation monitors outgoing, and especially incoming e-mail, more stringent steps had to be taken. When bulk incoming e-mails arrive from an "unknown address", the organisation's server views it as spam e-mail and removes it or returns it to sender. To address this issue the researcher ensured using the web survey on a secure server, which encrypted the survey answers into a database in accordance with coded variables.

- Another concern when using a web survey is the need for careful time-frame planning from the researcher's side, taking into account the predicted response rate, and the sample size required for adequate statistical power (Michalak & Szabo, 1998). This has the implication that participants should be made aware of the deadline(s) for participation, and a time lag between the data collection and data analysis periods should be incorporated into the planned time frame. This is a very important aspect since previous research (Michalak & Szabo, 1998) has shown that responses may continue to be submitted to the research web page some time after deadline announcements.

- Michalak and Szabo (1998) advise of an additional potential problem or disadvantage to bear in mind when conducting research, particularly empirical research, in cyberspace. The dilemma existing in cyberspace is the impossibility to standardise the environment in which the study instrument is administered, for example, arousal rates that vary according to a number of factors, including biochemical influences and natural circadian rhythms. Conversely, in "traditional" research the study instrument may be administered to participants at a given time of day to avoid contamination, or the researcher may attempt to control participants' activities before the study commences (Michalak & Szabo, 1998). However, such variables may be more difficult to control in an Internet-based survey. In order to address these potential problems, the researcher ensured that as much relevant information was collected as possible, such as recording the time of day the study instrument was completed, without impeaching on either confidentiality or anonymity.

- The researcher also ensured thorough communication, prior and while the survey took place, to everyone involved in or participating in the survey. The survey was announced in advance by the HR Director of the company, partly because many people delete messages from individuals they do not recognise, as well as the organisation's server restrictions. The HR Director sent an email message to the designated participants of the research study, i.e. all sales employees. His announcement addressed anonymity and confidentiality, the goals of the survey, the importance of their response, and the collaborating partnership with the researcher.

- Respondents were instructed to complete the entire questionnaire on their own. Respondents were given the opportunity to complete the questionnaires during working hours, whenever they had the time to work on it. The electronic nature of the survey enabled participants to answer the entire questionnaire and hit the "submit" key at the end of the questionnaire. In the event where a question was omitted, the e-questionnaire would not allow the respondent to submit it. When this happened, a pop-up message appeared with the uncompleted question(s) number(s), prompting the respondent to go back and complete it prior to submitting.

According to Andrew, Nonnecke and Preece (2003) web-based surveys are the most applicable format of online data collection, especially when research funds are limited.

3.5.2 Magnitude (intensity) nature of the measures

Magnitude or intensity measures consider how important or how large an experience, feeling or intention seems (Springer, Abell & Hudson, 2002). Thus a response mode relating to the degree of agreement with an item was relevant to the survey. Likert scales are commonly used to measure the magnitude of beliefs, attitudes, and intentions in behavioural research, and consequently a Likert scale was chosen for the composite questionnaire. According to Schepers (1992) the metric properties of items are best maintained when making use of a seven-point measuring scale. A 7-point scale allows for a good range of scores and potentially enhances reliability (Gorsuch, 1997; Springer *et al*., 2002). Also, the midpoint option (4 = "Unsure/Undecided") allowed for the respondent to remain neutral. While some instrument developers prefer to omit this category in favour of a forced choice format, eliminating the neutral position may compromise the goal of the measurement (i.e. to provide respondents, even neutral ones, the chance to report their true attitudes, intentions and perceptions) (Springer *et al*., 2002). A 7-point Likert scale, ranging from "Never" to "Always" and "Strongly disagree" to "Strongly agree", respectively, was used as the response continuum.

In the present research study sales persons had to assess the perceived servant leadership behaviour of their supervisor, their perceived trust, and their commitment to the team. For the servant leadership questionnaire section, sales persons were asked to rate their sales leader (manager), based on behavioural statements, and the degree to which the statements were true for their leader.

Consequently, for the SLQ, scores were based on a seven-point frequency Likert scale, with one being the lowest rating "Never" to seven being the highest, "Always."

Typical items contained in the SLQ were: *"My sales manager sacrifices his/her own interests to meet my needs"*; and *"My sales manager does everything s/he can to serve me"*. All 23 items were retained.

For the trust (WTS) and commitment (TCS) sections of the composite questionnaire, sales persons were asked to rate the level of their trust in their managers, the organisation and their co-workers and their commitment to their sales team, also based on behavioural statements in the different instruments. Scores on the trust and commitment scales were based on seven-point intensity Likert response scales, with one being the lowest rating "Strongly Disagree" to seven being the highest, "Strongly Agree".

A typical item from the original WTS sub-scale for *trust in the organisation*, now included in the combined dimension, was: *"I perform knowing that this dealership will recognise my work"*. An item from the original sub-scale for *trust in the manager* was: *"I proceed on the basis that my sales manager will act in good faith"*.

The second factor, identified as trust in the respondent's co-colleagues/co-workers, consisted of items like: *"I think that my co-workers act reliably from one moment to the next"*; and *"I feel that I can trust my co-workers to do their jobs well"*. Only two of the original scale's items were lost in the factor analysis process, thus 34 items remained.

Regarding the TCS, items in the emotional commitment (affective) dimension came from the original sub-scales measuring moral/normative commitment and affective commitment. Typical items in the new sub-scale were: *"I am happy working in this team"* and *"This team produces the right quality (standard) of work".* Items in the rational (cognitive) dimension all came from the original sub-scale that measured continuance/calculative commitment. Typical items in this scale included: *"It will be costly for me to change from this team now"*; and *"It would be disruptive for me personally if I chose to leave this team right now"*. Eleven of the original 35 items were lost in the process of factor analysis, resulting in 24 items in total.

Sales managers were asked to rate their sales team's effectiveness, largely based on behavioural statements – measured by the TEQ. Scores for team effectiveness were based on a seven-point intensity Likert scale, with one being the lowest rating "Strongly Disagree" to seven being the highest, "Strongly Agree".

Typical items contained in the TEQ were: *"As sales manager, I provide the necessary autonomy to achieve results"*; *"The team exerts pressure on itself to improve* *performance"; and "The team possesses the essential skills and abilities to accomplish the team's objectives"*. All of the original 11 items were retained.

The following aspects were also taken into account and addressed by the researcher:

- The researcher created a sequence of the questions so that they were unbiased. This was achieved by ensuring that the questions asked first did not bias the results of the subsequent questions. Therefore, the items were purposefully organised in a questioning-format, least conducive to the effects of response bias, response-set, and social desirability responses (Schepers, 1992). Similarly, Bhaskaran (2003) warns that by providing too much information, or disclosing the purpose of the study, can create bias. For this reason the researcher attempted to limit the prior in as far as possible, and completely excluded the latter.

- Once the sequence of the test items and questionnaires was established, an introductory text preceding each section of the questionnaire was given. Within this text an example question and answer was stated, explaining exactly what was required of the respondent.

- Bhaskaran (2003) strongly advises that it is always prudent to time the length of the survey. According to Bhaskaran (2003) an electronic survey should take less than fifteen minutes to complete. This was indeed the case with this research study.

Therefore, the e-questionnaires comprising the measuring instruments were self-administered and were confidentially completed by employees with informed consent on a voluntary and anonymous basis during working hours.

3.5.3 Data analysis

The data was analysed by means of quantitative techniques. Due to the correlational design of this research, bivariate and multivariate correlational analyses were also employed, since the interrelationship of more than two variables were in some cases examined (Kaplan & Saccuzo, 2001). The four kinds of multivariate analysis employed in this research study were (a) standard multiple regression analysis (using SPSS Version 13.0), (b) exploratory factor analysis [EFA] (using SPSS Version 13.0), (c) confirmatory factor analysis [CFA] (using LISREL Version 8.54), and (d) structural equation modelling (using LISREL Version 8.54).

Since the measuring instruments, comprising the composite instrument that was used, have all been developed abroad, it was seen as imperative that the measurement equivalence of the different instruments, when used in South Africa, had to be re-assessed. This was done by means of a cross-validation process using exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. The relationships between the variables and their dimensions were assessed by means of regression and multiple regression. Structural equation modelling (SEM) approach was used to assess the fit between the model and the data. Cross-sectional analysis using t-tests, ANOVA, and the Mann-Whitney z test where appropriate and applicable, were also carried out.

Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were used in testing the existence of bi-variate relationships, specifically to determine the strength of the linear relationship between two variables (Anastasi, 1988). These correlation analyses were interpreted based on the scale offered by Guilford (1956): (a) < .20 = slight, almost negligible relationship; (b) .20-.40 = low correlation, definite but small relationship; (c) .40-.70 = moderate correlation, substantial relationship; (d) .70-.90 = high correlation, marked relationship; and (e) > .90 = very high correlation, very dependable relationship. The Guilford classification is a consistent means for interpreting the correlations.

The multivariate analyses of the data included, amongst others, a series of maximum likelihood confirmatory factor analyses, and testing of a structural equation model. Confirmatory factor analysis allows the researcher to evaluate the fit between the postulated model and the observed data (De Bruin & Bernard-Phera, 2002). Structural equation modelling (SEM), also called covariance structure modelling (CSM), was used to perform confirmatory factor analysis in order to assess whether the chosen indicators for each construct did indeed measure the given construct (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1999). Also to address the research question(s), structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to test the antecedent-relationships simultaneously and to see how well the proposed conceptual model fitted the data obtained from the sample (Kelloway, 1998). Model fit is indicated by chi-square and a number of descriptive fit indices. In this regard the researcher relied on a series of fit indexes to explain the covariance between the specified theoretical model and its variables. The following indexes were used in the present study:

- Degrees of freedom (df);
- the Chi-square statistic (Satorra-Bentler);
- the Chi-square/df (Kelloway, 1998);
- the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA; Browne & Cudeck, 1993; Steiger & Lind, 1980);
- the Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006);
- the Normed Fit Index (NFI; Bentler, 1990; Bentler & Bonnet, 1980);
- the Incremental Fit Index (IFI; Bentler, 1980);
- the Relative Fit Index (RFI; Kelloway, 1998);
- the Comparative Fit Index (CFI; Hair *et al.,* 2006);
- the Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI; Kelloway, 1998);
- the standardised Root Mean Residual (RMR; Hair *et al.,* 2006); and
- the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996).

The essential indices that need to be included to assess model fit, are the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the non-normed fit index (NNFI), and the comparative fit index (CFI). The CFI should be above .9, and the χ^2/df ratio below the 2 to 5 range suggested by Marsh and Hocevar (1985) – as indicative of adequate fit. While the RMSEA ought to be above the .08 cut-off recommended by Browne and Cudeck (1993) for adequate fit purposes.The sample size and number of parameters estimated, also influence the choice of fit indices to be used (Arbuckle, 1997; Gerbing & Anderson, 1992; Medsker, Williams & Holahan, 1994; Rigdon, 1996).

The results of these indices serve to indicate whether the data fit the hypothesised model(s) well (Medsker, Williams & Holahan, 1994). Regarding the chi-square statistic, a non-significant chi-square indicates that the model shows a good fit with the obtained data (De Bruin & Bernard-Phera, 2002). This implies that the difference between the original covariance matrix and the matrix that has been reconstructed on the basis of the postulated model, is insignificantly small. Conversely, when the CFA results show that the chi-square (Satorra-Bentler) for a model is statistically significant (e.g. $p < 0.001$), the discrepancy between the data and the model is in such an event greater than expected by chance and the model is therefore unable to reproduce the population covariance matrix (Kelloway, 1998).

However, according to Browne and Cudeck (1993) the chi-square is often too strict a test, for it is unreasonable to expect that any reconstructed matrix of covariance will yield a perfect fit with the original covariance matrix. Additionally, the chi-square statistic is sensitive to, and to a great extent influenced by the sample size. The values of the chi-square test are sensitive to large samples – consequently almost all models would be rejected when samples are larger than 200. However, chi-square (χ^2) expressed in relation to its degrees of freedom (df), can indicate the quality of the fit between a measurement model and the data (Kelloway, 1998). A χ^2/df ratio which falls within the generally accepted standard of between 2 and 5, suggests a good fit (Kelloway, 1998).

Compared to the disadvantageous characteristic of the chi-square's sensitivity to sample size, the RMSEA is influenced to a lesser extent by the size of the sample (De Bruin & Bernard-Phera, 2002). The RMSEA additionally accounts for the complexity of a postulated model and generally gives preference to simpler models, making use of fewer parameters to explain the covariances between the variables (Hair *et al.,* 2006; Steiger, 1990). According to Browne and Cudeck's (1993) formulation, a general guideline is that RMSEA values of .05 and smaller, indicate a close fit between the postulated model and the observed data. Values of .08 and smaller indicate a reasonable fit (Steiger, 1990), and values greater than .08 indicate an unsatisfactory fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). An advantage of the RMSEA is that confidence intervals can be constructed around the point estimations (Steiger, 1990).

A general guideline for the interpretation of the ECVI, NFI, NNFI, IFI, RFI, CFI, AGFI, and GFI is that values of .90 and higher indicate a satisfactory fit between the postulated model and the observed data (Bentler, 1990; Hair *et al.,* 2006). A standardised Root Mean Residual (RMR) value of < 0.05 suggests a good fit (Kelloway, 1998). There are no tests for statistical significance of these indexes, and it is also not possible to construct confidence intervals around the point estimations (De Bruin & Bernard-Phera, 2002).

Confirmatory factor analyses allows for the estimation of the factor pattern coefficients that link the observed variables and the latent variables (De Bruin & Bernard-Phera, 2002). Therefore, the correlations between the latent variables can also be estimated. These analyses were carried out by means of structural equation paths, using LISREL. Each of the postulated models that were tested in the study, is set out in detail in Chapter 4.

3.5.4 Model equivalence

Increased application of SEM as a general method of testing structural relations among variables has been accompanied by a greater awareness of the data analytic problems associated with SEM (Lee & Hershberger, 1990). The results from the testing of measurement and structural models should therefore be interpreted with caution. The reason can be attributed to one problem which has eluded the attention of many researchers (cf Bentler & Chou, 1987; Duncan, 1969, 1975; Stelzl, 1986), and that is model equivalence. Equivalent models are equivalent at a mathematical level, although they have distinct path diagrams and provide different interpretations (Lee & Hershberger, 1990).

According to Lee and Hershberger (1990) model equivalence ought to be considered in empirical research – if not, a best fitting model among alternative models may be interpreted as a plausible model. In *this* case, the term *optimal* model refers to *this* best fitting model (Lee & Hershberger, 1990). But because many distinct models can fit a given data set equally well, there is a need to distinguish the optimal model from a best fitting model (Heise, 1975). The existence of multiple, equally good-fitting models or equivalent models rules out the use of the term *best* fitting model (Lee & Hershberger, 1990). The term *optimal model* is defined as the most theoretically plausible model of the equivalent models which could have generated the data (Lee & Hershberger, 1990). The optimal model will show a very good fit with large sample data however; there will be many implausible models showing this same degree of fit (James, Mulaik, & Brett, 1982). Models are called *equivalent* when they reproduce the same set of covariance matrices (Lee, 1987). Equal fit is a necessary result of model equivalence (Stelzl, 1986). However, equal fit is not proof of model equivalence because fit measures from two models may only appear identical due to rounding error (Lee & Hershberger, 1990). Luijben (in Lee & Hershberger, 1990) presents some conditions for two models of equal fit to be equivalent models.

3.5.5 Item parcelling in structural equation models for optimum solutions

The practice of item parcelling (combining items into small groups of items within scales or sub-scales) has received much recent attention in the SEM literature (Bandalos, 2002; Bandalos & Finney, 2001; Little, Cunningham, Shahar & Widaman, 2002; Nasser & Takahashi, 2003). Holt (2004) states that a reason perhaps for its recent popularity, can be attributed to its potential to serve as a data analysis solution for a variety of data problems, primarily non-normality, small sample sizes, small sample size to variable ratio, and unstable parameter estimates (Bandalos & Finney, 2001). According to Holt (2004) there are as many forms of item parcelling as there are reasons to conduct parcelling. Moreover, some of the proposed methods of item parcelling would appear to be having opposite effects, i.e. creating multidimensional parcels and creating unidimensional parcels (Holt, 2004).

According to Bandalos and Finney (2001) the three most common reasons researchers cite for using item parcelling are to: (a) increase the stability of the parameter estimates (29%), (b) improve the variable to sample size ratio (22.6%), and (c) remedy small sample sizes (21%). However, mixed empirical evidence surround parcelling as a desirable correction to these data problems. In the majority of studies assessing the effectiveness of item parcelling to solve these data problems, item parcelled solutions have been compared to disaggregated analyses without item parcels. In a series of studies, Bagozzi and others reported that parcelling was preferred to disaggregated analyses in most cases, because the measurement error is reduced with parcelled sets of items (Bagozzi & Heatherton, 1994; Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998). Nevertheless, they recommend careful consideration to validity, unidimensionality, and level of specificity when constructing item parcels (Holt, 2004).

Using Sarason’s (1967) reactions to tests instrument, Nasser and Takahashi (2003) examined the behaviour of various fit indices as they varied both the number of parcels, and number of items per parcel. The results of their study supported the use of parcels rather than individual items, and using a strategy to construct item parcels in which there are fewer parcels but more numbers of items per parcel. Nasser and Takahashi (2003) also indicated that solutions from parcelled data with more items per parcel results in more normality, validity, continuity, and reliability than from parcelled data with fewer items per parcel. Though, they indicated that some indices (i.e. χ^2/df and RMSEA) were less consistent, and generally had better fit when more parameters in the model were estimated. Parcelled solutions can be expected to provide better models of fit because (a) they have fewer parameters to estimate, (b) they have fewer chances for residuals to be correlated, and (c) they lead to a reduction in sampling error (MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang & Hong, 1999). Three reasons that parcelling can be advantageous over using the original items include (1) estimating large numbers of items are likely to result in false correlations, (2) subsets of items from a large item pool will likely share specific sources of variance that may not be of primary interest, and (3) solutions from item-level data are less likely to yield stable solutions than solutions from parcels of items (Little, Cunningham, Shahar & Widaman, 2002) However, if the latent construct is not unidimensional, it is likely that the item parcels will also be multidimensional, and that it will be difficult to define what the latent construct actually is (Holt, 2004). Such structure will be a confounding of the primary factor, and may contain systematic variance that is shared across parcels. In sum, when parcelling with multidimensional structures, the parcelling can hide many forms of model misspecification.

In separate simulation studies, Marsh, Hau, Balla and Grayson, (1998) and Yuan, Bentler and Kano (1997), demonstrated that it was advantageous to use parcels rather than using the same number of individual items. Their studies indicated that the fit indices were higher, and results were more likely to yield a proper solution when parcels were used, rather than the same number of individual items (e.g. six parcels versus six items). However, if the total number of individual items were used (e.g. 12 items instead of six 2-item parcels), the individual items were more likely to result in a proper solution (Holt, 2004).

3.5.6 Recommended item parcelling techniques

The preponderance of evidence from applied studies, theoretical studies of item parcelling, and studies with known population structure, indicate that item parcelling can be an advantageous tool in the study of the underlying structure among latent variables (Bagozzi & Heatherton, 1994; Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998; Bandalos, 2002; Bandalos & Finney, 2001; Hall, Snell & Singer-Foust, 1999; Kishton & Widaman, 1994; Lawrence & Dorans, 1987; Little *et al.,* 2002; MacCallum *et al.,* 1999; Manhart, 1996; Marsh *et al.,* 1998; Nasser & Takahashi, 2003; Schau, Stevens, Dauphinee & Del Vecchio, 1995; Thompson & Melancon, 1996; Yuan, Bentler & Kano, 1997).

Item parcelling can reduce the dimensionality and number of parameters estimated, resulting in more stable parameter estimates and proper solutions of model fit (Bagozzi & Heatherton, 1994; Bagozzi & Edwards, 1998; Bandalos & Finney, 2001; Little *et al.,* 2002; MacCallum *et al.,* 1999). Holt (2004) adds that, when original items are severely non-normal or are roughly categorised, then research suggests item parcelling improves the normality and continuity of the indicators and estimates of model fit are enhanced as compared to the original items (Bandalos, 2002; Thompson & Melancon, 1996). Almost all studies seem to correspond on the issue of dimensionality of the item parcels. Meaning, item parcels work best when constructed on unidimensional structures. If secondary structures exist, there is not a consensus on how the items should be parcelled (Holt, 2004). Despite many authors suggesting that the distributed strategy of forming parcels is advantageous because it can improve model fit (cf Kishton & Widaman, 1994; Lawrence & Dorans, 1987; Little *et al.,* 2002; Manhart, 1996; Schau *et al.,* 1995; Thompson & Melancon, 1996), the simulation work in this area clearly indicates that distributed parcelling can often conceal underlying secondary structures and provide misleading indices of model fit (Bandalos, 2002; Hall *et al.,* 1999).

3.6 Summary

In Chapter 3 the composition and nature of the sample were described. Information was given on the characteristics of the measuring instruments and the way in which data was gathered. The approaches to the analyses of the data were outlined and justified in Chapter 3 and the results of the data analyses are presented in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4: PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The data analyses carried out were aimed at answering the research questions and testing the resulting propositions as stated at the end of Chapter 2.

The first research question was concerned with whether the measuring instruments developed in countries other than South Africa could be seen as “portable”, that is, structurally the same when used on the sample of South African participants in the present study, and an attempt was made to investigate the content of the constructs as embodied in the instruments used in the present study. It was therefore decided to investigate the data further by means of exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis.

4.2 Investigation of the servant leadership construct and questionnaire (SLQ)

In terms of the need to determine the contents, validity and reliability of the measuring instruments confirmatory and exploratory factor analyses were carried out on the responses of the participants to the items on the different questionnaires.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was firstly carried out on the participants’ responses to the 23 items in the Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ). The factor structure of the questionnaire as determined by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) was firstly imposed on the participants’ responses. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of the 23-item scale was calculated on the responses of the present sample and was established at .981. The measurement model that was initially subjected to CFA is shown in Figure 4.1, and the results are shown in Table 4.1.

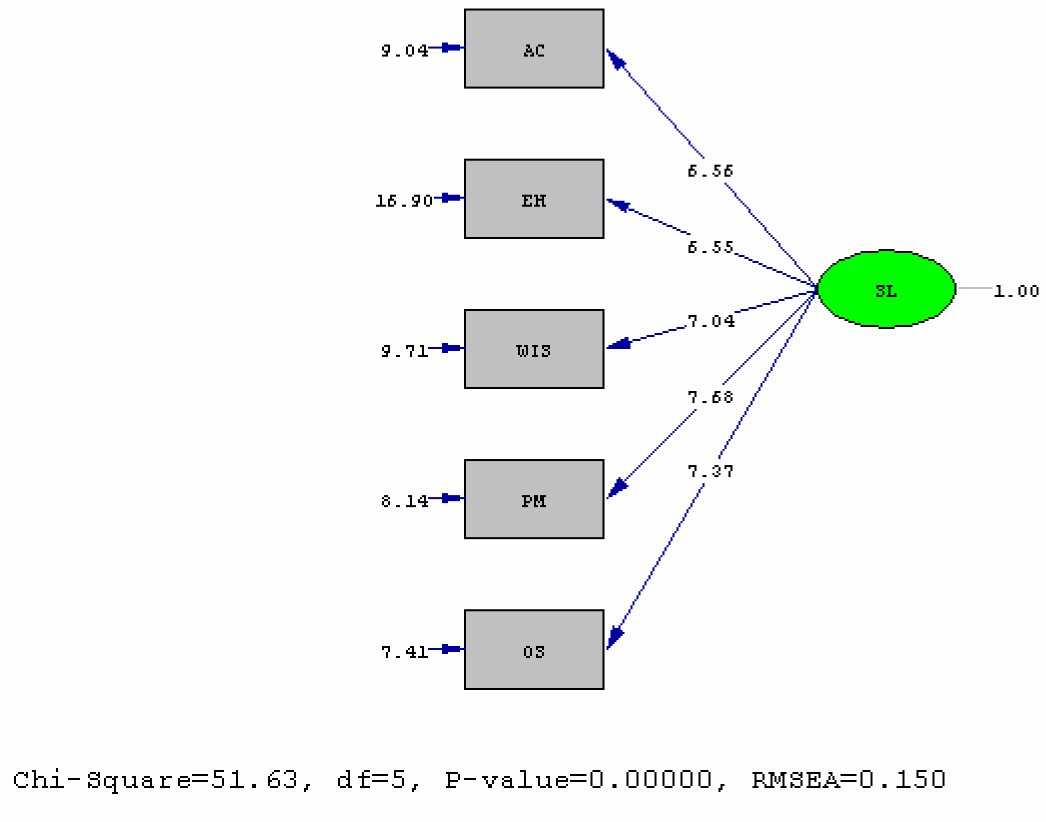

9.04
AC
16.90
EH
9.71
WIS
8.14
PM
7.41
OS
6.56
6.55
7.04
7.68
7.37
SL
1.00
Chi-Square=51.63, df=5, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.150

Figure 4.1 Measurement model: SLQ original structure

Table 4.1 FIT INDICES obtained from CFA of original structure of SLQ (N=417)

Degrees of freedom = 5

Minimum fit function Chi-square = 71,51 (P = 0,00)
Normal theory weighted least square Chi-square = 71,89 (P = 0,00)
Satorra-Bentler scaled Chi-square = 51,63 (P = 0,00)
Chi-square corrected for non-normality = 51,83 (P = 0,00)
Estimated non-centrality parameter (NCP) = 46,63
90 % confidence interval for NCP = (27,19; 73,53)

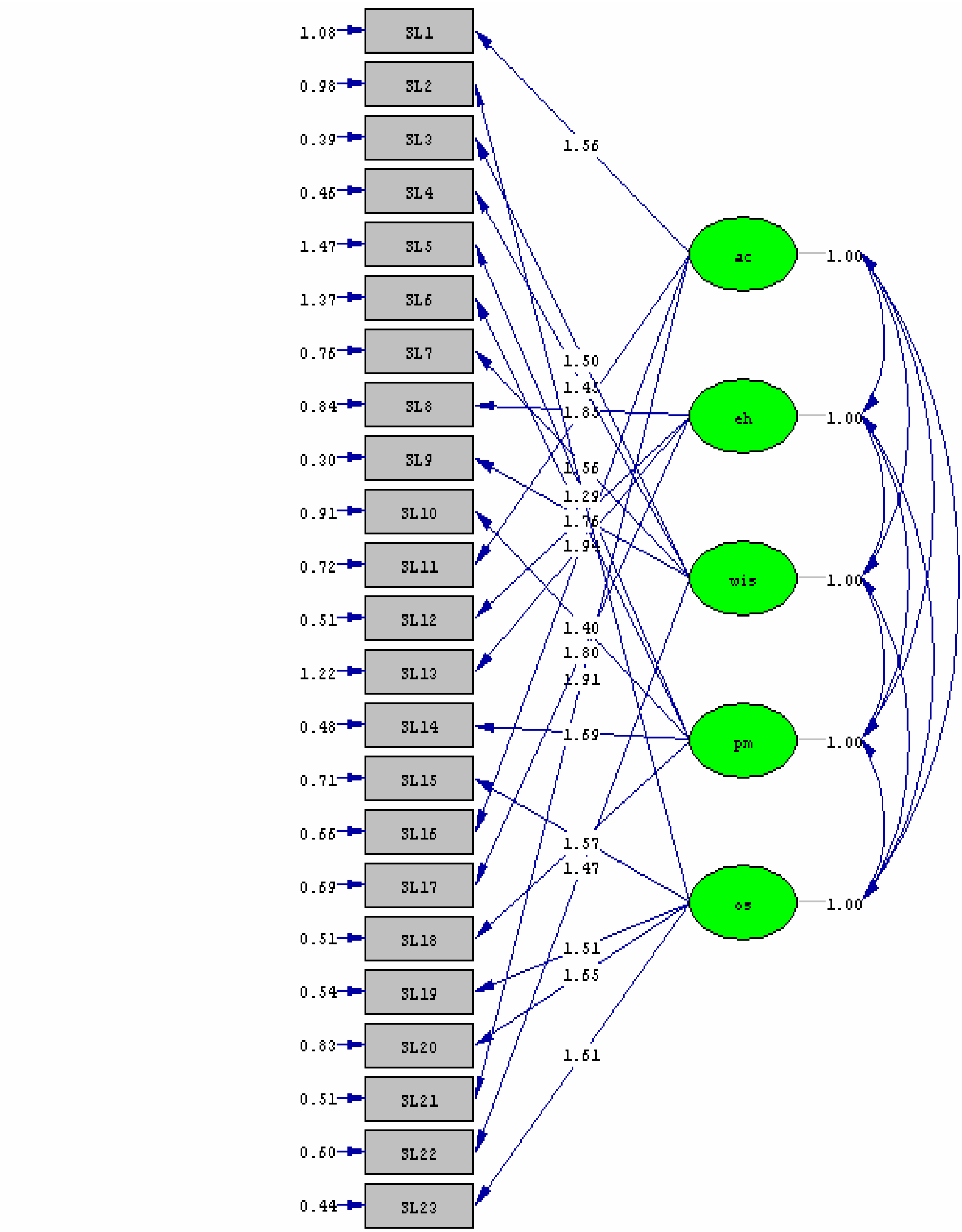
Minimum fit function value = 0,17
Population discrepancy function value (FO) = 0,11
90 % confidence interval for FO – (0,065; 0,18)
Root mean square error for approximation (RMSEA) = 0,15
90 % confidence interval for RMSEA = (0,11; 0,19)
P-value for Test of close fit (RMSEA < 0,05) = 0,00

Expected cross-validation index (ECVI) = 0,17
90 % confidence interval for ECVI = (0,13; 0,24)
ECVI for saturated model = 0,072
ECVI for independence model = 6,87

Chi-square for independence model with 10 df = 2849,92
Independence AIC = 2859,92

Model AIC – 30,00
Saturated AIC = 30,00
Independence CAIC = 2885,09
Model CAIC = 121,96
Saturated CAIC = 105,50
Normed fit index (NFI) = 0,97
Non-normed fit index (NNFI) = 0,95
Parsimony normed fit index (PNFI) = 0,49
Comparative fit index (CFI) = 0,98
Incremental fit index (IFI) = 0,98
Relative fit index (FRI) = 0,95
Critical N (CN) = 88,78
Root mean square residual (RMR) = 1,24
Standardized RMR = 0,021
Goodness of fit index (GFI) = 0,94
Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) = 0,81
Parsimony goodness of fit index (PGFI) = 0,31

The indices shown in the preceding table may represent an overfit between the measurement model and the data. According to Bagozzi and Heatherton (1994) parcelling of items to reduce error variance should only take place when the number of items in a scale or sub-scale exceeds five. In the SLQ the scale consists of only 23 items spread over five factors. The CFA carried out in terms of the model shown in Figure 4.1 and the indices in Table 4.1 therefore may create indices that are possibly inflated. It was therefore decided to repeat the CFA with the individual items in each of the dimensions (factors) of the SLQ as manifest variables. The results are shown in Figure 4.2 and the obtained indices in Table 4.2.


1.08
SL1
0.98
SL2
0.39
SL3
0.46
SL4
1.47
SL5
1.37
SL6
0.76
SL7
0.84
SL8
0.30
SL9
0.91
SL10
0.72
SL11
0.51
SL12
1.22
SL13
0.48
SL14
0.71
SL15
0.66
SL16
0.69
SL17
0.51
SL18
0.54
SL19
0.83
SL20
0.51
SL21
0.60
SL22
0.44
SL23
1.56
1.50
1.45
1.85
1.56
1.29
1.76
1.94
1.40
1.80
1.91
1.69
1.57
1.47
1.51
1.65
1.61
ac
eh
wis
pm
os
1.00
1.00
1.00
1.00
1.00

Chi-Square=786.26, df=220, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.079

Figure 4.2 Measurement model: SLQ original structure – on the 23 individual items

Table 4.2 FIT INDICES obtained from CFA of original structure on the 23 individual items of the SLQ (N=417)

Goodness of Fit Statistics
Degrees of Freedom = 220
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 758.26 (P = 0.0)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square = 786.26 (P = 0.0)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 566.26
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (484.46 ; 655.63)
Minimum Fit Function Value = 1.82
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 1.36
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (1.16 ; 1.58)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.079
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA = (0.073 ; 0.085)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05) = 0.00
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) = 2.16
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI = (1.96 ; 2.37)
ECVI for Saturated Model = 1.33
ECVI for Independence Model = 126.14
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 253 Degrees of Freedom = 52429.36
Independence AIC = 52475.36
Model AIC = 898.26
Saturated AIC = 552.00
Independence CAIC = 52591.12
Model CAIC = 1180.11
Saturated CAIC = 1941.13
Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.99
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.99
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) = 0.86
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.99
Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.99
Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.98
Critical N (CN) = 150.07
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 0.11
Standardised RMR = 0.033
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.86
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.82
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.68

The indices shown in Table 4.2 represent a reasonably good fit between the data and SLQ structure as determined by the instrument's authors, as the instrument has as far as is known not been used previously in South Africa, it was decided to explore the responses of the present sample further by means of EFA and CFA. The very high value of Cronbach alpha (.981) suggested that the instrument may be uni-dimensional rather than five-dimensional. It was also observed that the factors in the instrument as validated by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) correlated quite highly with each other and that fewer than five factors could possibly be present.

It was decided to carry out exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal factor analysis with direct oblimin rotation of the axes on the participants' responses to the 23 items in the questionnaire. The decision rules that were followed to determine the number of factors to be extracted, and the items to be included in each factor were as follows:

- The number of factors to be extracted should not be more than the number of eigenvalues >1.00, according to Kaiser's (1961) criterion.
- An item not loading >0.30 on any factor will be excluded (Field, 2005; Pallant, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).
- An item loading >0.30 on more than one factor will be excluded if the difference between the higher and the lower loading is <0.25 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).
- A Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO index) value closest to 1, indicating that patterns of correlations are relatively compact and therefore factor analysis should present distinct and reliable factors (Field, 2005). The cut-off value utilised in this study was 0.7. Kaiser (cited in Field, 2005) recommends that a value of < .5 is barely acceptable, while values ranging between .7 to .8 can be interpreted as good, values between .8 to .9 indicate great values, and values > .9 signify superb values.
- Significance was measured at the 0.05 level.

The KMO index and the Bartlett's test of sphericity were calculated in order to determine if the identified construct can be (further) factor analysed (Field, 2005). Consequently, these yielded values of respectively 0.975 and a Chi-square value of 12047.137 (df=253, p=000). This was regarded as proof that exploratory factor analysis could be carried out on the responses to the Servant Leadership Questionnaire.

Application of these rules in the first round of EFA resulted in the decision to initially extract two factors. The obtained eigenvalues and a scree plot shown as Figure 4.3 was used as the basis of this decision. Two eigenvalues > 1.00, i.e. 16.49 and 1.21 were obtained.

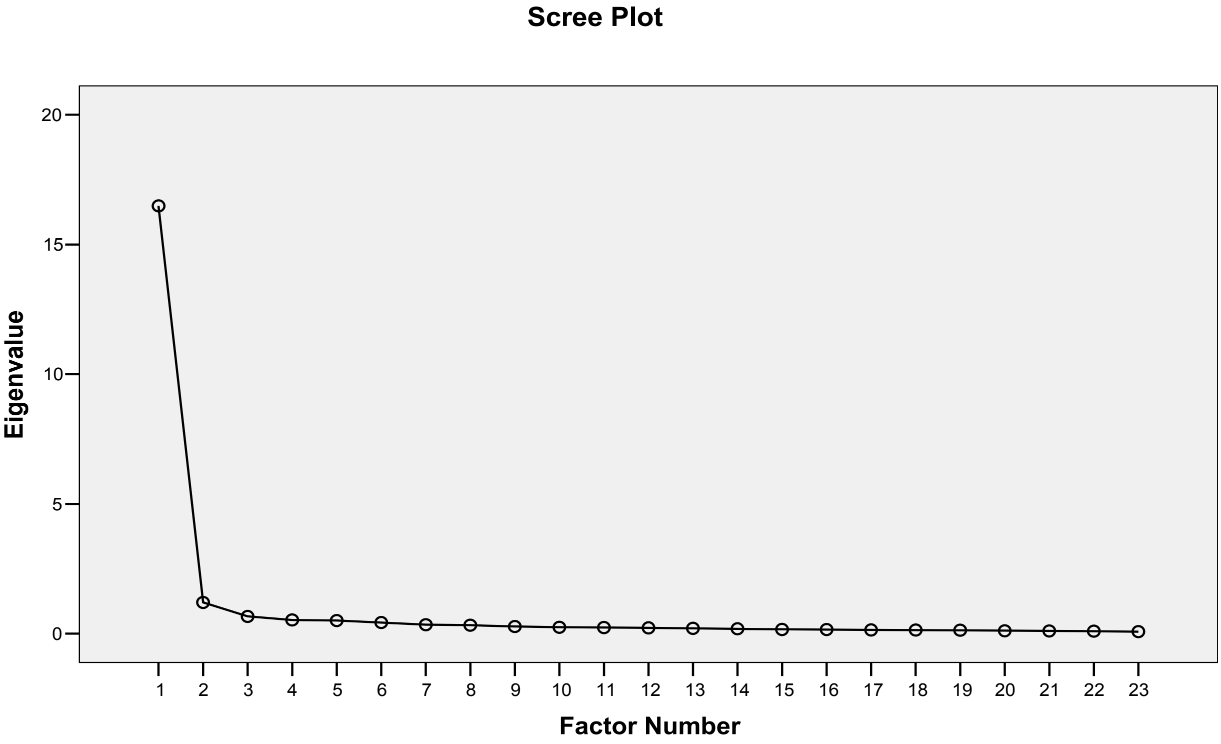


Figure 4.3 Scree plot of eigenvalues: Servant leadership (N=417)

From Figure 4.3 it can be seen that only two eigenvalues > 1.00 were obtained. In the light of the sizeable gap between the first and second eigenvalues it was doubtful whether more than one factor should be extracted. Due to the existence of two eigenvalues > 1.00 two factors were initially extracted and the structure matrix obtained is shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Structure matrix

	Factor	
	1	**2**
SL1	.776	.321
SL2	.768	.126
SL3	.867	-.086
SL4	.839	-.107
SL5	.734	.157
SL6	.828	.240
SL7	.881	.133

SL8	.779	.549
SL9	.894	.002
SL10	.795	.154
SL11	.859	.291
SL12	.800	.628
SL13	.754	.595
SL14	.889	.287
SL15	.850	.197
SL16	.849	.406
SL17	.824	.547
SL18	.883	.282
SL19	.869	.146
SL20	.856	.259
SL21	.879	.425
SL22	.875	.108
SL23	.911	.160

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

From Table 4.3 it can be seen that all the items in the SLQ had loadings higher than .70 on the first factor and that 22 of the 23 items loaded >.75 on factor one. Items 1, 8, 12, 13, 16, 17 and 21 also loaded >.30 on the second factor. Factors one and two respectively explained 71.67% and 5.24% of the total variance. The two factors correlated .238 with each other.

It seemed clear that a two factor solution would not necessarily be a good solution. The developers of the instrument used Principle Components Analysis with an orthogonal rotation of the axes. It was decided to repeat this kind of analysis extracting one component (factor). The result is shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Principle components matrix[a]

	Component 1
SL23	.908
SL14	.897
SL21	.894
SL18	.891
SL9	.880
SL7	.879
SL22	.872
SL11	.870
SL19	.869
SL16	.867
SL20	.865

SL15	.856
SL17	.849
SL3	.848
SL6	.839
SL12	.828
SL4	.821
SL8	.807
SL10	.803
SL1	.796
SL13	.785
SL2	.776
SL5	.747

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a 1 components extracted.

From Table 4.4 it can be seen that all the items loaded satisfactorily on a single factor when principal components extraction was used. Only two eigenvalues > 1.00 were present with a very large gap between the values of the first and second eigenvalues. This made it unlikely that the five factor structure found by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) could be replicated on the responses of the present sample – even when the same extraction and rotation procedures were to be followed. Principal axes factoring and an oblique rotation are regarded as more appropriate procedures to determine the underlying dimensions in a data set (Gorsuch, 1997). It was therefore decided to extract one factor by means of principal factor analysis. The results are shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Factor matrix[a]

Item Number	Wording of items	Factor 1
	My sales manager:	
SL23	will make a positive difference in the future.	.906
SL14	is good at convincing me to do things.	.894
SL21	goes above and beyond the call of duty to meet my needs.	.891
SL18	is gifted when it comes to persuading me.	.887
SL9	manager has great awareness of what is going on.	.875
SL7	is good at anticipating the consequences of decisions.	.875
SL22	seems to know what is going to happen.	.866
SL11	does everything s/he can to serve me.	.864
SL19	is gifted when it comes to persuading me.	.863
SL16	sacrifices his/her own interests to meet my needs.	.860
SL20	encourages me to have a community spirit at work.	.859
SL15	believes our organisation needs to function as a community.	.849
SL17	could help me mend my feelings of resentments.	.841
SL3	seems very in touch with what is going on.	.841
SL6	encourages me to dream "big dreams" about the organisation.	.830

SL12	is talented at helping me to heal emotionally.	.819
SL4	seems alert to what is happening.	.811
SL8	is good at helping me with my emotional issues.	.796
SL10	is very persuasive.	.792
SL1	puts my interests ahead of his/her own.	.784
SL13	is one I would turn to if I had a personal trauma.	.773
SL2	believes the organisation should play a moral role in society.	.763
SL5	offers compelling reasons to get me to do things.	.733

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
a 1 factors extracted. 3 iterations required.

All the items, as can be seen in Table 4.5 loaded .70 or higher on the one factor extracted. The single factor explained 71.67% of the total variance. The Cronbach alpha of the uni-dimensional scale was .981. It seemed unlikely that the measure extracted consisted of more than one dimension.

The next step in these analyses was to carry out a CFA on the uni-dimensional structure. In line with the findings of Bagozzi and Heatherton (1994) the items in the questionnaire were randomly grouped into parcels. The CFA was then carried out on the items (grouped into five parcels) as the observed variables – into parcels – as advocated by Bagozzi and Heatherton (1994). The measurement model of the new structure is shown in Figure 4.4 (and the indices obtained from this analysis are shown in Table 4.6).

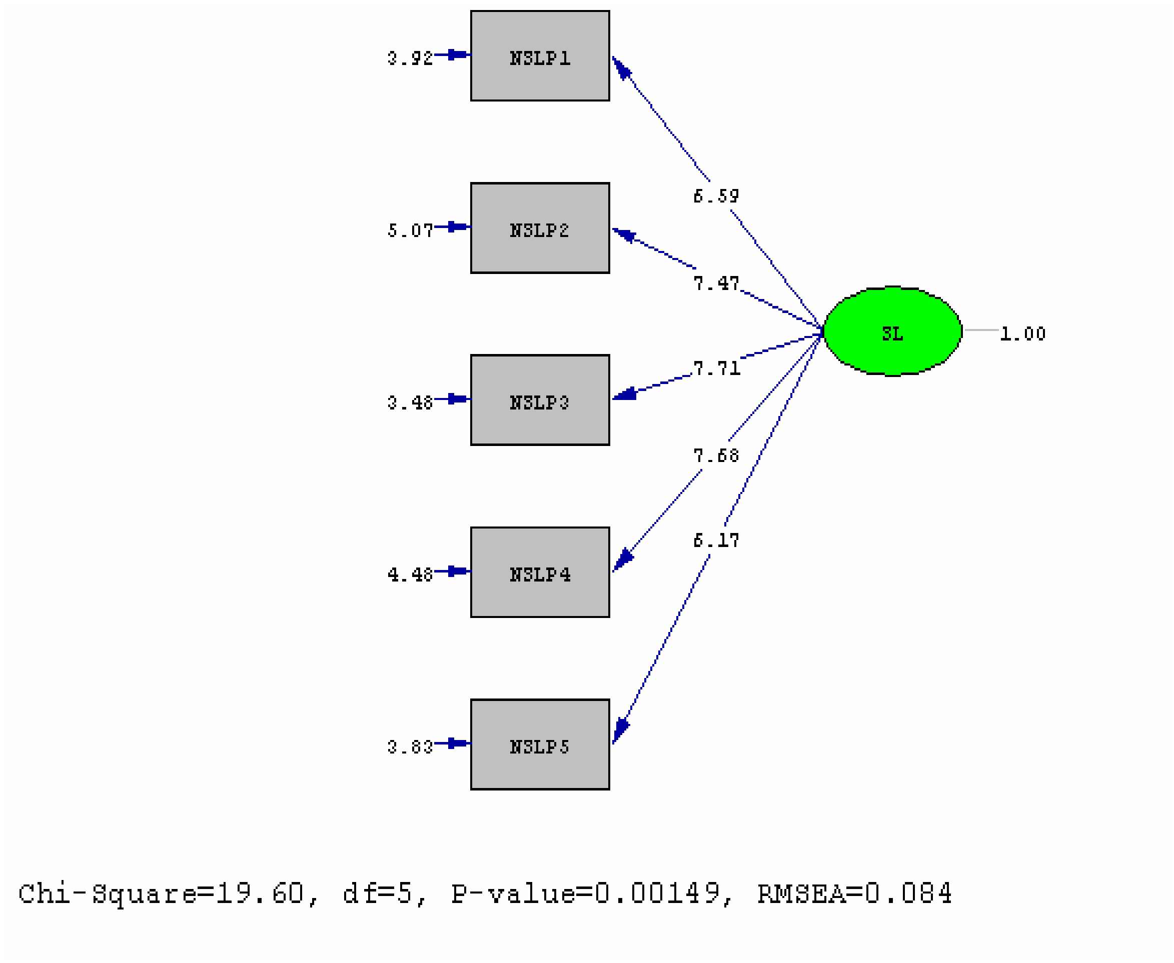

3.92
NSLP1
5.07
NSLP2
3.48
NSLP3
4.48
NSLP4
3.83
NSLP5
6.59
7.47
7.71
7.68
6.17
SL
1.00
Chi-Square=19.60, df=5, P-value=0.00149, RMSEA=0.084

Figure 4.4 Measurement model: SLQ new structure

Table 4.6 Indices obtained from CFA on uni-dimensional (new) SLQ structure (N=417)

Degrees of freedom = 5
Minimum fit function Chi-square = 27,74 (P = 0,00)
Normal theory weighted least square Chi-square = 26,69 (P = 0,00)
Satorra-Bentler scaled Chi-square = 19,60 (P = 0,00) (divided by df = 3.92)
Chi-square corrected for non-normality = 19,70 (P = 0,00)
Estimated non-centrality parameter (NCP) = 14,60
90 % confidence interval for NCP = (4,58; 32,16)
Minimum fit function value = 0,067
Population discrepancy function value (FO) = 0,035
90 % confidence interval for FO = (0,011; 0,077)
Root mean square error for approximation (RMSEA) = 0,084
90 % confidence interval for RMSEA = (0,047; 0,12)
P-value for Test of close fit (RMSEA < 0,05) = 0,64
Expected cross0-validation index (ECVI) = 0,095
90 % confidence interval for ECVI = (0,071;0,14)
ECVI for saturated model = 0,072

ECVI for independence model = 8,55
Chi-square for independence model with 10 df = 3546,84
Independence AIC = 3556,84
Model AIC = 39,60
Saturated AIC = 30,00
Independence CAIC = 3582,01
Model CAIC = 89,93
Saturated CAIC = 105,50
Normed fit index (NFI) = 0,99
Non-normed fit index (NNFI) = 0,99
Parsimony normed fit index (PNFI) = 0,50
Comparative fit index (CFI) = 0,99
Incremental fit index (IFI) = 0,99
Relative fit index (RFI) = 0,98
Critical N (CN) = 227,27
Root mean square residual (RMR) = 0,27
Standardised RMR = 0,0054
Goodness of fit index (GFI) = 0,97
Adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) = 0,92
Parsimony goodness of fit index (PGFI) = 0,32

A comparison of the indices in Tables 4.1 and 4.2 (original structure) and Table 4.6 (new structure) indicates that if all the indices are taken into account, the new uni-dimensional structure possibly represents a better fit with the data than the five factor structure defined by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006). The uni-dimensional structure was therefore used in further analyses. The EFA results seem to indicate relatively clearly that only one dimension (factor) could be identified as only one eigenvalue substantially > 1.00 was present.

To determine the stability of the uni-dimensional measurement model and to investigate the degree of invariance or variance when the redeveloped measurement model is applied to different samples, further analyses were carried out. For this purpose the sample (N = 417) was randomly divided into two, respectively N_1 = 208 and N_2 = 209. The analyses were subsequently carried out separately for all the different measuring instruments. The two sub-samples seemed to be equivalent. Relevant statistics for the scores on the SLQ were: Random sub-sample one: M = 113.996, SD = 35.746, Range = 138. Random sub-sample two: M = 111.727, SD = 36.10, Range = 137.

As a first step CFA was carried out on the responses to the SLQ of the members of the two sub-samples. The obtained indices are shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Indices obtained from CFA on SLQ responses (N_1 = 208, N_2 = 209)

	Random sample 1 (RS1)	**Random sample 2 (RS2)**
Degrees of Freedom	5	5
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	13.91 (P = 0.016)	18.24 (P = 0.0027)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	14.12 (P = 0.015)	17.86 (P = 0.0031)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	11.09 (P = 0.050) (2.21)	16.09 (P = 0.0066) (3.22)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	11.43 (P = 0.043)	16.22 (P = 0.0062)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	6.09	11.09
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	(0.0068 ; 19.80)	2.55 ; 27.21
Minimum Fit Function Value	0.067	0.088
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	0.029	0.053
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	0.00 ; 0.096	0.012 ; 0.13
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.077	0.10
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	0.0026 ; 0.14	0.049 ; 0.16
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	0.19	0.051
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	0.15	0.17
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	0.12 ; 0.22	0.13 ; 0.25
ECVI for Saturated Model	0.14	0.14
ECVI for Independence Model	8.75	8.22
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 10 Degrees of Freedom	1801.07	1700.59
Independence AIC	1811.07	1710.59
Model AIC	31.09	36.09
Saturated AIC	30.00	30.00
Independence CAIC	1832.76	1732.30
Model CAIC	74.46	79.52
Saturated CAIC	95.06	95.14
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.99	0.99
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.99	0.98
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.50	0.49
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	1.00	0.99
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	1.00	0.99
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.98	0.98
Critical N (CN)	225.59	173.02

Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	0.26	0.42
Standardised RMR	0.0046	0.0085
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.97	0.97
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	0.92	0.90
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI)	0.32	0.32

Depicted in Figures 4.5 and 4.6 below are the respective measurement models for the two random sub-samples.

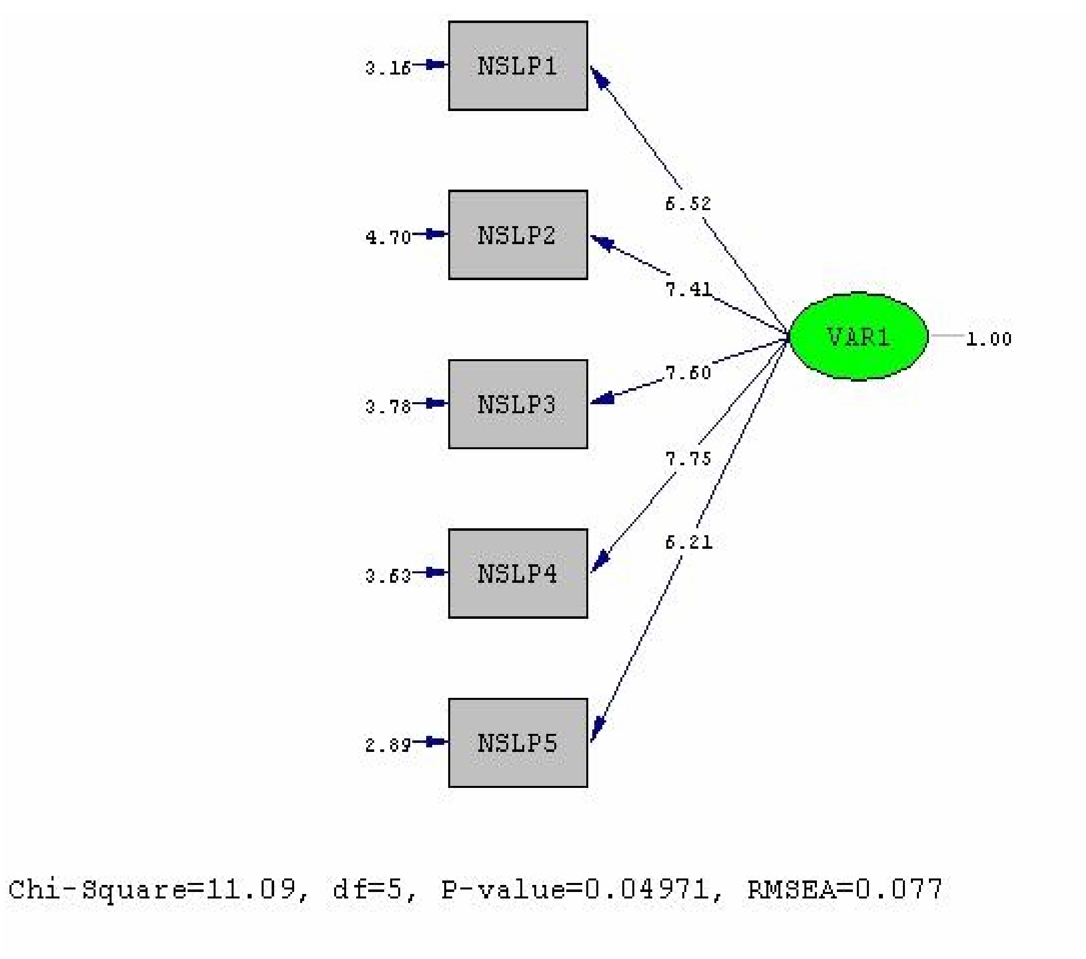

3.16
NSLP1
4.70
NSLP2
3.78
NSLP3
3.63
NSLP4
2.89
NSLP5
6.52
7.41
7.60
7.75
6.21
VAR1
1.00
Chi-Square=11.09, df=5, P-value=0.04971, RMSEA=0.077

Figure 4.5 Measurement model of servant leadership: Random sample one

Below follows the next measurement model of random sample two.

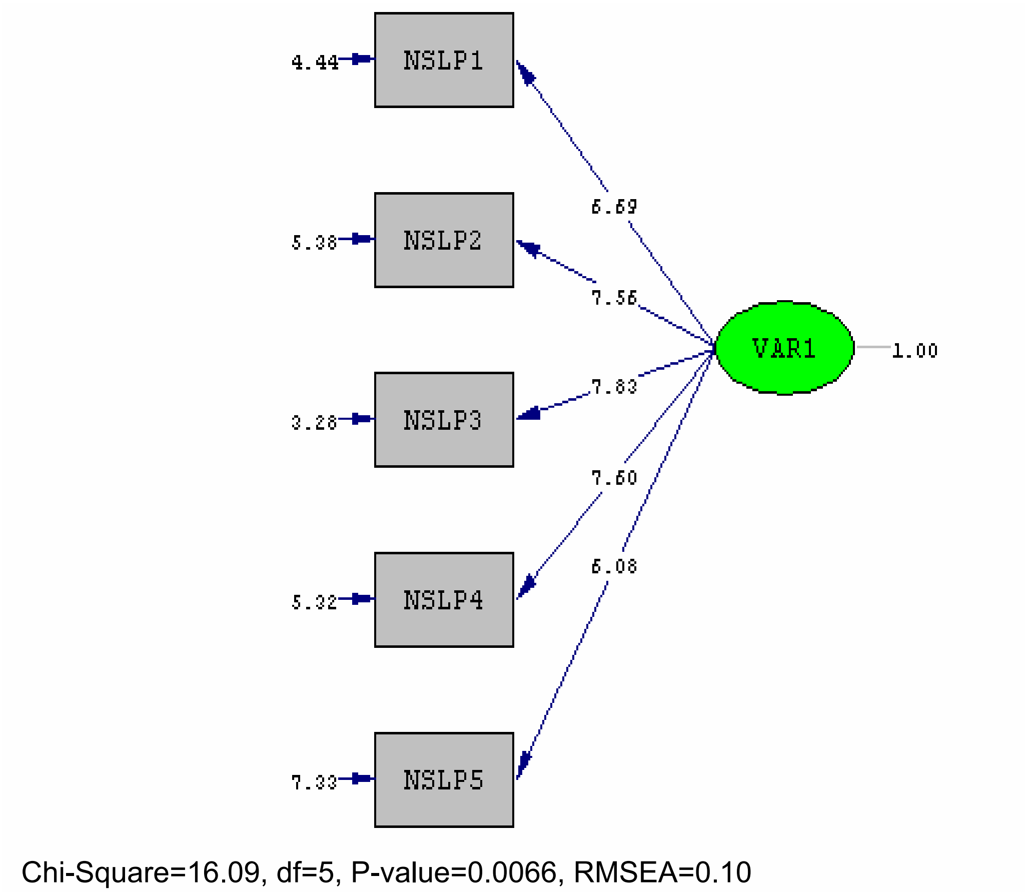

4.44
NSLP1
5.38
NSLP2
3.28
NSLP3
5.32
NSLP4
7.33
NSLP5
6.69
7.56
7.83
7.60
6.08
VAR1
1.00
Chi-Square=16.09, df=5, P-value=0.0066, RMSEA=0.10

Figure 4.6 Measurement model of servant leadership: Random sample two

From Table 4.7 it seems as if the indices indicate that the uni-dimensional measurement model fitted the data in sub-samples one and two relatively well.

To determine whether the measurement was invariant over the two samples a further CFA was carried out. In this analysis the two sub-samples were regarded as independent from each other. The variances were firstly constrained and secondly unconstrained. The indices obtained from these two CFAs are shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Indices obtained from CFA (Independent samples: Constrained/Unconstrained)

	All Parameters Constrained (H_0)	**No Constraints on Parameters (H_a)**
	Global Goodness of Fit Statistics	
Degrees of Freedom	20	12

Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	79.66 (P = 0.00)	67.12 (P = 0.00)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	81.69 (P = 0.00)	64.26 (P = 0.00)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	93.46 (P = 0.00)	68.44 (P = 0.00)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	150.21 (P = 0.0)	88.06 (P = 0.00)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	73.46	56.44
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	47.09 ; 107.36	34.10 ; 86.29
Minimum Fit Function Value	0.19	0.16
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	0.18	0.14
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	0.11 ; 0.26	0.082 ; 0.21
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.13	0.15
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	0.11 ; 0.16	0.12 ; 0.19
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	0.0037	0.0033
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	0.27	0.25
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	0.21 ; 0.36	0.20 ; 0.32
ECVI for Saturated Model	0.072	0.072
ECVI for Independence Model	8.46	8.46
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 20 Degrees of Freedom	3501.66	3501.66
Independence AIC	3521.66	3521.66
Model AIC	113.46	104.44
Saturated AIC	60.00	60.00
Independence CAIC	3571.99	3571.99
Model CAIC	163.79	195.03
Saturated CAIC	210.99	210.99
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.98	0.98
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.98	0.97
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.98	0.59
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.98	0.98
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.98	0.98
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.98	0.97
Critical N (CN)	196.70	163.10
	Group Goodness of Fit Statistics	
Contribution to Chi-Square	36.42	33.49
Percentage Contribution to Chi-Square	45.72	49.89
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	1.11	3.08
Standardised RMR	0.021	0.056
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.93	0.94

From Table 4.8 the values of χ^2 were analysed further. The results are shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Comparisons of χ^2 values when variances are constrained/not constrained

	Servant leadership: RS 1 and RS 2 Simultaneously	
	All Parameters Constrained (H_0)	**No Constraints on Parameters (H_a)**
χ^2	93.46	68.44
df	20	12
RMSEA	0.13	0.151
NFI	0.98	0.98
CFI	0.98	0.98
Difference in χ^2 Between H_0 and H_a	25.02	
Critical Value $\chi^2_{(8;\ 0.05)}$	15.507	
Significant	Yes	

Table 4.9 is a summary of the results of analysis to determine the equivalence of the measurement model for servant leadership across random sample one and random sample two. From Table 4.9 it can be seen that the difference between the values of χ^2 (25.02) was higher than the critical value (15.507). It can be concluded that the SLQ is probably not invariant (thus variant, i.e. different) across the two different sub-samples.

4.3 Examination of the trust construct and Workplace Trust Questionnaire (WTS)

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out on the participants' responses to the 36 items in the Workplace Trust Survey (WTS), developed by Ferres (2001). The pre-factor structure of the questionnaire as determined by Ferres (2001) was imposed on the participants' (N = 417) responses. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of the 36-item instrument was calculated on the responses of the present sample and was established at .976. The measurement model of the original structure of the WTS is shown in Figure 4.7 and the results are shown in Table 4.10. The items in the questionnaire were again randomly grouped into parcels as advocated by Bagozzi and Heatherton (1994).

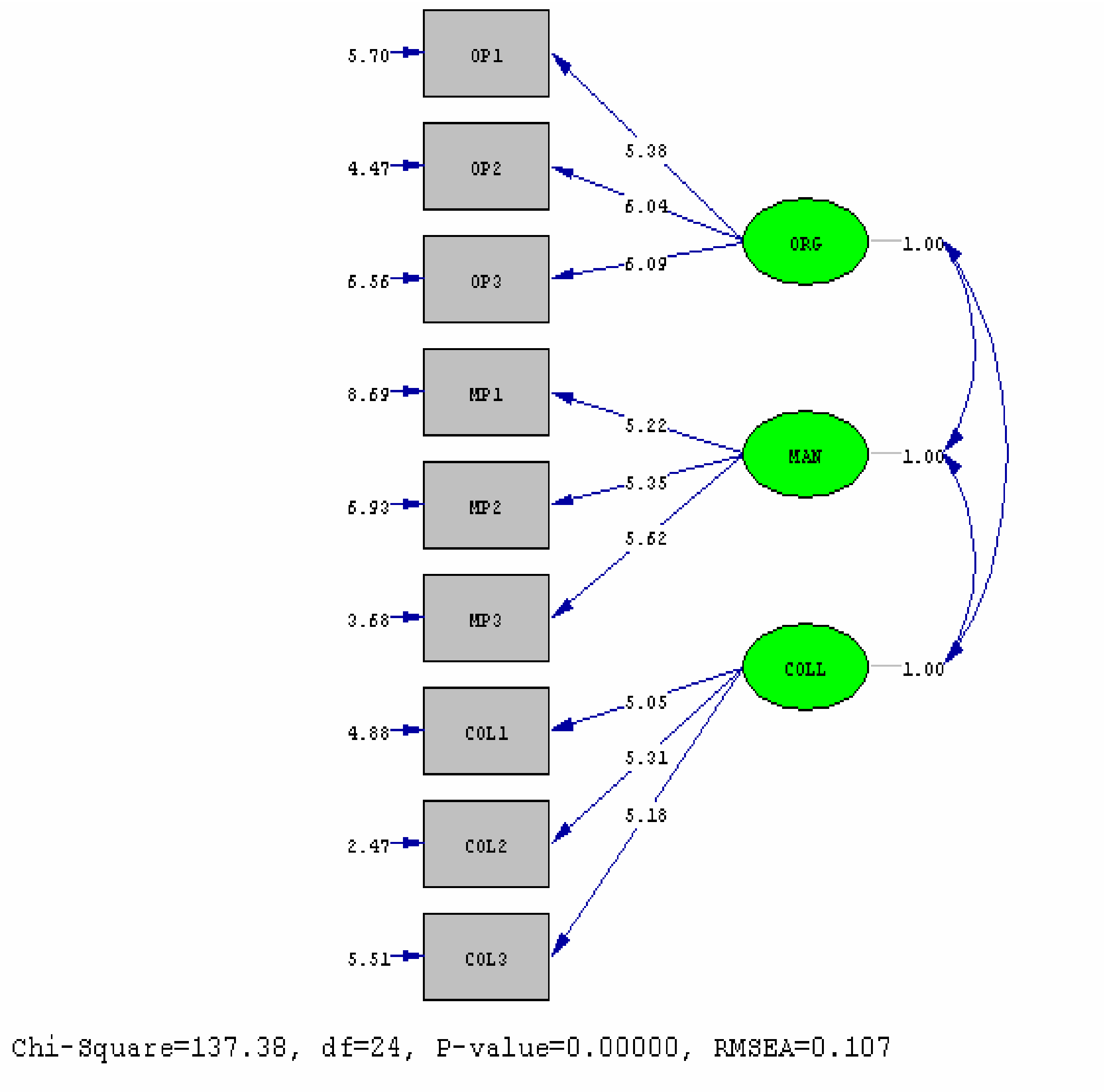

5.70
OP1
4.47
OP2
6.56
OP3
8.69
MP1
6.93
MP2
3.68
MP3
4.88
COL1
2.47
COL2
5.51
COL3
5.38
6.04
6.09
5.22
5.35
5.62
5.05
5.31
5.18
ORG
MAN
COLL
1.00
1.00
1.00
Chi-Square=137.38, df=24, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.107

Figure 4.7 Measurement model: WTS original structure

Table 4.10 FIT INDICES obtained from CFA of original structure of WTS (N=417)

Degrees of Freedom = 24
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 212.79 (P = 0.0)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square = 226.04 (P = 0.0)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square = 137.38 (P = 0.0) (divided by df = 5.72)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality = 89.95 (P = 0.00)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 113.38
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (80.23 ; 154.04)
Minimum Fit Function Value = 0.51
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 0.27
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (0.19 ; 0.37)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.11
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA = (0.090 ; 0.12)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05) = 0.00

Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) = 0.43
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI = (0.35 ; 0.53)
ECVI for Saturated Model = 0.22
ECVI for Independence Model = 16.54
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 36 Degrees of Freedom = 6864.18
Independence AIC = 6882.18
Model AIC = 179.38
Saturated AIC = 90.00
Independence CAIC = 6927.48
Model CAIC = 285.07
Saturated CAIC = 316.49
Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.97
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.96
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) = 0.65
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.97
Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.97
Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.95
Critical N (CN) = 85.02
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 1.28
Standardised RMR = 0.036
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.89
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.80
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.48

The indices shown in Table 4.10 do not represent a very good fit between the WTS structure as determined by the instrument’s author and the responses of the present sample. The goodness of fit (GOF) indices on the original structure yielded values of RMSEA = 0.11, SRMR = 0.036, GFI = 0.89, AGFI = 0.80, and ECVI = 0.43 (useful for comparison with other CFA results). From this, it was concluded that a not satisfactory fit between the original structure and the responses of the present sample exists.

The unsatisfactory fit between the data and the three-dimensional structure of the WTS determined by Ferris (2001) led to a decision to explore the data on the WTS further. It was decided to carry out exploratory factor analysis (EFA) using principal factor analysis with oblique rotation of the axes on the participants’ responses to the 36 items in the questionnaire. The decision rules that were followed to determine the number of factors to be extracted, and the items to be included were the same as when similar analyses were done on the responses to the SLQ.

The KMO index and the Bartlett's test of sphericity were calculated and yielded values of respectively 0.969 and a Chi-square value of 16138.420 (df=630, p=000). This was regarded as proof that exploratory factor analysis (EFA) could be carried out on the responses to the Workplace Trust Survey.

Application of these rules in the first round of EFA resulted in the decision to initially extract three factors. A scree plot shown as Figure 4.8 was used as the basis of this decision. Factors were retained based on eigenvalues > 1 and a scree test which plots eigenvalues on the y-axis and factors on the x-axis. The ''elbow'' of the resulting curve, where additional retained factors would explain less additional variance, helps define the number of factors that should be retained in subsequent analyses, as seen in Figure 4.8 (Kim & Mueller 1978, p. 44), and formed into scales based on factor loadings, the avoidance of duplicative items, and inclusion of diverse elements of the concept.

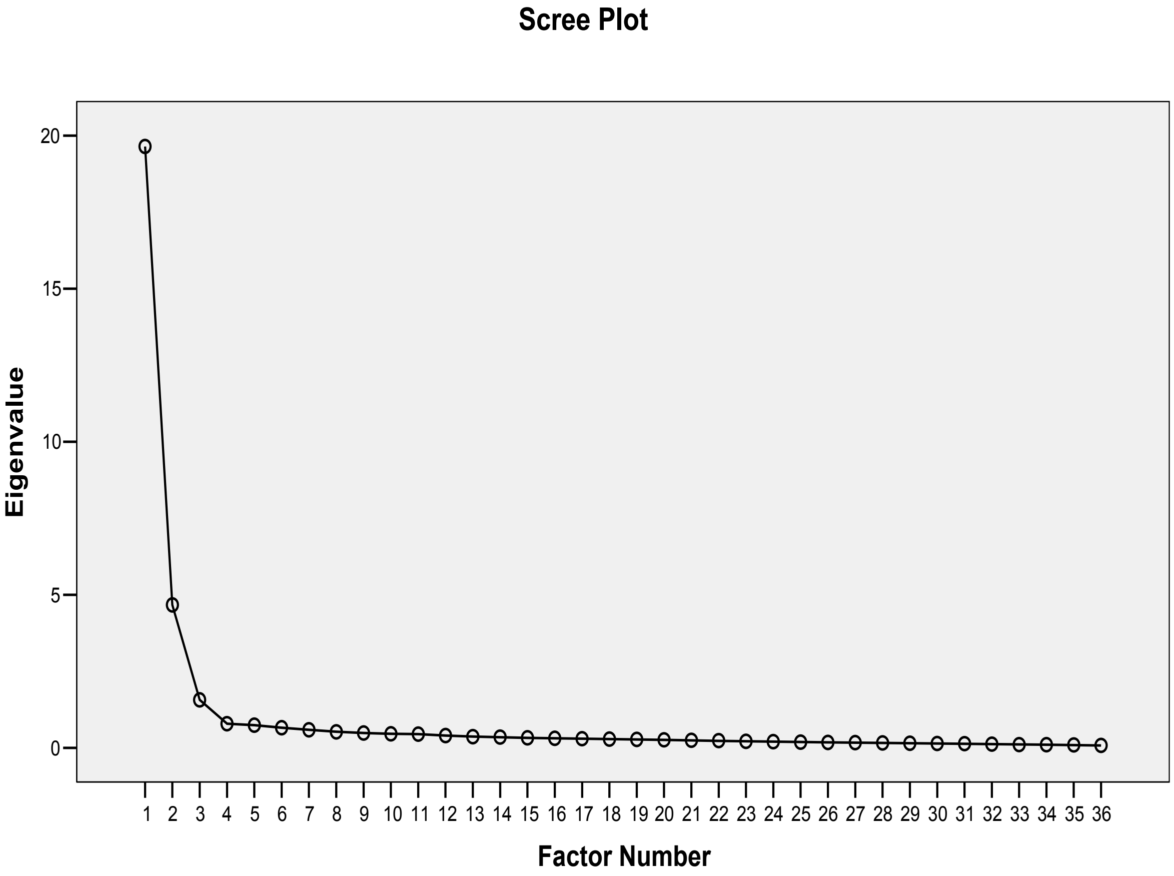


Figure 4.8 Scree plot of eigenvalues: Trust (N=417)

From Figure 4.8 it can be seen that three eigenvalues above one were obtained. In the light of the sizeable gap between the first (19.645) and second and third eigenvalues it was doubtful whether more than one factor should be extracted. Thus, the possibility of three factors existed, although two seemed a more plausible solution. The second eigenvalue was however 4.670, well above the critical value of 1.00. The third eigenvalue was also above 1.00, i.e. 1.567.

Principal factor analysis followed by an oblique rotation of the axes (direct oblimin), was used to extract the factors. In the light of the scree plot and eigenvalues, a three-factor solution was firstly specified. Three factors were extracted and the structure matrix is shown in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11 Structure matrix

	Factor		
	1	**2**	**3**
TR1	.629	.496	.500
TR2	.805	.461	.751
TR3	.771	.415	.683
TR4	.808	.422	.678
TR5	.837	.474	.657
TR6	.813	.531	.668
TR7	.854	.425	.646
TR8	.874	.468	.708
TR9	.848	.466	.619
TR10	.790	.461	.658
TR11	.864	.513	.636
TR12	.863	.537	.686
TR13	.589	.316	.706
TR14	.643	.406	.823
TR15	.710	.366	.892
TR16	.733	.387	.907
TR17	.721	.430	.886
TR18	.738	.431	.925
TR19	.619	.451	.780
TR20	.708	.412	.843
TR21	.750	.470	.897
TR22	.829	.499	.709
TR23	.791	.450	.691
TR24	.765	.427	.660
TR25	.497	.807	.371
TR26	.447	.828	.333
TR27	.373	.785	.288

TR28	.489	.790	.341
TR29	.511	.886	.386
TR30	.431	.765	.364
TR31	.462	.877	.409
TR32	.459	.837	.429
TR33	.463	.838	.424
TR34	.600	.845	.452
TR35	.547	.833	.464
TR36	.532	.852	.470

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

From Table 4.11 it is evident that except for one item, all item loadings on all three factors were higher than 0.30.

Factors one, two, and three respectively explained 54.569%, 12.972%, and 4.351% of the total variance. The correlation between the three factors ranged from .443 to .778. The correlations are shown in Table 4.12 below. It seemed as if a two factor solution could be more appropriate.

Table 4.12 Factor correlation matrix

Factor	1	2	3
1	1.000	.550	.778
2	.550	1.000	.443
3	.778	.443	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Under these circumstances it was decided to extract two factors. The result is shown below in the two factor structure matrix (Table 4.13).

Table 4.13 Structure matrix

	Factor	
	1	2
TR1	.608	.510
TR2	.829	.478
TR3	.777	.434
TR4	.795	.444
TR5	.801	.498
TR6	.794	.551
TR7	.803	.453
TR8	.846	.493
TR9	.787	.493

TR10	.775	.481
TR11	.805	.539
TR12	.831	.560
TR13	.679	.320
TR14	.763	.406
TR15	.834	.370
TR16	.855	.391
TR17	.839	.433
TR18	.866	.433
TR19	.730	.450
TR20	.812	.416
TR21	.862	.473
TR22	.823	.519
TR23	.792	.469
TR24	.762	.446
TR25	.474	.811
TR26	.427	.828
TR27	.363	.783
TR28	.455	.794
TR29	.491	.888
TR30	.432	.763
TR31	.473	.872
TR32	.480	.831
TR33	.480	.833
TR34	.573	.852
TR35	.548	.834
TR36	.542	.850

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

From Table 4.13 it can be seen that all items loaded quite highly on both factors. The differences in loading of items 1 and 6 on the two factors were smaller than .25. it was decided to omit these items from the next round of EFA.

During the third round of EFA, two factors were again specified. Three eigenvalues larger than one were obtained, being respectively 18.598, 4.657, and 1.522. The structure matrix yielded by this analysis is shown in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14 Structure matrix

Item Number	**Wording of items**	**Factor**	
		1	**2**
TR2	I feel encouraged to perform well.	**.828**	.478
TR3	I have positive feelings about the future direction.	**.777**	.435
TR4	I perform knowing that my work will be recognised.	**.793**	.445
TR5	This dealership follows plans with action.	**.796**	.498

TR7	The dealership recognises/rewards skills/abilities.	**.797**	.452
TR8	This dealership offers a supportive environment.	**.843**	.493
TR9	Processes within this dealership are fair.	**.780**	.492
TR10	This dealership is moving forward for the better.	**.775**	.483
TR11	Employees are treated fairly at this dealership.	**.798**	.536
TR12	This dealership takes care of employee interests.	**.826**	.560
TR13	My sales manager trusts his/her employees.	**.680**	.322
TR14	My sales manager is available when needed.	**.766**	.408
TR15	My sales manager listens to what I have to say.	**.838**	.372
TR16	My sales manager will act in good faith.	**.859**	.394
TR17	My sales manager will keep his/her word.	**.843**	.436
TR18	My sales manager displays integrity in actions.	**.871**	.436
TR19	Personal discussions are kept confidential.	**.732**	.452
TR20	My sales manager appreciates additional efforts.	**.816**	.419
TR21	My sales manager follows promises through.	**.868**	.477
TR22	We believe management provides honest answers.	**.820**	.519
TR23	Managers/supervisors reward those who perform.	**.794**	.471
TR24	We feel comfortable with managers/supervisors.	**.763**	.448
TR25	My co-workers are truthful in their dealings with me.	.466	**.809**
TR26	My co-workers appreciate my good work.	.420	**.828**
TR27	I can trust my co-workers to do their jobs well.	.357	**.783**
TR28	Co-workers will not disclose personal information.	.446	**.791**
TR29	My co-workers are considerate of my interests.	.484	**.887**
TR30	My co-workers display ethical behaviour.	.427	**.763**
TR31	My co-workers act reliably.	.470	**.874**
TR32	My co-workers support me if I have problems.	.475	**.832**
TR33	My co-workers give me all necessary information.	.477	**.835**
TR34	Employees feel co-workers appreciate their work.	.570	**.854**
TR35	Employees believe co-workers will be supportive.	.544	**.835**
TR36	Most employees believe co-workers are reliable.	.537	**.850**

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

The remaining 34 items all loaded acceptably on both factors. Although all loadings were higher than .30 the difference between the higher and lower loadings of each item was in all cases larger than .25. It was therefore decided to accept the two factor structure, as shown in Table 4.14 above, for the purposes of further analyses. The correlation between the two factors was quite high at .554.

The two factors respectively explained 54.70% (Factor 1) and 13.697% (Factor 2) of the total variance. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the sub-scales in the final two factor solution and the 34-item scale were:

Scale .974 (34 items)

Factor 1	.975 (22 items)
Factor 2	.963 (12 items)

Inspection of the content of the items in the two factors, led to the decision to identify factor one as representing trust in the manager/organisation. The items' content of factor two indicated trust in colleagues/co-workers.

The next step in the analyses was to carry out a CFA on the two-factor structure. The measurement model of the new structure of the WTS is shown in Figure 4.9 and the indices obtained from this analysis are shown in Table 4.15. Item parcels were again built by grouping items randomly.

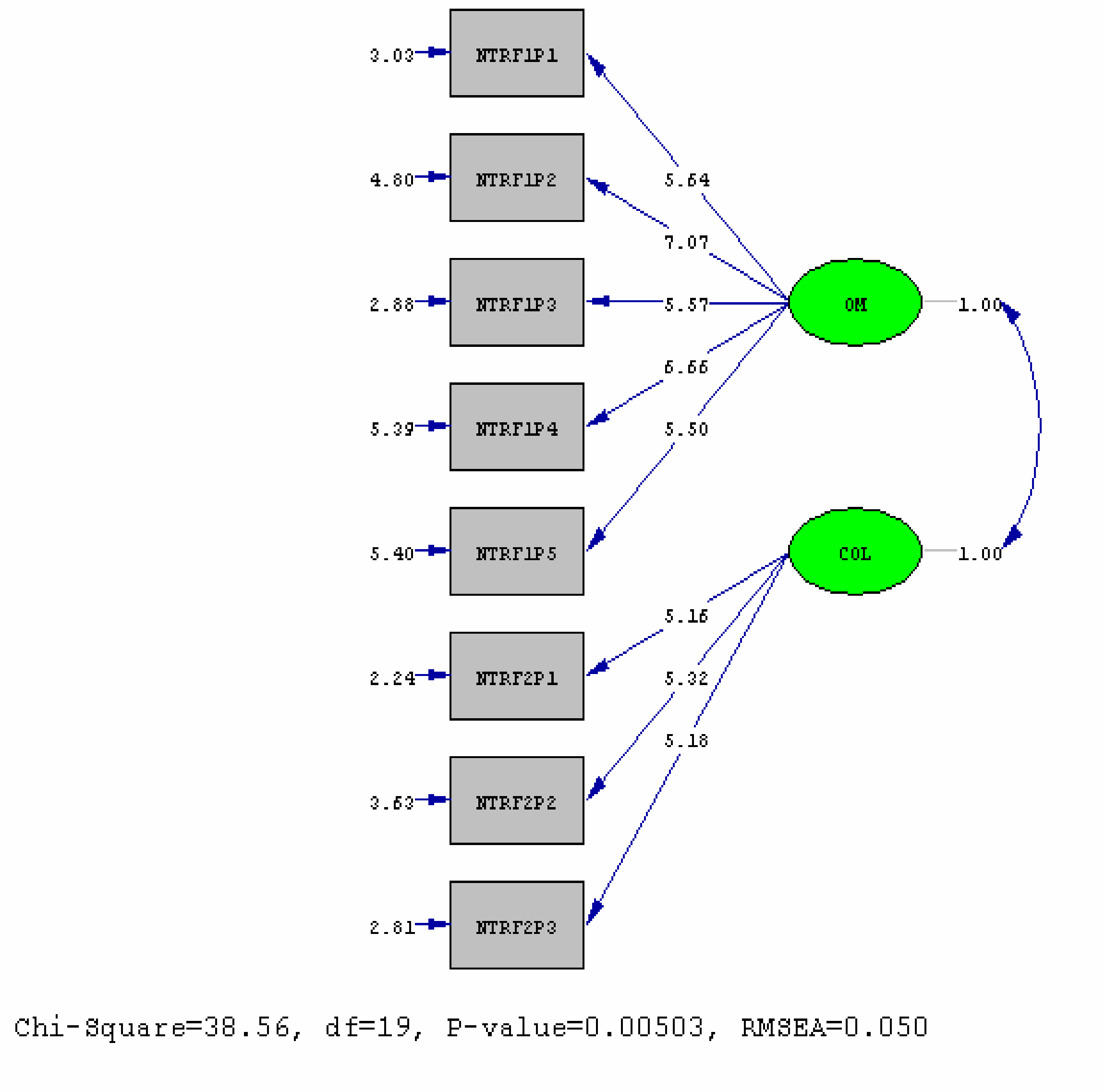

3.03
NTRF1P1
4.80
NTRF1P2
2.88
NTRF1P3
5.39
NTRF1P4
5.40
NTRF1P5
2.24
NTRF2P1
3.63
NTRF2P2
2.81
NTRF2P3
5.64
7.07
5.57
6.66
5.50
5.16
5.32
5.18
OM
COL
1.00
1.00
Chi-Square=38.56, df=19, P-value=0.00503, RMSEA=0.050

Figure 4.9 Measurement model: WTS new structure

Table 4.15 Indices obtained from CFA on two-factor WTS structure: New structure (N=417)

Degrees of Freedom = 19
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 54.99 (P = 0.00)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square = 55.71 (P = 0.00)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square = 38.56 (P = 0.0050)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality = 40.75 (P = 0.0026)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 19.56
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (5.58 ; 41.30)

Minimum Fit Function Value = 0.13
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 0.047
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (0.013 ; 0.099)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.050
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA = (0.027 ; 0.072)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05) = 0.47

Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) = 0.17
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI = (0.14 ; 0.23)
ECVI for Saturated Model = 0.17
ECVI for Independence Model = 14.69

Chi-Square for Independence Model with 28 Degrees of Freedom = 6094.81
Independence AIC = 6110.81
Model AIC = 72.56
Saturated AIC = 72.00
Independence CAIC = 6151.07
Model CAIC = 158.13
Saturated CAIC = 253.19

Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.99
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.99
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) = 0.67
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.99
Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.99
Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.99

Critical N (CN) = 274.77

Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 0.78
Standardised RMR = 0.022
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.97
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.94
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.51

The value of χ^2/df was 2.03 indicating a possibly acceptable fit between the model and the data. A comparison of the CFA indices in Tables 4.10 (original structure) and 4.15 (new structure) indicate that the new two-factor structure probably represents a better fit with the data than the three factor structure defined by Ferres (2001). This new two-factor structure was therefore used in further analyses.

To determine the stability of the two-factor measurement model and to investigate the degree of invariance when the redeveloped measurement model is applied to different samples further analyses were carried out. For this purpose the sample (N = 417) was randomly divided into two, respectively N_1 = 208 and N_2 = 209. The analyses were carried out separately for the two sub-samples on the scores on the two-factor trust variable. The two sub-samples seemed to be quite similar in terms of the respondents' scores on the WTS. Relevant statistics were: Random sub-sample one: M = 176.865, SD = 44.475, Range = 195. Random sub-sample two: M = 174.483, SD = 39.370, Range = 181.

As a first step, CFA was carried out on the responses to renaming 34 items of the WTS of the respondents in the two sub-samples. The obtained indices are shown in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16 Indices obtained from CFA on WTS responses (N_1 = 208, N_2 = 209)

	Random sample 1	**Random sample 2**
Degrees of Freedom	19	19
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	40.46 (P = 0.0028)	57.88 (P = 0.00)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	42.18 (P = 0.0017)	57.19 (P = 0.00)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	27.79 (P = 0.087)/df 1.46	42.50 (P = 0.0015)/df 2.23
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	21.50 (P = 0.31)	47.02 (P = 0.00035)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	8.79	23.50
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	0.0 ; 26.99	8.34 ; 46.38
Minimum Fit Function Value	0.20	0.28
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	0.042	0.11
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	0.0; 0.13	0.040; 0.22
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.047	0.077
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	0.0; 0.083	0.046; 0.11
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	0.51	0.073

Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	0.30	0.37
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	0.26; 0.39	0.29; 0.48
ECVI for Saturated Model	0.35	0.35
ECVI for Independence Model	16.17	13.27
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 10 Degrees of Freedom	3331.85	2743.15
Independence AIC	3347.85	2759.15
Model AIC	61.79	76.50
Saturated AIC	72.00	72.00
Independence CAIC	3382.55	2793.89
Model CAIC	135.53	150.32
Saturated CAIC	228.15	228.32
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.99	0.98
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.99	0.98
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.67	0.66
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.99	0.99
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.99	0.99
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.98	0.97
Critical N (CN)	186.18	131.07
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	0.84	0.92
Standardised RMR	0.022	0.028
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.95	0.94
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	0.91	0.88
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI)	0.50	0.49

Depicted in Figures 4.10 and 4.11 below are the respective measurement models of the two random sub-samples.

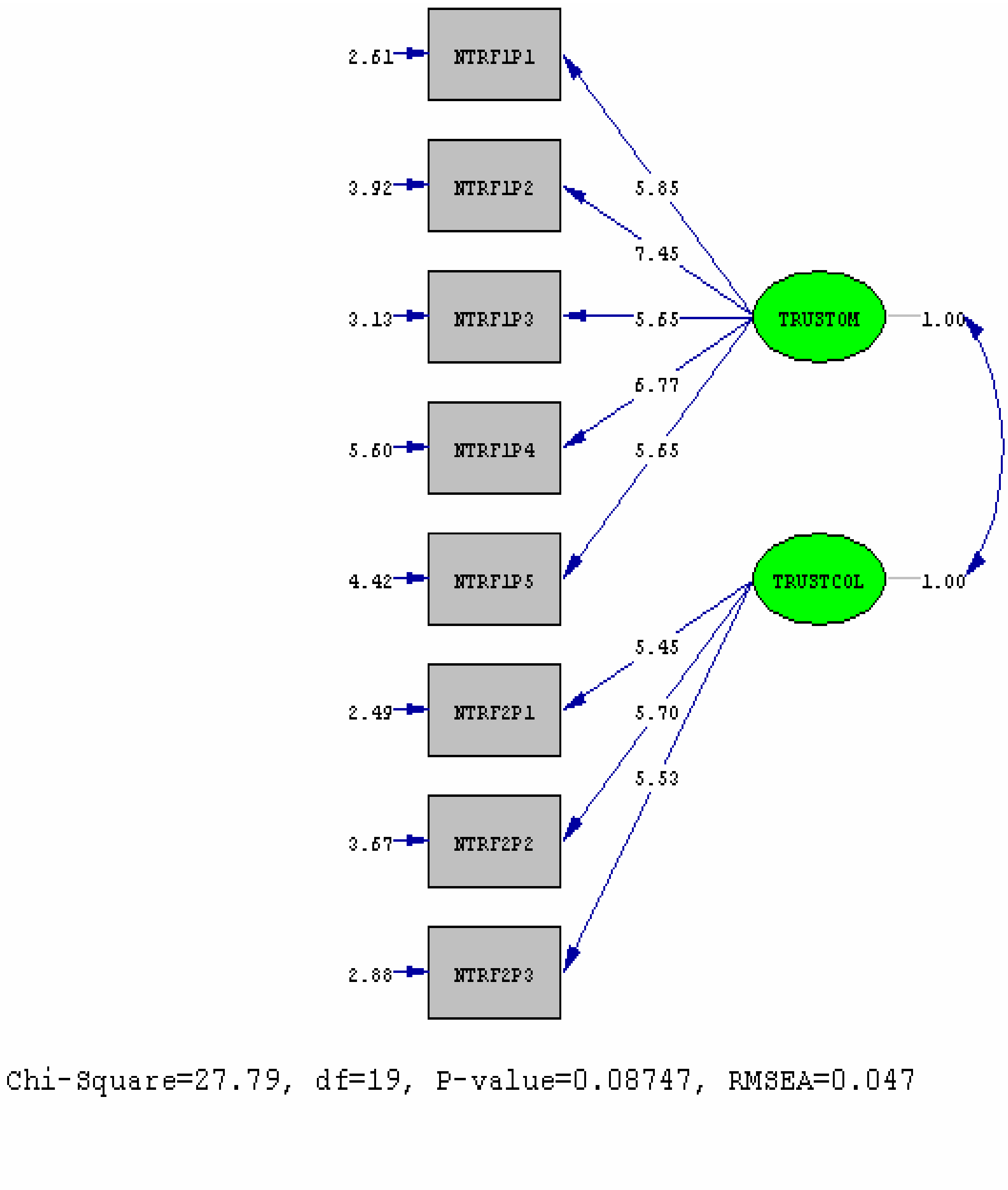

2.61
NTRF1P1
3.92
NTRF1P2
3.13
NTRF1P3
5.60
NTRF1P4
4.42
NTRF1P5
2.49
NTRF2P1
3.67
NTRF2P2
2.88
NTRF2P3
5.85
7.45
5.65
6.77
5.65
5.45
5.70
5.53
TRUSTOM
TRUSTCOL
1.00
1.00
Chi-Square=27.79, df=19, P-value=0.08747, RMSEA=0.047

Figure 4.10 Measurement model of trust: Random sample one

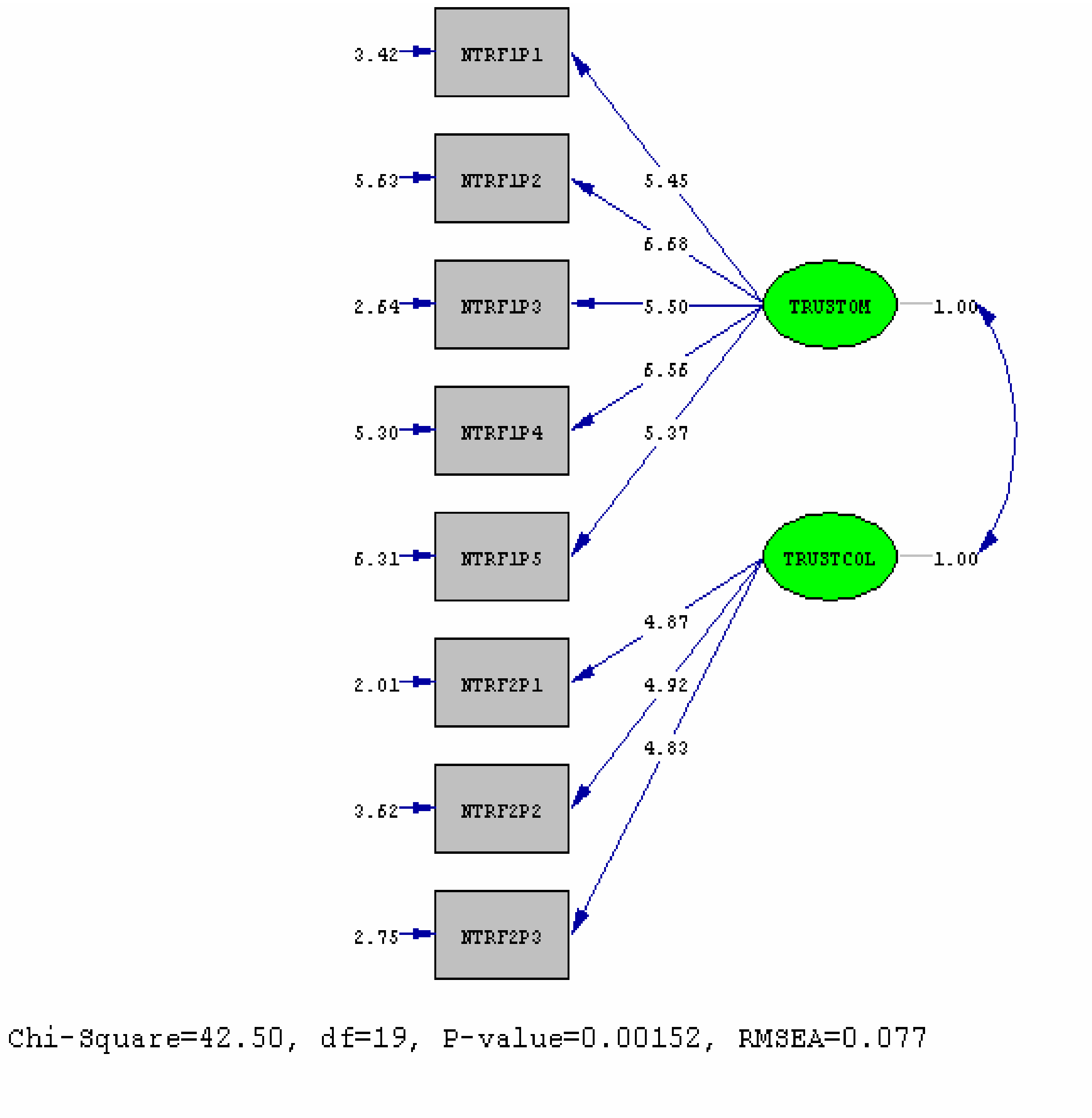

3.42
NTRF1P1
5.63
NTRF1P2
2.64
NTRF1P3
5.30
NTRF1P4
6.31
NTRF1P5
2.01
NTRF2P1
3.62
NTRF2P2
2.75
NTRF2P3
5.45
6.68
5.50
6.56
5.37
TRUSTOM
1.00
TRUSTCOL
1.00
4.87
4.92
4.83
Chi-Square=42.50, df=19, P-value=0.00152, RMSEA=0.077

Figure 4.11 Measurement model of trust: Random sample two

From Table 4.16 it seems as if the indices indicate that the two-factor measurement model fitted the data in sub-samples one and two at acceptable although slightly different levels. To determine whether the measurement was invariant over the two samples a further CFA was carried out. In this analysis the two sub-samples were regarded as independent. The variances were firstly constrained and secondly unconstrained. The indices obtained from these two CFAs are shown in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17 Indices obtained from CFA on responses to WTS (Independent samples: Constrained/Unconstrained)

	All Parameters Constrained (H_0)	No Constraints on Parameters (H_a)
	Global Goodness of Fit Statistics	
Degrees of Freedom	55	38
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	121.09 (P = 0.00)	98.33 (P = 0.00)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	122.85 (P = 0.00)	99.37 (P = 0.00)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	86.75 (P = 0.0041)	69.72 (P = 0.0013)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	175.18 (P = 0.00)	103.87 (P = 0.00)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	31.75	31.72
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	10.31 ; 61.11	12.11 ; 59.16
Minimum Fit Function Value	0.29	0.24
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	0.077	0.076
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	0.025; 0.15	0.029; 0.14
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.053	0.063
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	0.030 ; 0.073	0.039 ; 0.087
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	0.82	0.61
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	0.29	0.33
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	0.24; 0.36	0.28; 0.40
ECVI for Saturated Model	0.17	0.17
ECVI for Independence Model	14.68	14.68
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 20 Degrees of Freedom	6075.01	6075.01
Independence AIC	6107.01	6107.01
Model AIC	120.75	137.72
Saturated AIC	144.00	144.00
Independence CAIC	6187.54	6187.54
Model CAIC	206.31	308.85
Saturated CAIC	506.38	506.38
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.98	0.98
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.99	0.99
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.96	0.67
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.99	0.99
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.99	0.99
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.98	0.98
Critical N (CN)	283.03	259.13
	Group Goodness of Fit Statistics	
Contribution to Chi-Square	68.62	57.88
Percentage Contribution to Chi-Square	56.67	58.86

Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	3.56	0.92
Standardised RMR	0.100	0.028
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.92	0.94

From Table 4.17 the values of χ^2 were analysed further. These results are portrayed in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18 Comparison values of χ^2 and other fit indices when variances are constrained/not constrained

	Trust: Random Sample 1 and Random Sample 2 Simultaneously	
	All Parameters Constrained (H_0)	**No Constraints on Parameters (H_a)**
χ^2	86.75	69.72
df	55	38
RMSEA	0.053	0.063
NFI	0.98	0.98
CFI	0.99	0.99
Difference in χ^2 Between H_0 and H_a	17.03	
Critical Value $\chi^2_{(17;\ 0.05)}$	27.587	
Significant	No	

Table 4.18 is a depiction of the summary of determining the equivalence of the measurement model for trust across random sample one and random sample two. From Table 4.18 it can be seen that the difference between the values of χ^2 (17.03) was not higher than the critical value (27.587). It can be concluded that the WTS is probably invariant (thus not different) across different samples.

4.4 Examination of the team commitment construct and Team Commitment Survey (TCS)

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out on the participants' responses to the 35 items in the Team Commitment Survey (TCS) developed by Bennett (1997). The original factor structure of the questionnaire as determined by Bennett (1997) was imposed on the participants' responses. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of the 35-item instrument was calculated on the responses of the present sample and was established at .920. The measurement model of the original structure on the TCS is shown in Figure 4.12 and the results are shown in Table 4.19. Item parcelling was carried out as before.

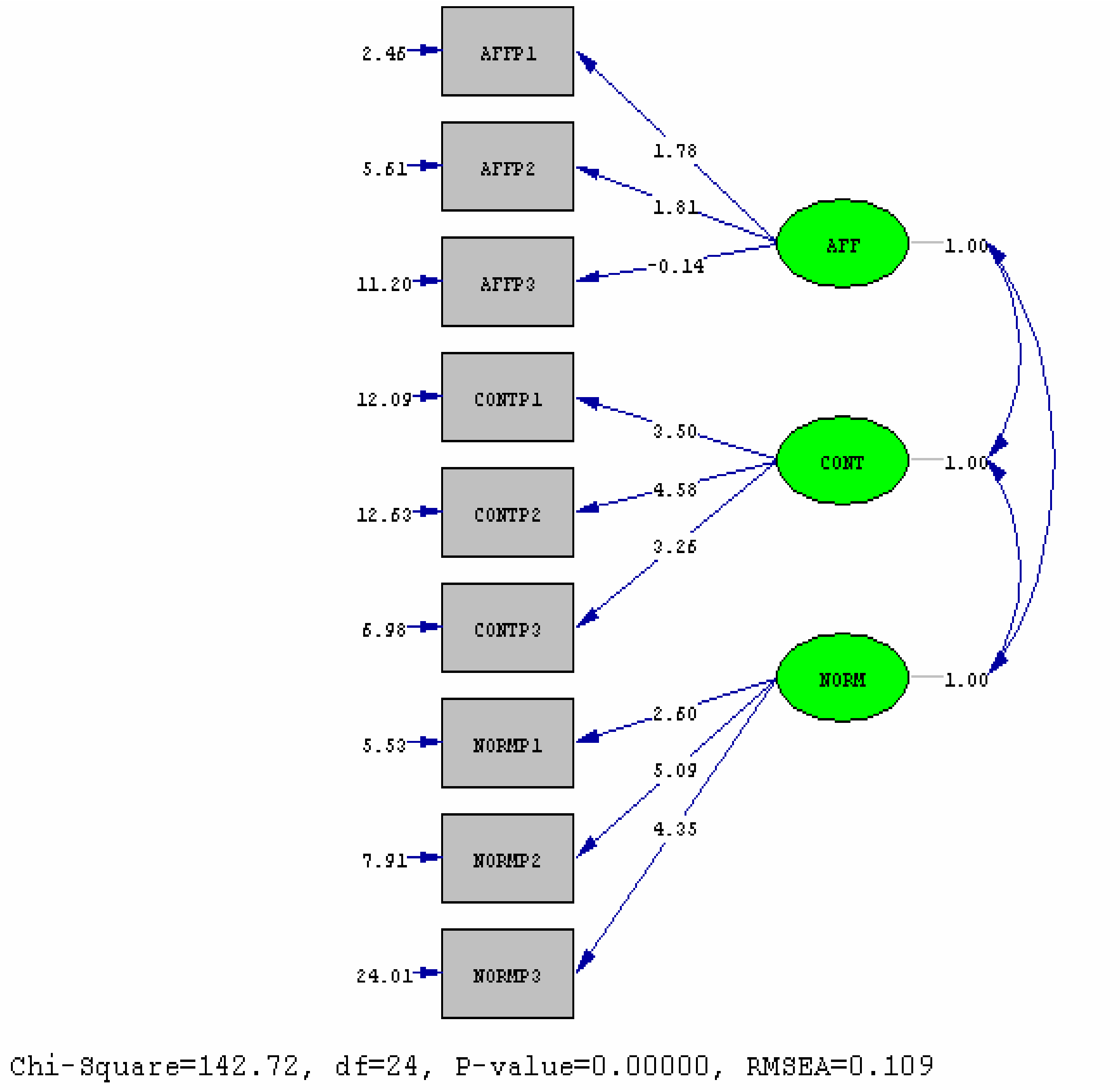

2.46
AFFP1
5.61
AFFP2
11.20
AFFP3
12.09
CONTP1
12.63
CONTP2
6.98
CONTP3
5.53
NORMP1
7.91
NORMP2
24.01
NORMP3
1.78
1.81
-0.14
3.50
4.58
3.26
2.60
5.09
4.35
AFF
CONT
NORM
1.00
1.00
1.00
Chi-Square=142.72, df=24, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.109

Figure 4.12 Measurement model: TCS original structure

Table 4.19 FIT INDICES obtained from CFA of original structure of TCS (N=417)

Degrees of Freedom = 24
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 167.80 (P = 0.0)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square = 167.00 (P = 0.0)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square = 142.72 (P = 0.0)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality = 120.83 (P = 0.00)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 118.72
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (84.79 ; 160.16)

Minimum Fit Function Value = 0.40
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 0.29
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (0.20 ; 0.38)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.11
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA = (0.092 ; 0.13)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05) = 0.00

Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) = 0.44
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI = (0.36 ; 0.54)
ECVI for Saturated Model = 0.22
ECVI for Independence Model = 4.92

Chi-Square for Independence Model with 36 Degrees of Freedom = 2029.20
Independence AIC = 2047.20
Model AIC = 184.72
Saturated AIC = 90.00
Independence CAIC = 2092.49
Model CAIC = 290.41
Saturated CAIC = 316.49

Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.92
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.89
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) = 0.61
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.93
Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.93
Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.88

Critical N (CN) = 107.55

Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 1.34
Standardised RMR = 0.071
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.92
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.85
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.49

After having conducted CFA on the original instrument, a not quite satisfactory fit between the WTS structures as determined by the instrument's authors was obtained. These indices are shown in Table 4.19 above. The goodness of fit (GOF) indices on the original structure with CFA carried out on the original instrument

(Bennett, 1997) yielded values of RMSEA = 0.11 (to be <0.1/.08/.05 for a good fit), SRMR = 0.071 (to be <.05 for a good fit), GFI = 0.92 (>.90), AGFI = 0.85, and ECVI = 0.44 (useful for comparison with other CFA results). From these GOF indices, it was concluded that an unsatisfactory fit between the original structure and the responses of the present sample existed.

Consequently, it was decided to carry out exploratory factor analysis in order to determine whether a better fitting measurement model could be obtained. Principal factor analysis was carried out with oblique rotation of the axes on the participants' responses to the 35 items in the questionnaire. The same decision rules that were followed to determine the number of factors to be extracted, and the items to be included as was followed with the SLQ and WTS, i.e. the number of factors to be extracted should not be more than the number of eigenvalues >1.00. An item not loading >0.30 on any factor will be excluded. An item loading >0.30 on more than one factor will be excluded if the difference between the higher and the lower loading is <0.25. The KMO index and the Bartlett's test of sphericity were calculated and yielded values of respectively .923 and a Chi-square value of 8278.939 (df=595, p=000). These test values proved satisfactory and was therefore regarded as evidence that exploratory factor analysis (EFA) could be carried out on the responses to the Team Commitment Survey.

Application of these rules in the first round of EFA resulted in the decision to initially extract three factors. A scree plot shown as Figure 4.13 was used as the basis of this decision.

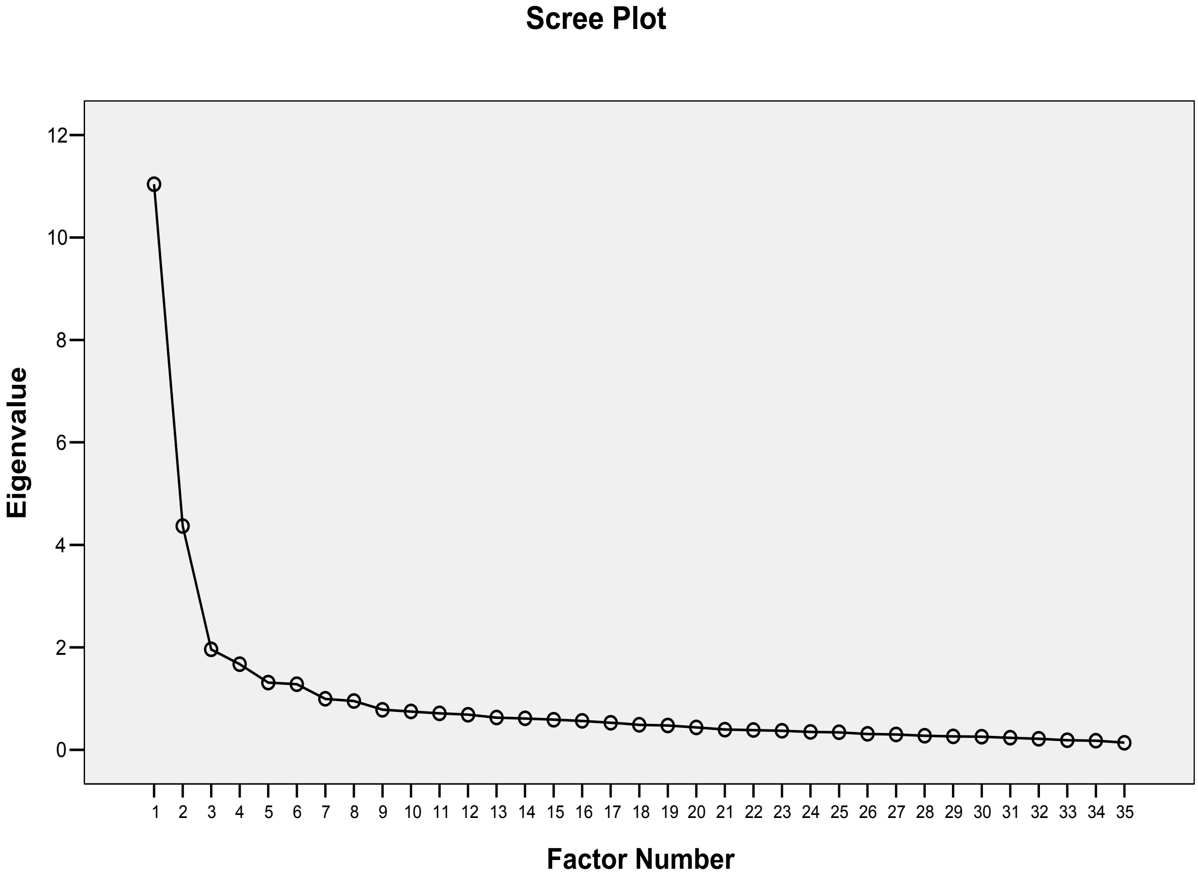


Figure 4.13 Scree plot of eigenvalues: Team commitment (N=417)

From Figure 4.13 it can be seen that six eigenvalues above one were obtained. In the light of the sizeable gap between the first (11.039) and second eigenvalues (4.367) and between the second and third eigenvalues it was doubtful whether more than two factors should be extracted. Thus, the possibility of three factors existed, although two seemed a more plausible solution. The second eigenvalue was 4.367, well above the critical value of 1.00. The third eigenvalue was also above 1.00, i.e. 1.959. Although six eigenvalues >1.0 existed, (11.039, 4.367, 1.959, 1.671, 1.312, 1.280) the scree plot was interpreted to indicate that not more than three factors, at most, probably existed.

Still a six-factor solution was specified and the results are shown in the structure matrix (Table 4.20) below.

Table 4.20 Structure matrix

	Factor					
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
TC1	.580	.016	.370	-.259	.331	.158
TC2	.777	.185	.440	-.480	.567	-.112
TC3	.683	.067	.401	-.425	.423	.175
TC7	.673	.206	.367	-.394	.478	-.094
TC8	.751	.235	.397	-.511	.566	.063
TC11	.359	.229	.211	-.283	.331	.354
TC12	.371	.462	.042	-.312	.216	.179
TC13	.242	.622	.064	-.391	.283	.018
TC14	-.002	.004	-.127	.037	.049	.345
TC15	.166	.658	.086	-.374	.288	.123
TC16	-.071	.577	-.159	-.234	.066	-.020
TC17	.211	.684	.101	-.501	.309	.061
TC18	.042	.520	-.203	-.111	-.048	.153
TC19	.075	.793	.003	-.464	.258	.006
TC20	-.011	.691	-.029	-.410	.283	.025
TC21	-.018	.557	-.028	-.311	.244	.281
TC22	.035	.400	.100	-.447	.163	.391
TC24	.348	.447	.202	-.804	.371	.071
TC25	.237	.463	.181	-.716	.272	.054
TC26	.401	.154	.278	-.609	.374	.137
TC27	.373	.441	.236	-.787	.404	-.042
TC28	.077	.436	-.048	-.666	.368	.061
TC29	.337	.280	.227	-.736	.564	.183
TC30	.234	.436	.145	-.829	.467	.080
TC31	.287	.230	.183	-.406	.810	.170
TC32	.384	.210	.272	-.383	.871	.115
TC33	.366	.292	.206	-.432	.815	.190
TC34	.605	.268	.308	-.503	.735	.049
TC35	.607	.286	.343	-.516	.709	-.042
RECODE TC4	.354	-.029	.768	-.239	.311	-.244
RECODE TC5	.366	-.013	.794	-.207	.283	-.186
RECODE TC6	.037	-.195	.662	-.043	.002	-.036
RECODE TC9	.492	.008	.758	-.273	.340	-.060
RECODE TC10	.458	.037	.642	-.316	.319	.034
RECODE TC23	.165	.174	.359	-.469	.145	-.187

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

From Table 4.20 it is evident that many cross loadings existed. It was concluded that all the factors were probably not separate dimensions of the construct. An attempt to interpret the factors individually was not successful. The correlation between the six factors ranged from .053 to .456. These correlations are shown in Table 4.21 below.

Table 4.21 Factor correlation matrix

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1.000	.099	.342	-.304	.396	.053
2	.099	1.000	-.072	-.456	.230	.115
3	.342	-.072	1.000	-.260	.243	-.106
4	-.304	-.456	-.260	1.000	-.443	-.063
5	.396	.230	.243	-.443	1.000	.115
6	.053	.115	-.106	-.063	.115	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Factors one to six respectively explained 31.541%, 12.478%, 5.970%, 4.774%, 3.747%, and 3.657% of the total variance. The gap between the contributions of factors two and three was substantially higher than the gap between factors three and four. It therefore seemed appropriate to pursue a two factor solution. This solution is shown below in the two factor structure matrix Table 4.22.

Table 4.22 Structure matrix

	Factor	
	1	2
TC1	.571	.086
TC2	.800	.292
TC3	.687	.198
TC7	.673	.273
TC8	.770	.357
TC11	.384	.281
TC12	.258	.450
TC13	.241	.588
TC14	-.055	.039
TC15	.211	.604
TC16	-.092	.516
TC17	.269	.678
TC18	-.127	.417
TC19	.134	.738
TC20	.092	.668
TC21	.064	.545
TC22	.159	.467
TC24	.486	.646
TC25	.376	.608
TC26	.532	.363
TC27	.523	.627
TC28	.237	.640
TC29	.562	.541
TC30	.455	.679
TC31	.534	.404
TC32	.628	.366

TC33	.579	.449
TC34	.725	.423
TC35	.736	.424
RECODE TC4	.641	-.052
RECODE TC5	.635	-.063
RECODE TC6	.321	-.240
RECODE TC9	.712	-.008
RECODE TC10	.649	.057
RECODE TC23	.361	.247

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

From Table 4.22 it can be seen that items 11, 12, 14, 24, 25, 26, 27, 29, 30, 31, 33 did not load satisfactorily on the two-factor structure. The differences in loading of items 11, 12, 24, 25, 26, 27, 29, 30, 31, and 33 on the two factors were smaller than .25. Item 14 did not satisfactorily load on any of the two factors, i.e. failing to reach a loading .30. It was therefore decided to omit these items from the next round of EFA.

During the second round of EFA, with the remaining 24 items, two factors were again specified. The structure matrix yielded by this analysis is shown in Table 4.23.

Table 4.23 Structure matrix

Item Number	**Wording of items**	**Factor**	
		1	**2**
TC1	I consider myself to be a team member.	**.568**	.050
TC2	I am happy working in this team.	**.813**	.248
TC3	Working as part of this team is important.	**.568**	.144
TC7	I am enthusiastic about being in this team.	**.692**	.254
TC8	This team has personal meaning for me.	**.773**	.313
TC13	Changing teams would be difficult for me.	.256	**.594**
TC15	Changing teams would require sacrifice.	.233	**.640**
TC16	I have too few options - leaving this team.	-.071	**.564**
TC17	It would be very hard to leave this team.	.284	**.693**
TC18	If I had not put so much in, I might change.	-.110	**.455**
TC19	It would be too disruptive to leave this team.	.158	**.787**
TC20	It would be costly to change from this team.	.105	**.702**
TC21	Staying with this team is a necessity.	.076	**.576**
TC22	People have a responsibility to stay.	.148	**.425**
TC28	It would be right to leave my team now.	.202	**.550**
TC32	This team produces the right quality of work	**.586**	.320
TC34	I am content within this team.	**.715**	.381
TC35	I am satisfied within this team.	**.734**	.385
RECODE TC4	I regret having been involved in this team.	**.664**	-.075
RECODE TC5	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging".	**.664**	-.078

RECODE TC6	I dislike teamwork.	**.334**	-.253
RECODE TC9	I do not feel very involved in this team.	**.733**	-.035
RECODE TC10	I do not feel emotionally attached.	**.658**	.018
RECODE TC23	I do not feel any obligation to remain.	**.354**	.182

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

The above 24-item factor structure in Table 4.23 complied to all the specified decision rules. A weak correlation between the two factors was found at .151.

The two factors respectively explained 30.656% (Factor 1) and 16.944% (Factor 2) of the total variance. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the final two factor solution and the 24-item scale were:

Scale	.879 (24 items)
Factor 1	.898 (14 items)
Factor 2	.855 (10 items)

Inspection of the content of the items in the two factors, led to the decision to identify factor one as representing an emotional aspect of the (affective) team commitment. Consequently, the items' content of factor two indicated a rational (cognitive) aspect of team commitment.

The TCS was not originally developed by means of principle component analysis, and therefore this procedure was not employed on the data of this sample.

The next step in the analyses was to carry out a CFA on the two-factor structure. The measurement model of the new structure of the TCS is displayed in Figure 4.14 and the indices obtained from this analysis are shown in Table 4.24.

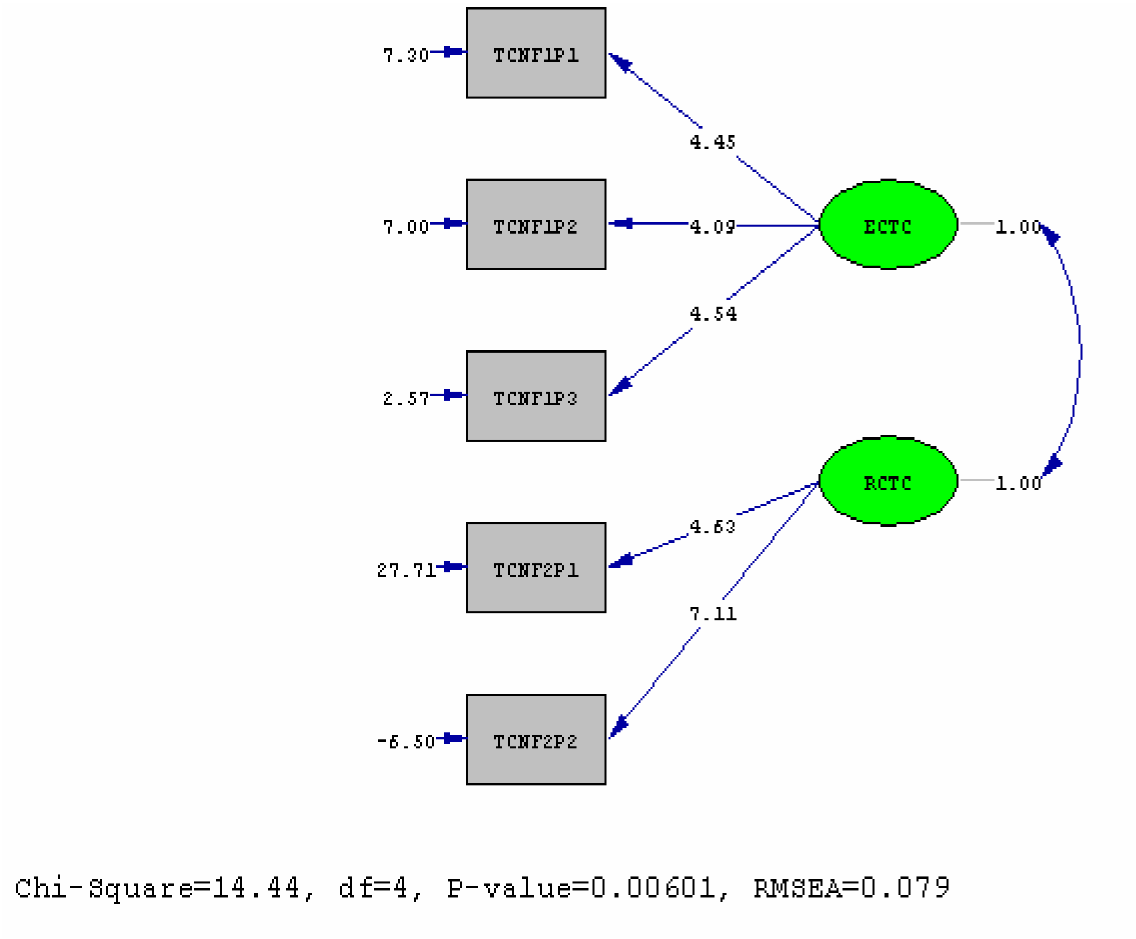

7.30
TCNF1P1
4.45
7.00
TCNF1P2
4.09
ECTC
1.00
4.54
2.57
TCNF1P3
RCTC
1.00
4.63
27.71
TCNF2P1
7.11
-6.50
TCNF2P2
Chi-Square=14.44, df=4, P-value=0.00601, RMSEA=0.079

Figure 4.14 Measurement model: TCS new structure

Table 4.24 Indices obtained from CFA on two-factor TCS structure: New structure (n=417)

Degrees of Freedom = 4
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 16.05 (P = 0.0030)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square = 16.00 (P = 0.0030)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square = 14.44 (P = 0.0060) /df = 3.61
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality = 15.83 (P = 0.0033)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 10.44
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (2.39 ; 26.04)
Minimum Fit Function Value = 0.039
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 0.025
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (0.0058 ; 0.063)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.079
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA = (0.038 ; 0.13)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05) = 0.11
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) = 0.088
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI = (0.068 ; 0.13)
ECVI for Saturated Model = 0.072
ECVI for Independence Model = 2.59

Chi-Square for Independence Model with 10 Degrees of Freedom = 1066.33
Independence AIC = 1076.33
Model AIC = 36.44
Saturated AIC = 30.00
Independence CAIC = 1101.50
Model CAIC = 91.81
Saturated CAIC = 105.50
Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.98
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.97
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) = 0.39
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.99
Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.99
Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.96
Critical N (CN) = 345.20
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 1.14
Standardised RMR = 0.033
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.98
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.94
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.26

A comparison of the CFA indices in Tables 4.12 (original structure) and 4.24 (new structure) indicates that the new two-factor structure probably represents a better fit with the data than the three factor structure defined by Bennett (1997). This new two-factor structure was therefore used in further analyses.

To determine the stability of the two-factor measurement model and to investigate the degree of invariance when the redeveloped measurement model is applied to different samples, further analyses were carried out. For this purpose the sample (N = 417) was randomly divided into two, respectively N_1 = 208 and N_2 = 209. The analyses were carried out separately for the different instruments for the scores on the two-factor trust variable. The two sub-samples seemed to be quite similar. Relevant statistics were: Random sub-sample one: M = 123.212, SD = 20.836, Range = 114. Random sub-sample two: M = 118.847, SD = 20.423, Range = 103.

As a first step, CFA was carried out on the responses to the TCS of the respondents in the two sub-samples. The obtained indices are shown in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25 Indices obtained from CFA on TCS responses (N_1 = 208, N_2 = 209)

	Random sample 1	**Random sample 2**
Degrees of Freedom	4	4
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	11.03 (P = 0.026)	9.70 (P = 0.046)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	10.95 (P = 0.027)	9.54 (P = 0.049)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	10.86 (P = 0.028) /df=2.72	7.80 (P = 0.099) /df=1.95
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	10.45 (P = 0.033)	9.97 (P = 0.041)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	6.86	3.80
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	0.60 ; 20.70	0.0 ; 15.86
Minimum Fit Function Value	0.053	0.047
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	0.033	0.018
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	0.0029 ; 0.100	0.0 ; 0.076
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.091	0.068
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	0.027 ; 0.16	0.0 ; 0.14
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	0.12	0.28
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	0.16	0.14
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	0.13 ; 0.23	0.13 ; 0.20
ECVI for Saturated Model	0.14	0.14
ECVI for Independence Model	2.58	2.64
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 10 Degrees of Freedom	524.76	538.41
Independence AIC	534.76	548.41
Model AIC	32.86	29.80
Saturated AIC	30.00	30.00
Independence CAIC	556.45	570.12
Model CAIC	80.57	77.56
Saturated CAIC	95.06	95.14
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.98	0.98
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.97	0.97
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.39	0.39
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.99	0.99
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.99	0.99
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.95	0.95
Critical N (CN)	250.21	285.80
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	1.31	1.03
Standardised RMR	0.037	0.030
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.98	0.98
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	0.92	0.93
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI)	0.26	0.26

Illustrated in Figures 4.15 and 4.16 below are the respective measurement models of the two random sub-samples. The questionnaire items were again randomly allocated to parcels.

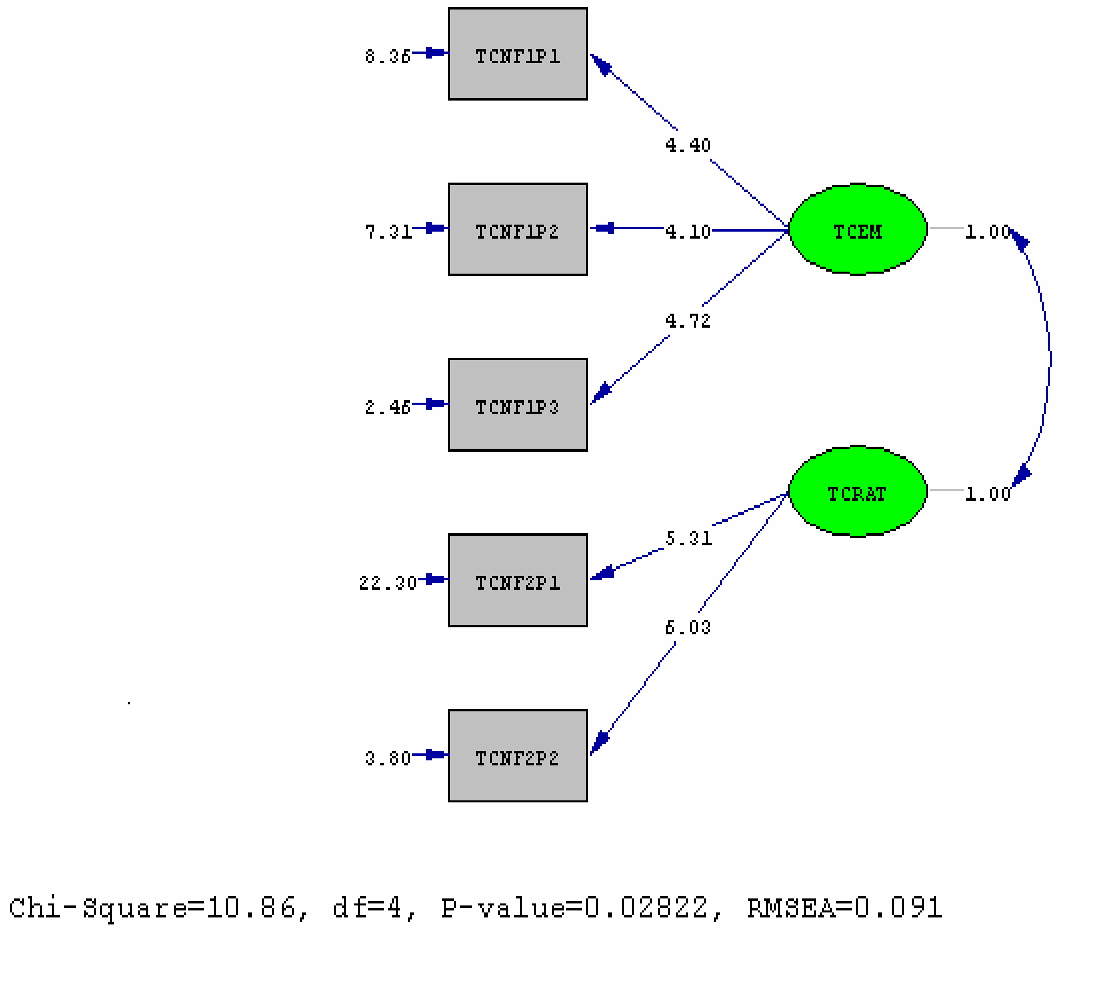

8.36
TCNF1P1
4.40
7.31
TCNF1P2
4.10
TCEM
1.00
4.72
2.46
TCNF1P3
TCRAT
1.00
5.31
22.30
TCNF2P1
6.03
3.80
TCNF2P2
Chi-Square=10.86, df=4, P-value=0.02822, RMSEA=0.091

Figure 4.15 Measurement model of team commitment: Random sample one

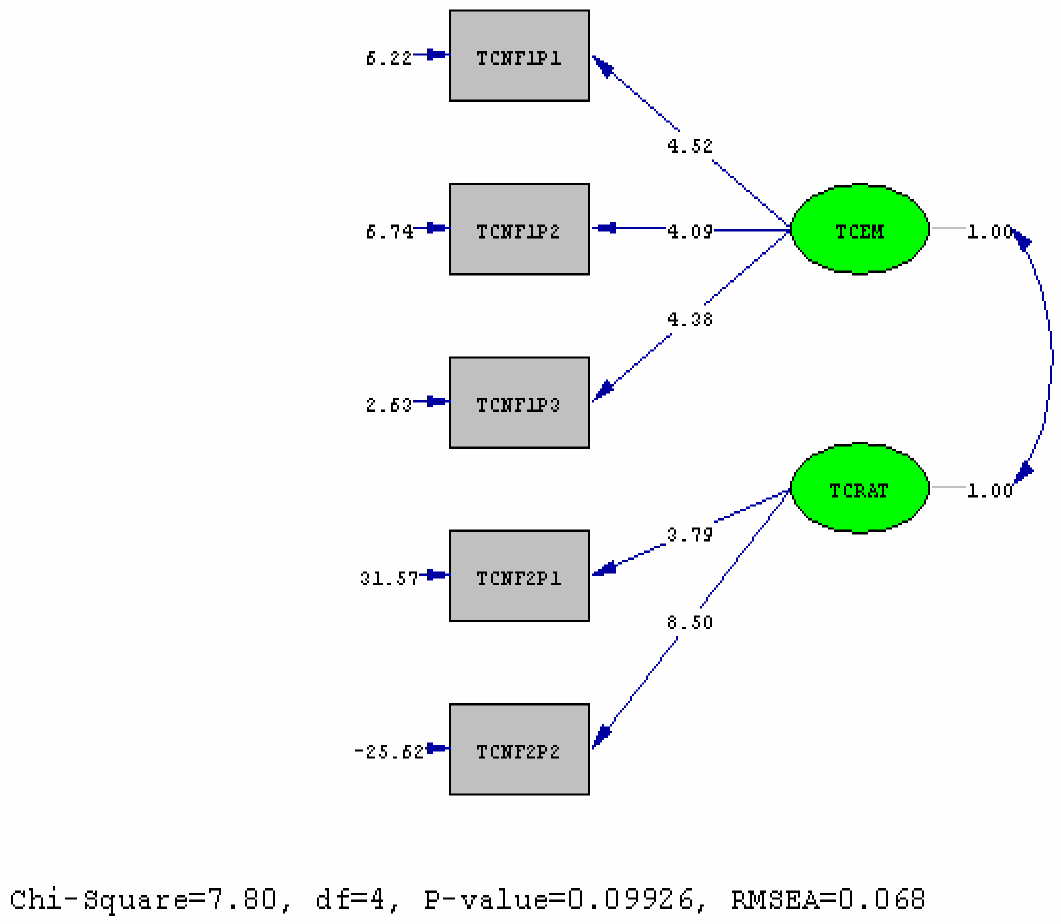

6.22
TCNF1P1
6.74
TCNF1P2
2.63
TCNF1P3
31.57
TCNF2P1
-25.62
TCNF2P2
4.52
4.09
4.38
3.79
8.50
TCEM
TCRAT
1.00
1.00
Chi-Square=7.80, df=4, P-value=0.09926, RMSEA=0.068

Figure 4.16 Measurement model of team commitment: Random sample two

From Table 4.25 it seems as if the indices indicate that the two-factor measurement model fitted the data in sub-samples one and two only moderately. To determine whether the measurement was invariant over the two samples a further CFA was carried out. In this analysis the two sub-samples were regarded as independent. The variances were firstly constrained and secondly unconstrained. The indices obtained from these two CFAs are shown in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26 Indices obtained from CFA (Independent samples: Constrained/Unconstrained)

	All Parameters Constrained (H_0)	**No Constraints on Parameters (H_a)**
	Global Goodness of Fit Statistics	
Degrees of Freedom	19	8
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	30.92 (P = 0.041)	20.72 (P = 0.0079)

Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	31.51 (P = 0.035)	20.49 (P = 0.0086)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	28.41 (P = 0.076)	17.95 (P = 0.022))
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	34.57 (P = 0.016)	24.30 (P = 0.0020
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	9.41	9.95
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	0.0 ; 27.83	1.31 ; 26.28
Minimum Fit Function Value	0.075	0.050
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	0.023	0.024
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	0.0 ; 0.067	0.0032 ; 0.063
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.049	0.077
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	0.0 ; 0.084	0.028 ; 0.13
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	0.71	0.37
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	0.12	0.15
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	0.099 ; 0.17	0.13 ; 0.19
ECVI for Saturated Model	0.072	0.072
ECVI for Independence Model	2.59	2.59
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 20 Degrees of Freedom	1063.17	1063.17
Independence AIC	1083.17	1083.17
Model AIC	50.41	61.95
Saturated AIC	60.00	60.00
Independence CAIC	1133.50	1133.50
Model CAIC	105.78	172.68
Saturated CAIC	210.99	210.99
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.97	0.98
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.99	0.97
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.92	0.39
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.99	0.99
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.99	0.99
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.97	0.95
Critical N (CN)	486.76	403.33
	Group Goodness of Fit Statistics	
Contribution to Chi-Square	14.97	9.70
Percentage Contribution to Chi-Square	48.42	46.79
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	1.66	1.03
Standardised RMR	0.047	0.030
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.97	0.98

From Table 4.26 the values of χ^2 were analysed further. These results are portrayed in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27 Comparisons of χ^2values when variances are constrained/not constrained

	Team Commitment: Random Sample 1 and Random Sample 2 Simultaneously	
	All Parameters Constrained (H_0)	**No Constraints on Parameters (H_a)**
χ^2	28.41	17.95
df	19	8
RMSEA	0.049	0.077
NFI	0.97	0.98
CFI	0.99	0.99
Difference in χ^2 Between H_0 and H_a	10.46	
Critical Value $\chi^2_{(11;\ 0.05)}$	19.675	
Significant	No	

Table 4.27 is a summary of the results of an attempt to determine the equivalence of the measurement model for team commitment across random sample 1 and random sample 2. From Table 4.27 it can be seen that the difference between the value of χ^2 (10.46) was not higher than the critical value (19.675). It can be concluded that the TCS measurement is probably invariant (thus not different) across the two different sub-samples.

4.5 Examination of the team effectiveness construct and questionnaire (TEQ)

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was carried out on the 114 sales managers' responses to the 11-items in the Team Effectiveness Questionnaire (TEQ) developed by Larson and LaFasto (1989). The factor structure of the questionnaire as determined by Larson and LaFasto (1989) was imposed on the manager's responses regarding the sales units (dealership) under their supervision. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of the 11-item instrument was calculated on the responses of the present sample and was established at .823. The measurement model of the original structure of the TEQ is illustrated in Figure 4.17 and the CFA results are shown in Table 4.28. Item parcelling was carried out as before.

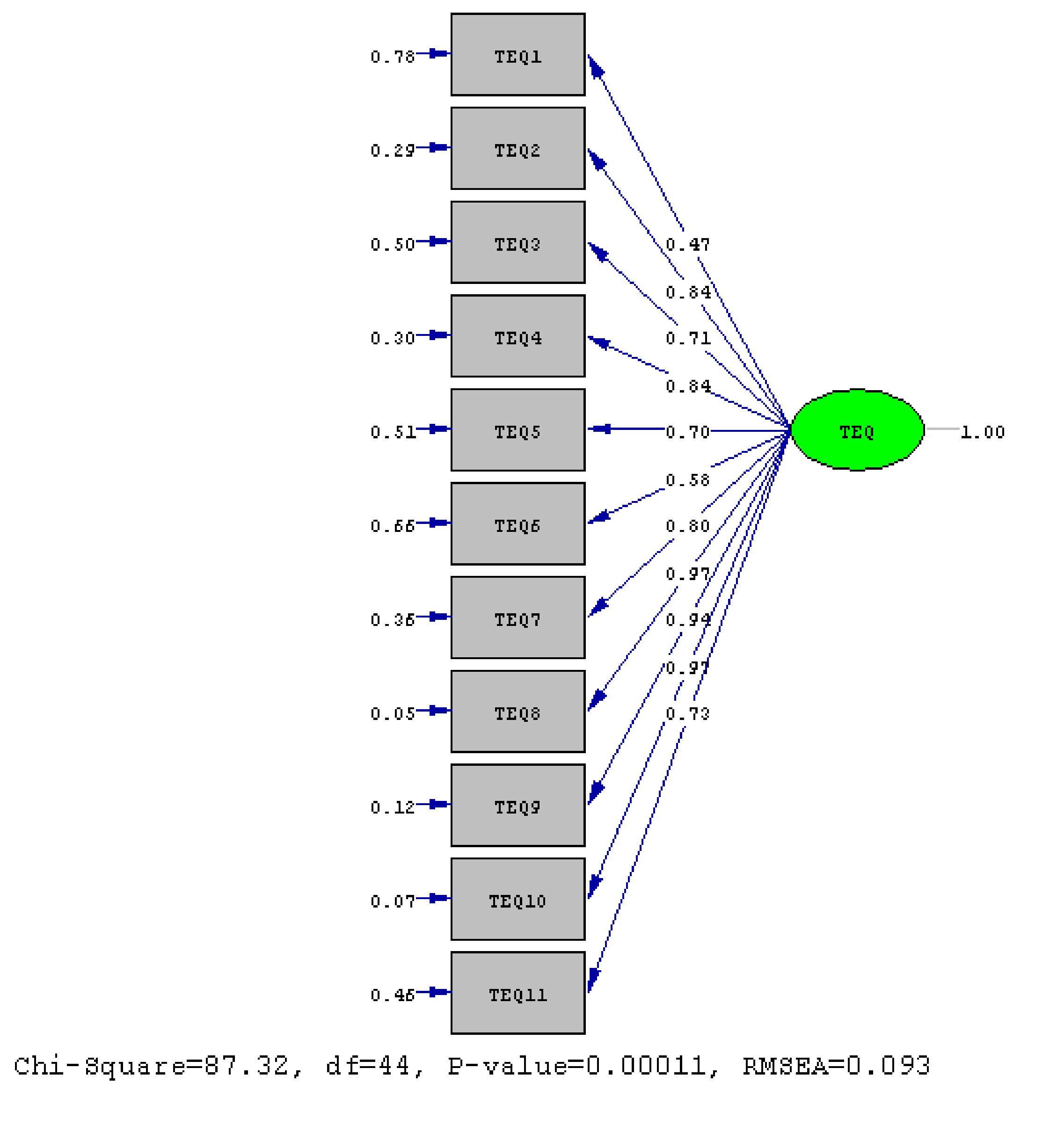

0.78
0.29
0.50
0.30
0.51
0.66
0.36
0.05
0.12
0.07
0.46
TEQ1
TEQ2
TEQ3
TEQ4
TEQ5
TEQ6
TEQ7
TEQ8
TEQ9
TEQ10
TEQ11
0.47
0.84
0.71
0.84
0.70
0.58
0.80
0.97
0.94
0.97
0.73
TEQ
1.00
Chi-Square=87.32, df=44, P-value=0.00011, RMSEA=0.093

Figure 4.17 Measurement model of the TEQ: Original structure

Table 4.28 Fit statistics of TEQ measurement model

Degrees of Freedom = 44
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 87.32 (P = 0.00011)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 43.32
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (20.54 ; 73.88)

Minimum Fit Function Value = 0.77
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 0.38
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (0.18 ; 0.65)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.093
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA = (0.064 ; 0.12)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05) = 0.0097

Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) = 1.16
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI = (0.96 ; 1.43)
ECVI for Saturated Model = 1.17
ECVI for Independence Model = 13.49

Chi-Square for Independence Model with 55 Degrees of Freedom = 1501.90
Independence AIC = 1523.90
Model AIC = 131.32
Saturated AIC = 132.00
Independence CAIC = 1565.00
Model CAIC = 213.51
Saturated CAIC = 378.59

Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.94
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.96
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) = 0.75
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.97
Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.97
Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.93

Critical N (CN) = 89.92

Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 0.19
Standardised RMR = 0.19
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.97
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.95
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.65

These indices taken as a whole indicate a reasonably good fit between the measurement model and the data. The indices are based on an analysis in which the individual items of the TEQ are used as the manifest variables. It was observed that this may result in an underestimation of the fit indices. A model in which the items were grouped into three parcels of 4, 4 and 3 items was tried. This, however, resulted in a saturated model, which could not be usefully interpreted. It was in the light of these findings decided to subject the responses of 114 managers to the 11 items in the questionnaire to EFA. Calculation of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated that execution of EFA would be feasible. These values were respectively .817 and 463.682 (p=0.000) df = 50. The scree plot obtained from the EFA is shown in Figure 4.18. Principal factor analysis with direct oblimin rotation of the axes was again used.

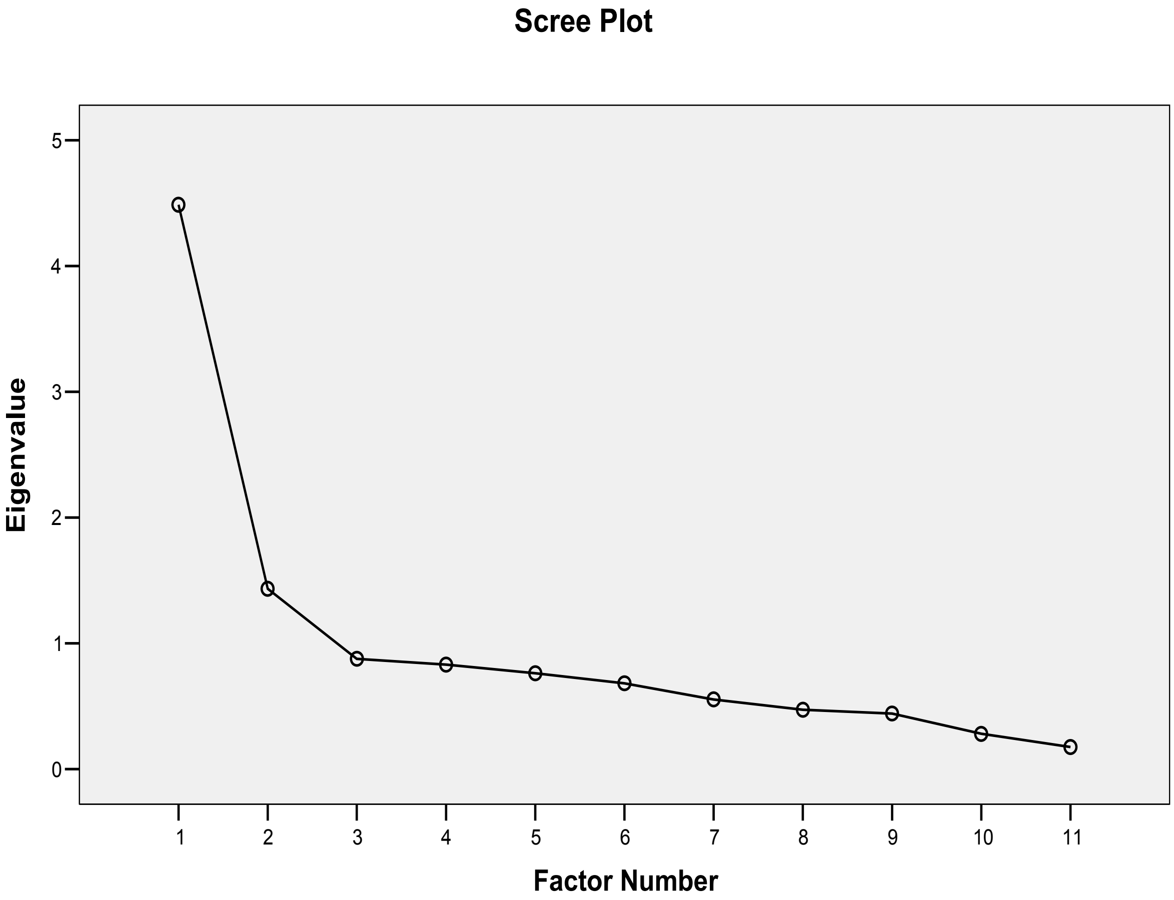


Figure 4.18 Scree plot of responses to TEQ

The scree plot was interpreted as indicating the possibility of the existence of two factors. A two-factor solution was therefore specified. The structure matrix obtained from this analysis is shown in Table 4.29 below.

Table 4.29 Structure matrix of TEQ (N = 114)

	Factor	
	1	**2**
TEQ1	.489	.111
TEQ2	.344	.473
TEQ3	.187	.539
TEQ4	.370	.545
TEQ5	.440	.429
TEQ6	.200	.587
TEQ7	.705	.464
TEQ8	.704	.537

TEQ9	.834	.435
TEQ10	.869	.312
TEQ11	.740	.366

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

The factor-loading pattern in Table 4.29 indicated that only six out of the 11 items loaded satisfactory on Factor One and two factors on Factor Two. The two factors correlated quite highly at .439. The two-factor solution was therefore rejected and not further pursued.

A one-factor solution was specified and the resulting factor matrix is shown in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30 One-factor solution factor matrix[a] (N = 114)

	Factor
	1
TEQ1	.432
TEQ2	.428
TEQ3	.309
TEQ4	.466
TEQ5	.497
TEQ6	.331
TEQ7	.732
TEQ8	.754
TEQ9	.821
TEQ10	.790
TEQ11	.723

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.
[a]: 1 factors extracted. 5 iterations required.

From Table 4.30 it can be seen that all the items loaded satisfactorily on the one factor. This factor explained only 40.789% of the total variance. Under these circumstances it was decided that the measure had to be used in its original form although the CFA indices indicated a less-than-satisfactory fit between the measurement model and the data. Therefore, a uni-dimensional structure was accepted. The scale had a Cronbach alpha value of .823. Division of the sample into two sub-samples in order to determine the internal consistency of the measurement was not carried out as the size of the original sample (n=114) made analyses of the responses of the two sub-samples by means of CFA inappropriate.

The results obtained from the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses and calculation of Cronbach alphas serve as answer to research question one, proposition one.

The scores obtained by the respondents on the different measuring instruments (scales and sub-scales) are summarised in Table 4.31 below.

Table 4.31 Scores on scales and sub-scales of measuring instruments

Variables Measured	**N**	**M**	**SD**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
Servant Leadership	417	112.92	35.92	-.646	-.541
Trust					
Organisation/Manager	417	114.62	30.80	-.880	.050
Colleagues/Co-workers	417	61.04	15.93	-.778	-.051
Total	417	175.67	41.96	-.692	-.039
Team Commitment					
Emotional	417	78.53	13.71	-.791	.219
Rational	417	42.48	12.60	-.001	-.555
Total	417	121.02	20.72	-.336	.035
Team Effectiveness	67	69.06	4.54	-.881	1.039
Executive Assessment	84	60.53	8.76	-.804	.534

Team effectiveness and executive assessment scores were calculated as follows:

- 1 sales manager = score used.
- More than 1 sales manager = average of evaluations on the TEQ.
- 84 dealerships' sales performance assessed by marketing executives responsible for the dealership.

The team effectiveness and executive assessment scores are the evaluations of the sales managers and the marketing executives of the functioning of the sales teams under their jurisdiction.

The histograms depicting the distribution of the scores on the different measures are displayed as Figures 4.19 to 4.27.

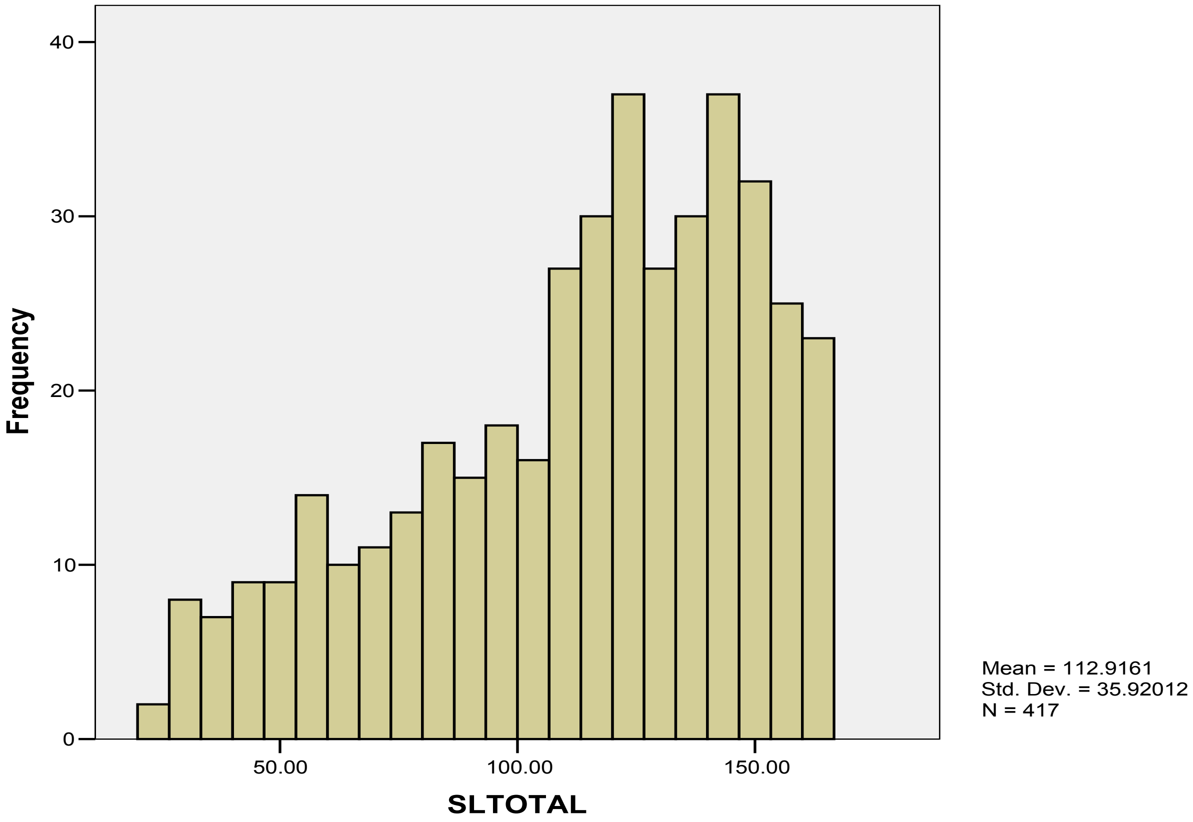


Figure 4.19 Total servant leadership scores

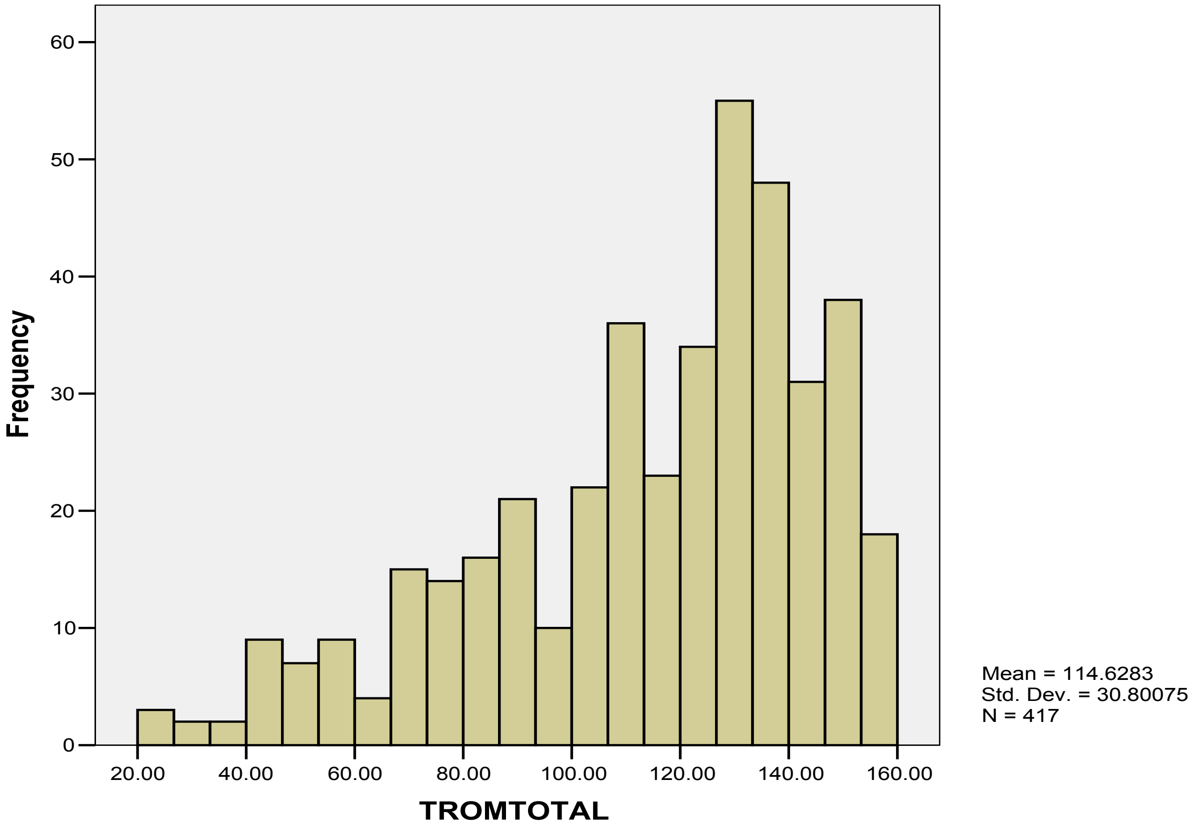


Figure 4.20 Trust in organisation/manager scores

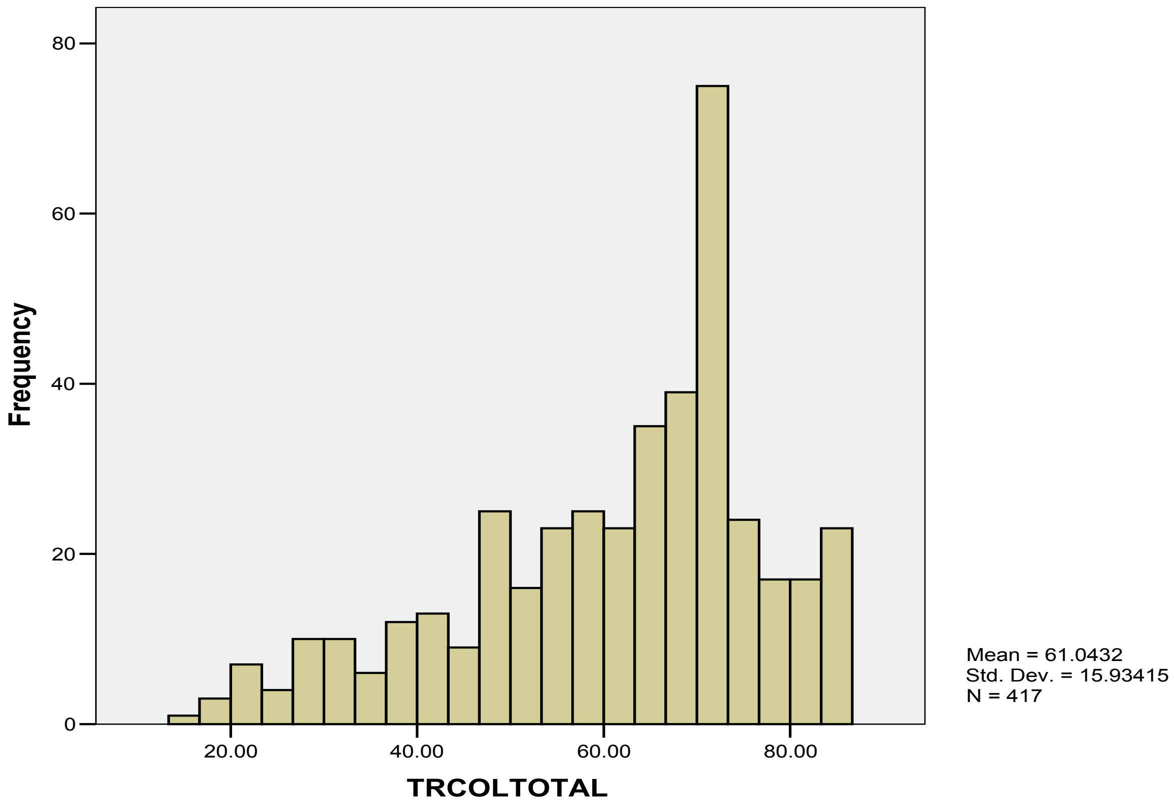


Figure 4.21 Trust in colleague/co-worker scores

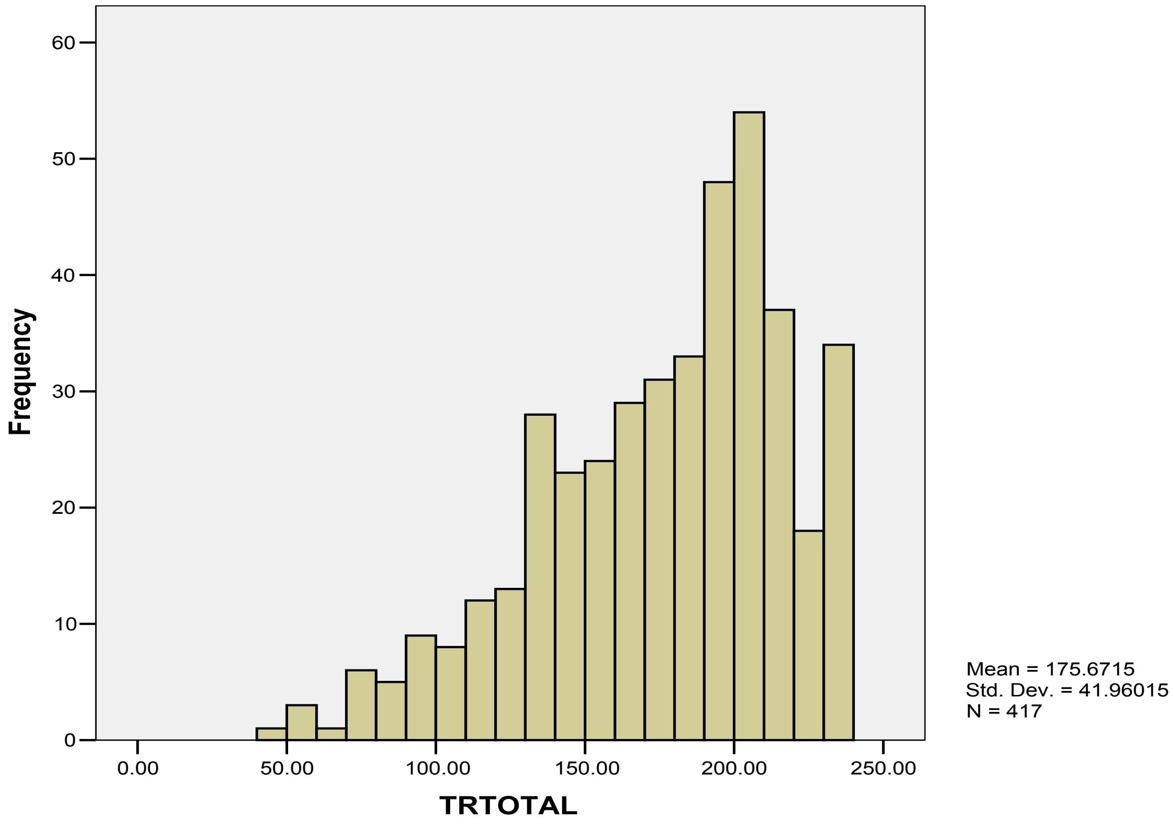


Figure 4.22 Total trust scores

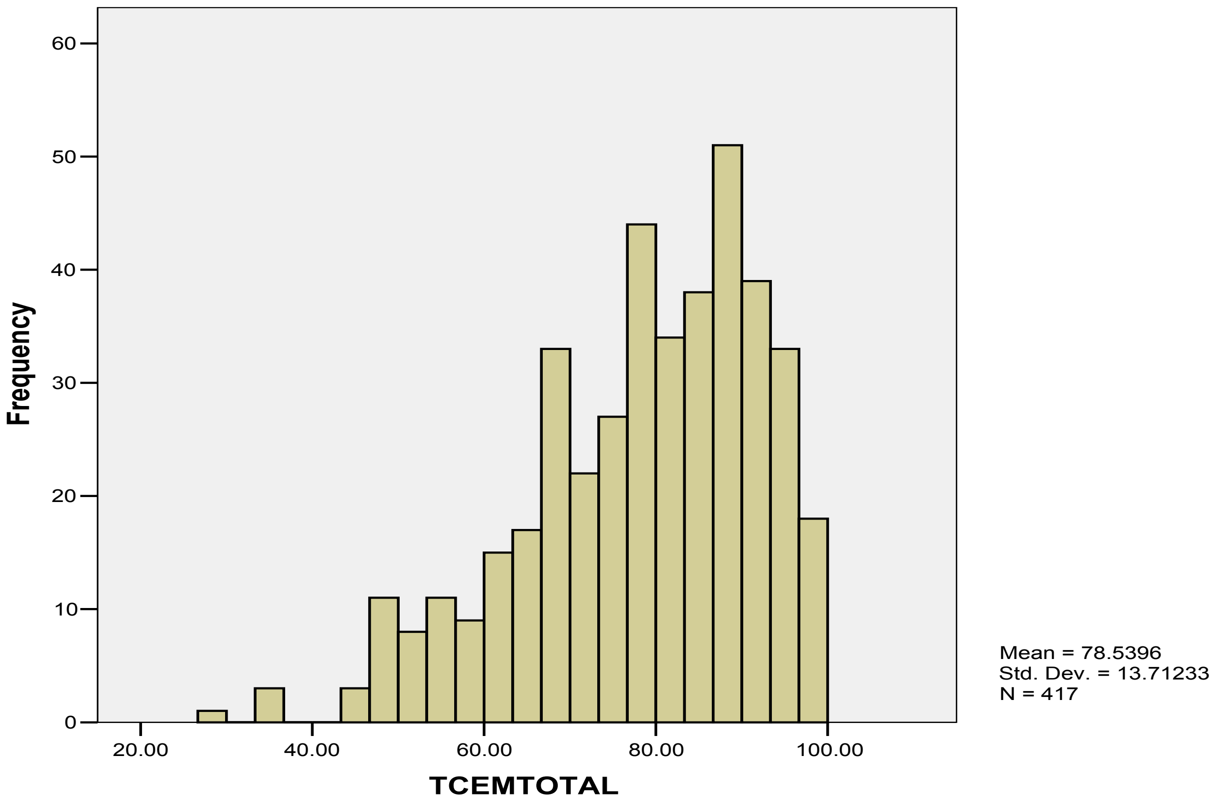


Figure 4.23 Team commitment: Emotional scores

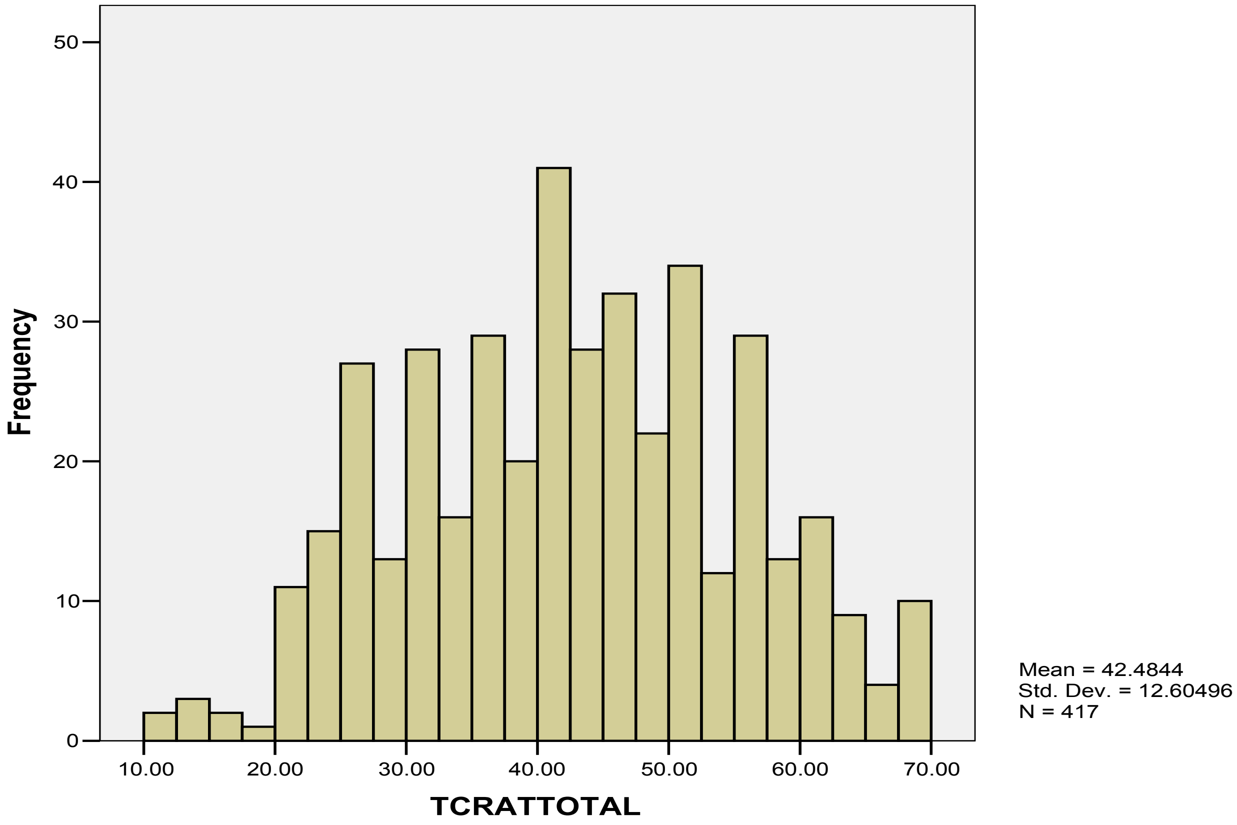


Figure 4.24 Team commitment: Rational scores

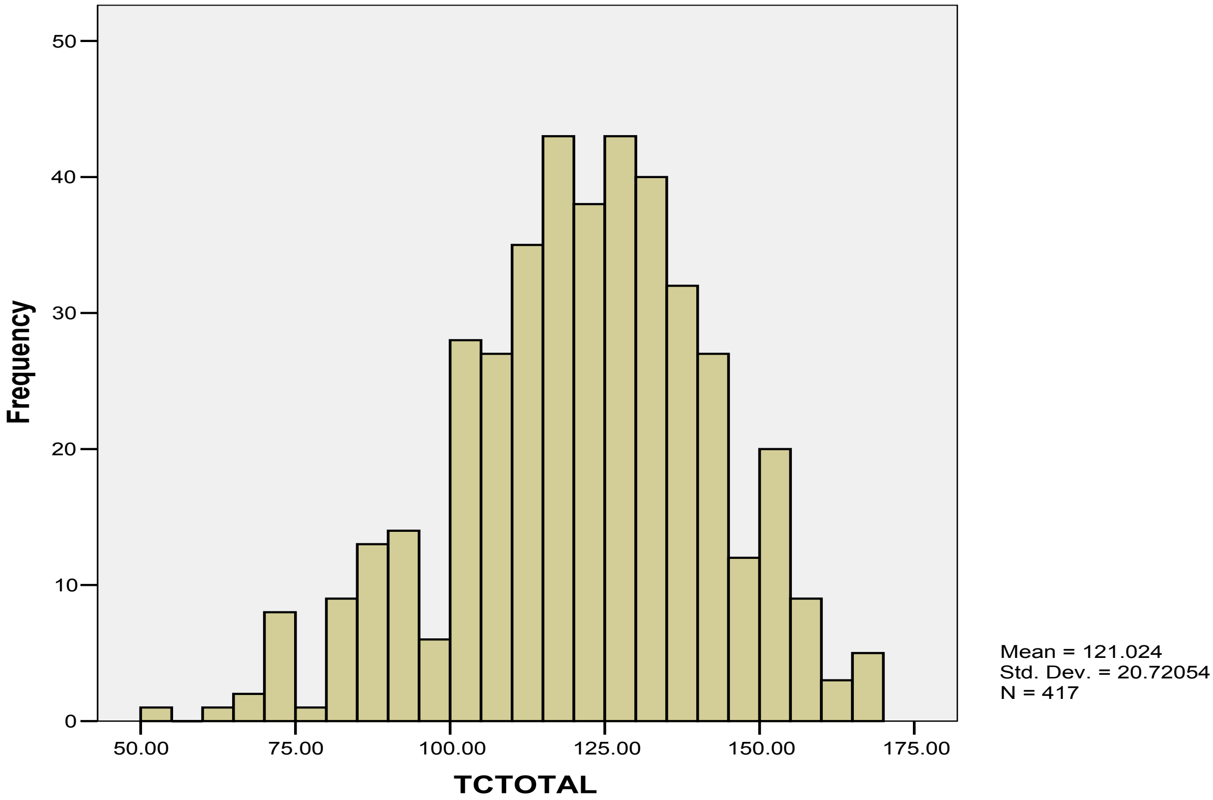


Figure 4.25 Total team commitment scores

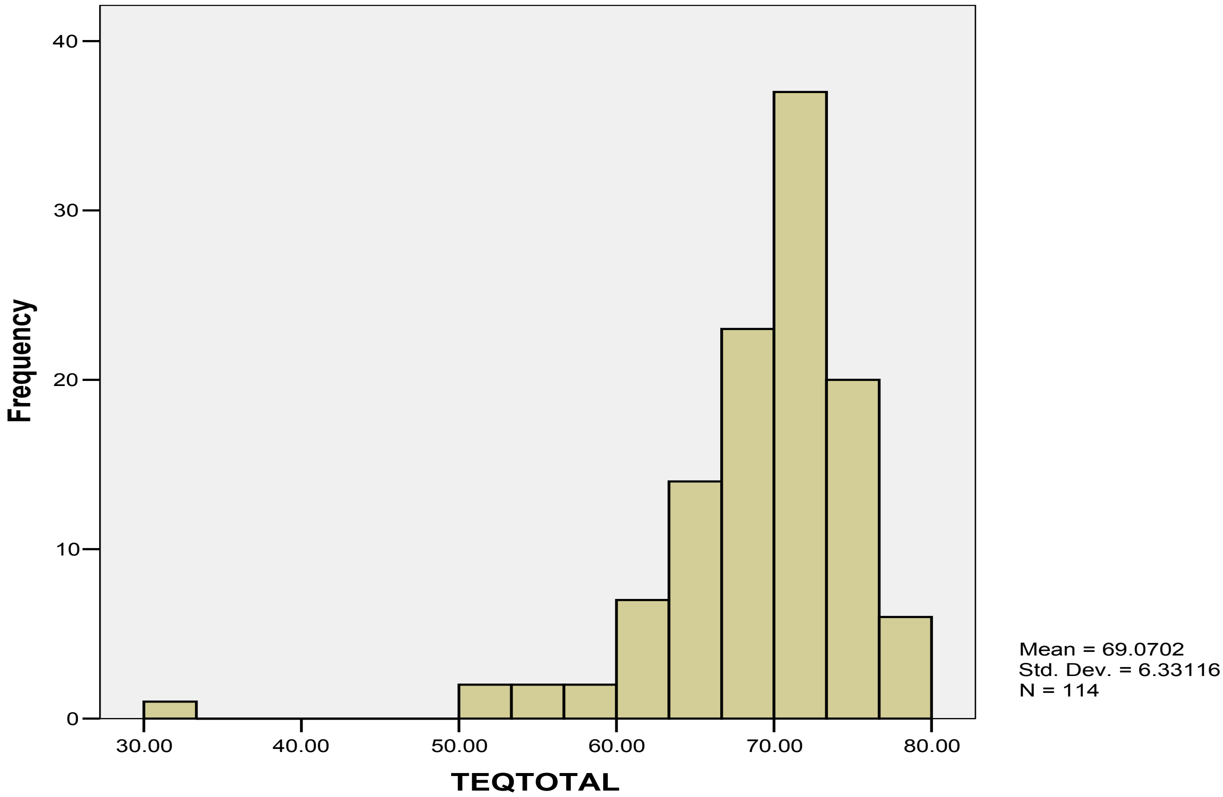


Figure 4.26 Total team effectiveness scores

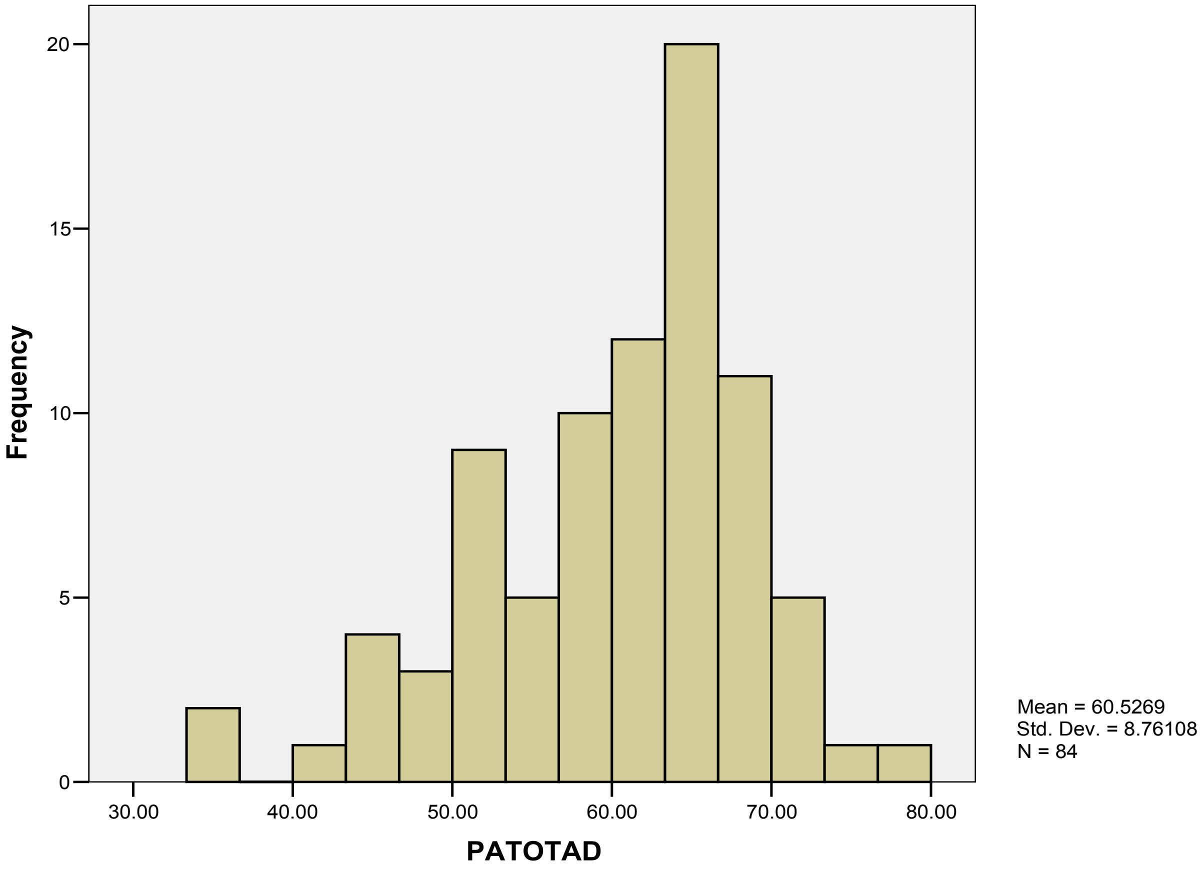


Figure 4.27 Performance appraisal: Total adjusted scores

Nunnally's (1967) guidelines were used to determine levels of reliability for the scales and sub-scales and are indicated in Table 4.32 below. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for the scales and sub-scales were all well-above 0.80, which indicate acceptable/good levels of reliability.

Table 4.32 General guidelines for interpreting reliability coefficients

Reliability coefficient value	**Interpretation**
.90 and above	excellent
.80 - .89	good
.70 - .79	adequate
below .70	may have limited applicability

Table 4.33 Summary of characteristics of measuring instruments

Instrument	Dimensions (n items)	Cronbach Alpha (α)
Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ)	Uni-dimensional (23)	.981
Workplace Trust Survey (WTS) #	Trust in organisation and manager (22)	.975
	Trust in colleagues (12)	.975
Team Commitment Questionnaire (TCQ) ##	Emotional commitment (14)	.898
	Rational Commitment (10)	.855
Team Effectiveness Questionnaire (TEQ)	Uni-dimensional (11)	.823
# WTS Total: Cronbach Alpha = .974; ## TCQ Total: Cronbach Alpha = .879		

4.6 Testing of relationships between POB variables (Research question 2)

An attempt was made to answer this research question and to test propositions two, three, and four by calculating Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (Significance two-tailed) between the total and dimension scores on servant leadership, trust, and team commitment. These results are shown in Table 4.34.

Table 4.34 Correlations between POB variables (N = 417)

	SLTOTAL	TROM	TRCOL	TRTOTAL	TCEM	TCRAT	TCTOTAL
SLTOTAL	1	.859(**)	.453(**)	.803(**)	.477(**)	.283(**)	.488(**)
TROM	.859(**)	1	.569(**)	.950(**)	.560(**)	.304(**)	.555(**)
TRCOL	.453(**)	.569(**)	1	.797(**)	.657(**)	.306(**)	.621(**)

TRTOTAL	.803(**)	.950(**)	.797(**)	1	.660(**)	.339(**)	.643(**)
TCEM	.477(**)	.560(**)	.657(**)	.660(**)	1	.238(**)	.807(**)
TCRAT	.283(**)	.304(**)	.306(**)	.339(**)	.238(**)	1	.766(**)
TCTOTAL	.488(**)	.555(**)	.621(**)	.643(**)	.807(**)	.766(**)	1

Legend:

SL: SERVANT LEADERSHIP
TROM: TRUST ORGANISATION/MANAGER
TRCOL: TRUST COLLEAGUES/CO-WORKERS
TRTOTAL: TRUST TOTAL
TCEM: TEAM COMMITMENT EMOTIONAL
TCRAT: TEAM COMMITMENT RATIONAL
TCTOTAL: TEAM COMMITMENT TOTAL

Due to the problems with interpreting the correlation coefficient when *n* becomes large, it was decided to interpret the results in Table 4.34 above in terms of the values of the coefficient of determination. This was done in terms of a scale offered by Guilford (1956). These guidelines of cut-off points for the usefulness of correlations between variables are shown in Table 4.35.

Table 4.35 Scale for interpreting correlation coefficients

Correlation coefficient value		Interpretation
< .20 =	< 4%	slight, almost negligible relationship
.20-.40 =	4 - 16%	low correlation, definite but small relationship
.40-.70 =	16 - 49%	moderate correlation, substantial relationship
.70-.90 =	49 – 81%	high correlation, marked relationship
> .90 =	81% +	very high correlation, very dependable relationship

The Guilford scale was seen as providing a consistent means for interpreting the statistical correlations, and these interpretations were evaluated in light of the significance levels.

In terms of proposition two, it can be seen in Table 4.34, that high, marked relationships existed between servant leadership and trust in the organisation/manager (73.79%), and between servant leadership and the total score on the trust scale (64.48%). Thus, indicating very strong correlations between servant leadership and these two trust scores specifically. Servant leadership correlated at a moderate level with trust in colleagues/co-workers (20.52% common variance). The correlation between the servant leadership score and the rational team commitment score was low at 8.01% common variance. The relationship between servant leadership and the team commitment total score was at a moderate level of 23.81% common variance. Approximately the same level of relationship (22.75% common variance) existed between emotional team commitment and servant leadership.

From Table 4.34 it can be seen that trust in the organisation/manager and emotional team commitment had 31.36% common variance, indicating a moderate to substantial relationship between these two variables. Between trust in organisation/manager and rational team commitment a 9.24% common variance was yielded, indicating a definite but small relationship between these two variables. Trust in colleagues/co-worker and emotional team commitment had 43.16% common variance, signifying a relationship of moderate to substantial strength. Trust in colleagues/co-worker and rational team commitment yielded 9.63% common variance, indicating a low but definite relationship.

Trust in colleagues/co-workers and total team commitment had 38.6% common variance, indicating a moderate to substantial relationship. Trust in colleagues/co-worker and the trust total score had 63.52% common variance, indicating a high relationship. The total trust score had 43.57% common variance with emotional team commitment, indicating a moderate to substantial relationship, 11.49% common variance with rational team commitment – a low but definite relationship, and 41.34% common variance with total team commitment, a moderate to substantial relationship. The degree to which servant leadership and trust would predict team commitment was further explored by means of standard multiple regression. The results are shown in Tables 4.36a and 4.36b below.

Table 4.36a Results from multiple regression analysis: Trust and team commitment

Independent variable (Predictor variable)	Dependent variable	Beta coefficient	p	Prediction % common variance
TRCOL	TC Emotional	.501	.0000	48.1
TROM		.275	.0000	
TRCOL	TC Rational	.196	.001	11.4
TROM		.192	.001	
TRCOL	TC Total	.451	.0000	44.3
TROM		.299	.0000	

Table 4.36b Results from multiple regression analysis: Servant leadership, trust and team commitment

Independent variable (Predictor variable)	Dependent variable	Beta coefficient	p	Prediction % common variance
SL	TC Emotional	.052	.4530	48.0
TRCOL		.503	.0000	
TROM		.202	.002	
SL	TC Rational	.113	.212	11.5
TROM		.092	.351	
TRCOL		.202	.0000	
SL	TC Total	.103	.151	44.5
TROM		.207	.008	
TRCOL		.456	.0000	

From Tables 4.36a and 4.36b it can be seen that emotional team commitment and the total team commitment score could be predicted at quite a high level by means of the two trust variables – trust in colleagues and trust in the organisation and management. Trust in colleagues/co-workers made the greater contribution to the prediction – as reflected in the beta coefficients that were obtained. The prediction of rational team commitment was at a substantially lower level at 11.4% common variance between predictors and dependent variable. The contribution of servant leadership, when included in the prediction equation was not significant.

Servant leadership formed a central interest of the present study. Due to the high level of co-linearity amongst the independent variables it was decided to carry out a hierarchical multiple regression analysis in order to attempt to establish a clearer picture of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Servant leadership was in all of the cases first entered into the prediction model. The results are shown in Table 4.37 and illustrated in Figures 4.28 to 4.30.

Table 4.37 Results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis

Dependent variable	**Independent variables**	**R²**
TCTOTAL	SLTOTAL	0.24
TCTOTAL	SLTOTAL, TROMTOTAL	0.31
TCTOTAL	SLTOTAL, TRCOLTOTAL	0.44
TCTOTAL	SLTOTAL, TROMTOTAL, TRCOLTOTAL	0.45
TCEMTOTAL	SLTOTAL	0.23
TCEMTOTAL	SLTOTAL,TROMTOTAL	0.31
TCEMTOTAL	SLTOTAL,TRCOLTOTAL	0.47
TCEMTOTAL	SLTOTAL,TROMTOTAL,TRCOLTOTAL	0.48
TCRATTOTAL	SLTOTAL	0.08
TCRATTOTAL	SLTOTAL,TROMTOTAL	0.09
TCRATTOTAL	SLTOTAL,TRCOLTOTAL	0.12
TCRATTOTAL	SLTOTAL,TROMTOTAL,TRCOLTOTAL	0.12

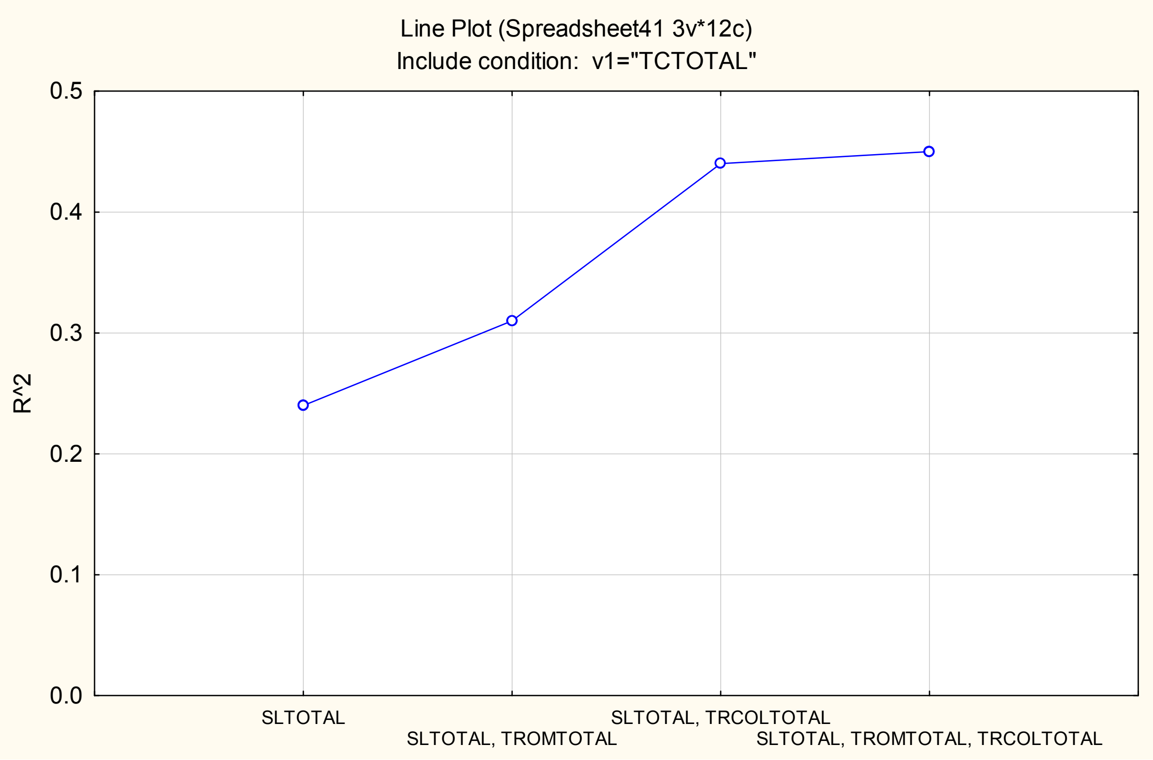


Figure 4.28 Graphic representation of prediction of total team commitment

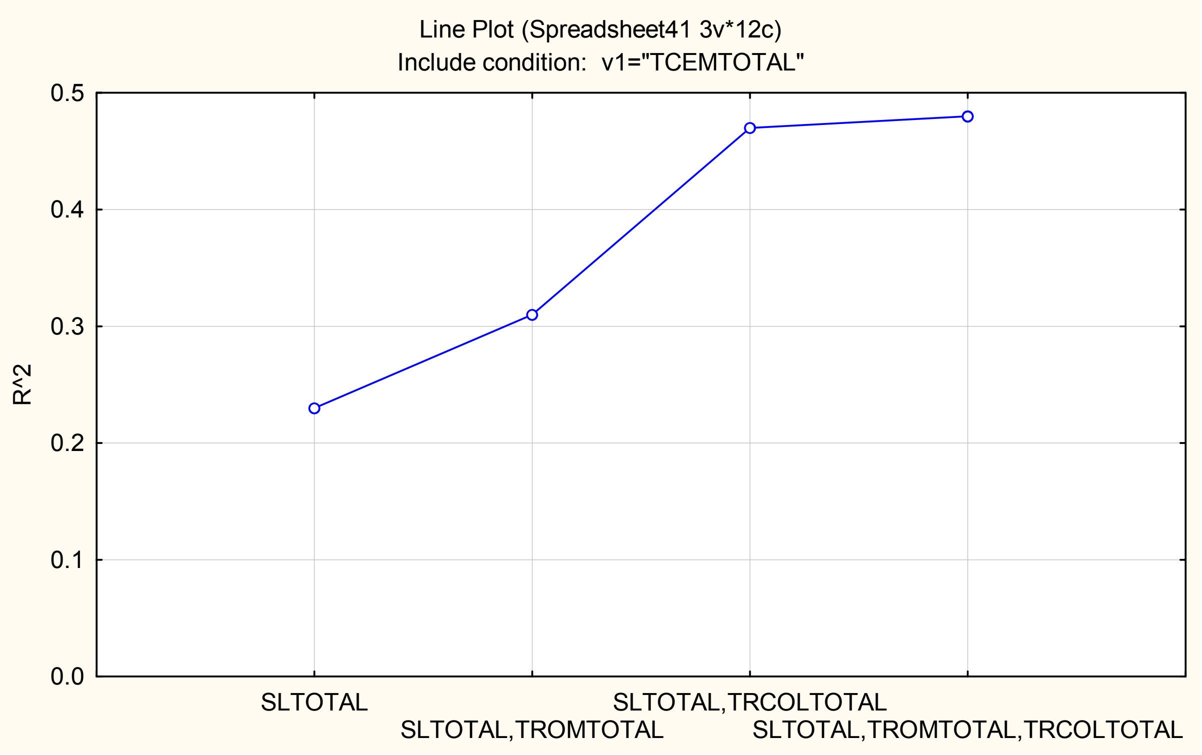


Figure 4.29 Graphic representation of prediction of emotional team commitment

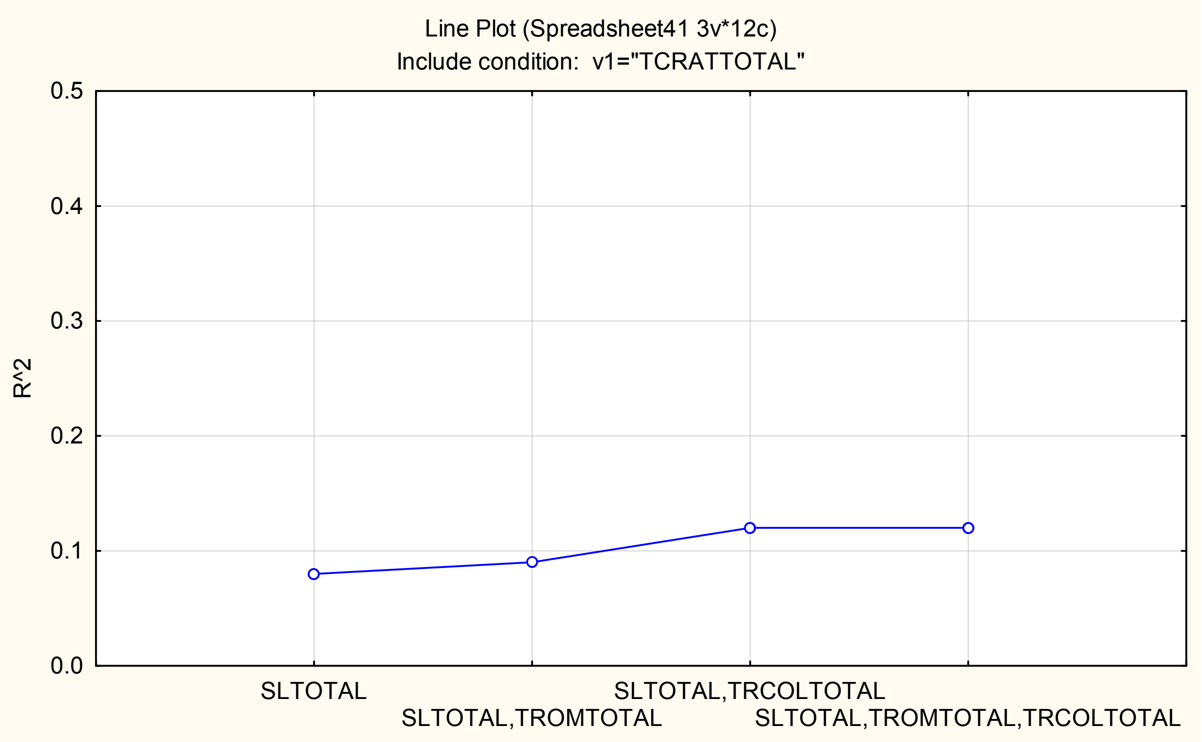


Figure 4.30 Graphic representation of prediction of rational team commitment

Results reported above seem to indicate that in a sequential regression procedure servant leadership, when entered first in a multiple regression model, does play a substantial role in the total strength of the prediction. This was taken into account when a decision about the sequence of variables in structural equations models to be built, was determined.

4.7 Testing of relationships between POB variables and unit effectiveness (Research question 3)

Unit effectiveness was measured by the 11-item Team Effectiveness Questionnaire (TEQ) developed by Larson and LaFasto (1989). As explained in Chapter 3 and earlier in this chapter , the sales managers to whom the sales persons in this study reported, assessed the sales team/s (units) under their supervision.

This procedure was carried out in order to determine the relationship between servant leadership, trust, team commitment (on the one hand) and unit effectiveness (on the other hand).

The relationships were calculated by using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (Significant two-tailed) between the total and dimension scores on servant leadership, trust, and team commitment. These results are shown in Table 4.38 below.

Table 4.38 Pearson product-moment correlations between TEQ and POB variables (n=67)

	TEQ
SL TOTOTAL	0.085
TROM	0.084
TRCOL	0.033
TR TOTAL	0.075
TCEM	0.162
TCRAT	-0.045
TC TOTAL	0.011

Applying the rules regarding coefficient of determination (as stated in Table 4.35) it can be concluded that all the POB variables and TEQ score had very weak relationships. The highest coefficient of determination was between TEQ and emotional team commitment at 2.62% and the lowest between TEQ and total team commitment at .012%.

The product-moment correlation between TEQ and performance appraisal (PA) by executives was calculated and a value of .006 was obtained. This result indicates that the two unit effectiveness criteria can be seen as independent.

This result will be discussed in further detail in Chapter 5. However, at this stage it can be said that the distribution of TEQ scores were extremely negatively skewed and the range of scores very narrow. M = 69.061, SD = 4.544, Skewness = -0.881, and Kurtosis = 1.039. The minimum score was 56 and maximum score 77. Nearly the same was true for the PA scores (M = 60.53, SD = 8.76, Skewness = -0.804, and Kurtosis = .534).

In order to determine the relationship between the scores on the POB variables obtained from sales persons and assessments by the organisation's marketing executives, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients were again calculated. The marketing executives assessed each sales unit within each dealership on eight organisation-specific performance criteria. The scores on these criteria were summed and correlated with scores on the POB variables. The results are shown in Table 4.39.

Table 4.39 Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients between POB variables and assessment by the organisation's marketing executives (n = 84)

POB variable	Performance appraisal (PA) Total	Coefficient of determination
SL	-.191	3.65%
TROM	-.165	2.72%
TRCOL	-.161	2.59%
TRTOT	-.167	2.79%
TCEM	-.062	0.38%
TCRAT	.110	1.21%
TCTOT	.041	0.17%

Applying the rules regarding coefficient of determination (Table 4.35) it can be concluded that all the POB variables and PA scores had very weak relationships. The highest coefficient of determination was between PA and servant leadership at 3.65% and the lowest between PA and total team commitment at 0.17%. Most of the relationships were also negative.

This unexpected result which was contradictory to the expectation stated in Proposition 5 is discussed in more detail in Chapter 5. At this stage it can be said that the distribution of PA scores was extremely negatively skewed and the range of scores quite narrow. M = 60.53, SD = 8.76, Skewness = -.804, Kurtosis = .534.

4.8 Testing the relationship between POB variables, biographical, and organisational variables (Research question 4)

POB variables were measured on continuous scales. This was also true of the evaluations of unit effectiveness by sales managers and by marketing executives. Some of the biographical and organisation variables were measured in terms of discreet (categorical) scales, in some cases more than two categories had been identified. It was therefore decided to use t-tests to determine differences between the scores of the identified groups when only two categories existed. In cases where the two groups whose scores were to be compared differed substantially in size, Mann-Whitney z-tests were additionally carried out. ANOVA followed by post-hoc tests were used where more than two categories existed. Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated in all cases where both variables were measured on continuous scales. The results of the t-tests and, where applicable, the Mann-Whitney z-tests are shown in Table 4.40.

Table 4.40 Results of t- and Mann-Whitney tests

Groups compared	**Comparison variable**	**t-value (df)**	**p**	**Mann-Whitney Z**	**p**
Gender *	SLTOTAL	-1.027 (161.841)	.306	-1.211	.226
	TROMTOTAL	-1.026 (167.228)	.306	-1.621	.105
	TRCOLTOTAL	-1.275 (150.196)	.204	-1.244	.213
	TRTOTAL	-1.265 (165.485)	.208	-1.554	.120
	TCEMTOTAL	.247 (148.169)	.805	-.503	.615
	TCRATTOTAL	.609 (154.419)	.544	-.784	.433
	TCTOTAL	.528 (150.058)	.598	-.694	.408

Language Current *	SLTOTAL	1.111 (360.445)	.267	N/A	N/A
	TROMTOTAL	.353 (359.051)	.725		
	TRCOLTOTAL	-.679 (342.705)	.498		
	TRTOTAL	.000 (348.037)	1.00		
	TCEMTOTAL	.812 (361.564)	.417		
	TCRATTOTAL	3.208 (361.076)	.001		
	TCTOTAL	2.464 (362.538)	.014		
Language Mother tongue *	SLTOTAL	.472 (339.530)	.637	N/A	N/A
Groups compared	**Comparison variable**	**t-value (df)**	**p**	**Mann-Whitney Z**	**p**
	TROMTOTAL	.168 (338.836)	.867		
	TRCOLTOTAL	-1.030 (344.997)	.304		
	TRTOTAL	-.510 (344.056)	.611		
	TCEMTOTAL	-.031 (342.567)	.975		
	TCRATTOTAL	2.195 (341.980)	.029		
	TCTOTAL	1.332 (343.981)	.184		
Qualification *	SLTOTAL	.250 (385.820)	.803	N/A	N/A
	TROMTOTAL	-.281 (379.966)	.779		

	TRCOLTOTAL	-.352 (389.746)	.725		
	TRTOTAL	-.337 (379.692)	.736		
	TCEMTOTAL	-.317 (359.854)	.751		
	TCRATTOTAL	2.537 (389.916)	.012		
	TCTOTAL	1.317 (383.394)	.189		
Groups compared	**Comparison variable**	**t-value (df)**	**p**	**Mann-Whitney Z**	**p**
Sales cadet *	SLTOTAL	.270 (337.312)	.787	-.453	.651
	TROMTOTAL	.358 (344.416)	.721	-.678	.498
	TRCOLTOTAL	-.736 (350.136)	.462	-.470	.638
	TRTOTAL	-.015 (340.715)	.988	-.178	.858
	TCEMTOTAL	-.746 (329.479)	.456	-.739	.460
	TCRATTOTAL	-.263 (336.762)	.793	-.095	.925
	TCTOTAL	-.656 (334.994)	.512	-.617	.537
Ethnic group *	SLTOTAL	-.055 (234.645)	.956	-.160	.873
	TROMTOTAL	-.249 (227.157)	.803	-.300	.764
	TRCOLTOTAL	.405 (246.460)	.686	-.284	.776
	TRTOTAL	-.035 (235.178)	.972	-.109	.913
	TCEMTOTAL	-1.107	.270	-.704	.481

		(221.141)			
	TCRATTOTAL	-.902 (226.789)	.368	-1.208	.227
	TCTOTAL	-1.268 (218.160)	.206	-1.023	.306

* Unequal variances assumed

From Table 4.40 it can be seen that the scores of the two gender groups did not differ significantly on any of the variables. The scores of groups formed in terms of current home language did differ significantly on rational team commitment and on total team commitment. Individuals currently speaking Afrikaans at home had higher scores than individuals currently having English as home language. Individuals who grew up with Afrikaans as their mother tongue also had higher scores on rational team commitment than individuals who grew up with English as home language. The qualification groups (12 years of schooling versus post school qualification) also differed significantly on rational team commitment with the group with the lower qualification having a higher score than the group with a post school qualification. The scores of the ethnic groups did not differ significantly on any of the scales or sub-scales. The scores of individuals who had participated in the organisations sales cadet program and those who had not done so did not differ significantly on any of the scales or sub-scales.

Where the scores of more than two groups were compared One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was employed to determine the significance or not, among the scores. This was done to determine whether the differences between the scores of three religious groups, i.e. Catholics, Protestants, and Other religions differed from each other. Three religion groups were identified: Protestants, Catholics, and adherents of other religions. The scores of these three groups were compared by means of One-way analysis of Variance followed by Tukey’s Ranges test where applicable. The results are shown in Table 4.41.

Table 4.41 Results of ANOVA on scores of religious groups

Groups compared	**Comparison variable**	**F (2; 414)**	**p**
Religion	SLTOTAL	1.956	.143
	TROMTOTAL	4.964	.007
	TRCOLTOTAL	2.094	.124
	TRTOTAL	4.787	.009
	TCEMTOTAL	1.381	.252
	TCRATTOTAL	2.386	.093
	TCTOTAL	2.573	.077

The scores of these three groups differed significantly on trust in the organisation/manager and on the total trust score, as can be seen in Table 4.41. This was investigated further by means of Tukey's ranges test. This indicated that both Protestants and Catholics had higher scores on these variables than individuals from other religions. The scores of Protestants and Catholics did not differ significantly.

Whether relationships existed between variables measured on continuous scales was determined by means of Pearson product moment correlation. The results for the variables age of the participant and the length of time the respondent has been in his/her current position are shown in Table 4.42.

Table 4.42 Pearson correlations between POB variables, age, and years in current position (N=417)

Comparison variable	**Age**	**Position**
SLtotal	-.176	-.125
TROMtotal	-.106	-.093
TRCOLtotal	-.063	-.045
TRtotal	-.101	-.085
TCEMtotal	-100	-.044
TCRATtotal	-.089	.023
TCtotal	-.120	-.015

In the case of two biographical variables, age and years in current position, measured on continuous scales, Pearson product-moment correlations were computed to determine the relationship between these variables and the POB variables. The results are shown in Table 4.43.

Table 4.43 Correlations between POB variables, age, and years in current position (N = 417)

		SL TOTAL	TROM TOTAL	TRCOL TOTAL	TR TOTAL	TCEM TOTAL	TCRAT TOTAL	TC TOTAL
AGE	Pearson Correlation	-.176(**)	-.106(*)	-.063	-.101(*)	-.100(*)	-.089	-.120(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.031	.201	.038	.042	.071	.014
POS.	Pearson Correlation	-.125(*)	-.093	-.045	-.085	-.044	.023	-.015
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.059	.356	.082	.368	.636	.759

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

From Table 4.43 it is clear that the two biographical variables did not have substantial relationships with any of the POB variables. The strongest relationship was between the scores on the SLQ and the respondents' age (3.1% common variance).

The results indicating the only significant differences found between demographic variable groups, are shown in Table 4.44.

Table 4.44 Significant differences between groups

Demographic variable	Compared variable	Groups different
Language: Current	TCRAT TCTOT	Afrikaans > English Afrikaans > English
Language: Mother tongue	TCRAT	Afrikaans > English
Qualification	TCRAT	Lower > Higher
Religion	TRTOT	Christians > Other

As can be seen from Table 4.44 no relationship between organisational variables (e.g. cadet programme) and servant leadership, trust, and team commitment existed.

To investigate the relationship between POB and organisational/ biographic variables by means of a multivariate approach discriminant analysis was employed. For this procedure the sample was divided 60:40. The larger sub-sample was used to build the discriminant models. The models were cross-validated on the 40% sample. The results can be summarised as follows. In none of the identified groups could the POB variables predict membership at a level higher than 60%.

4.9 Building a model of relationships among the study variables (Research question 5)

The original model that was built from the literature is shown in Figure 4.31.

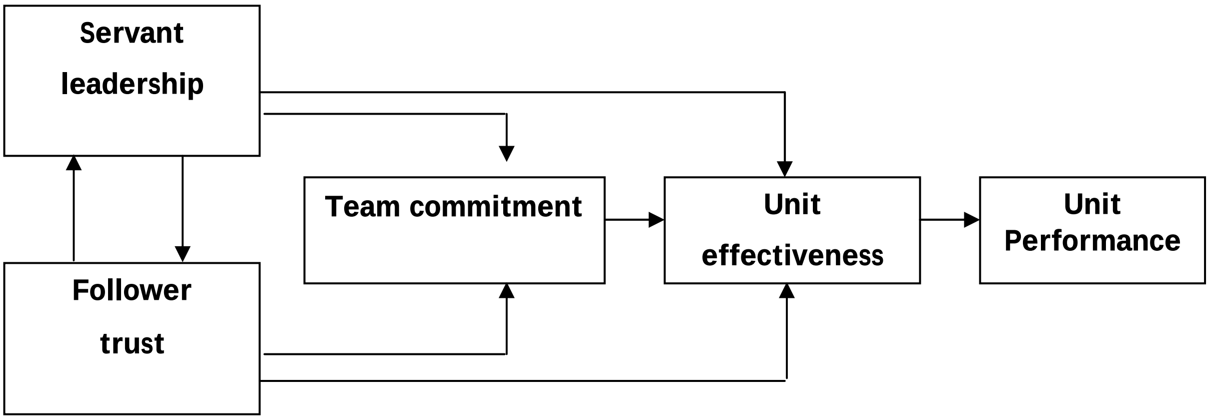


Figure 4.31 Original proposed theoretical model

It was decided to build two structural models. These models were firstly tested as to their measurement qualities.

From the empirical work reported thus far in this chapter it is clear that the measurements of unit effectiveness and unit performance yielded score distributions that could not be trusted. Major shortcomings were revealed, i.e. social desirable responses and response sets possibly caused major skewness of the data as well as extreme range restriction. Under these circumstances it was decided to build a truncated model of only the relationships between the POB variables. Inspection of the results yielded the possibility that two models could fit the data. The proposed structural empirically-built model one is shown in Figure 4.32 and depicted in its text format in Figure 4.33 below.

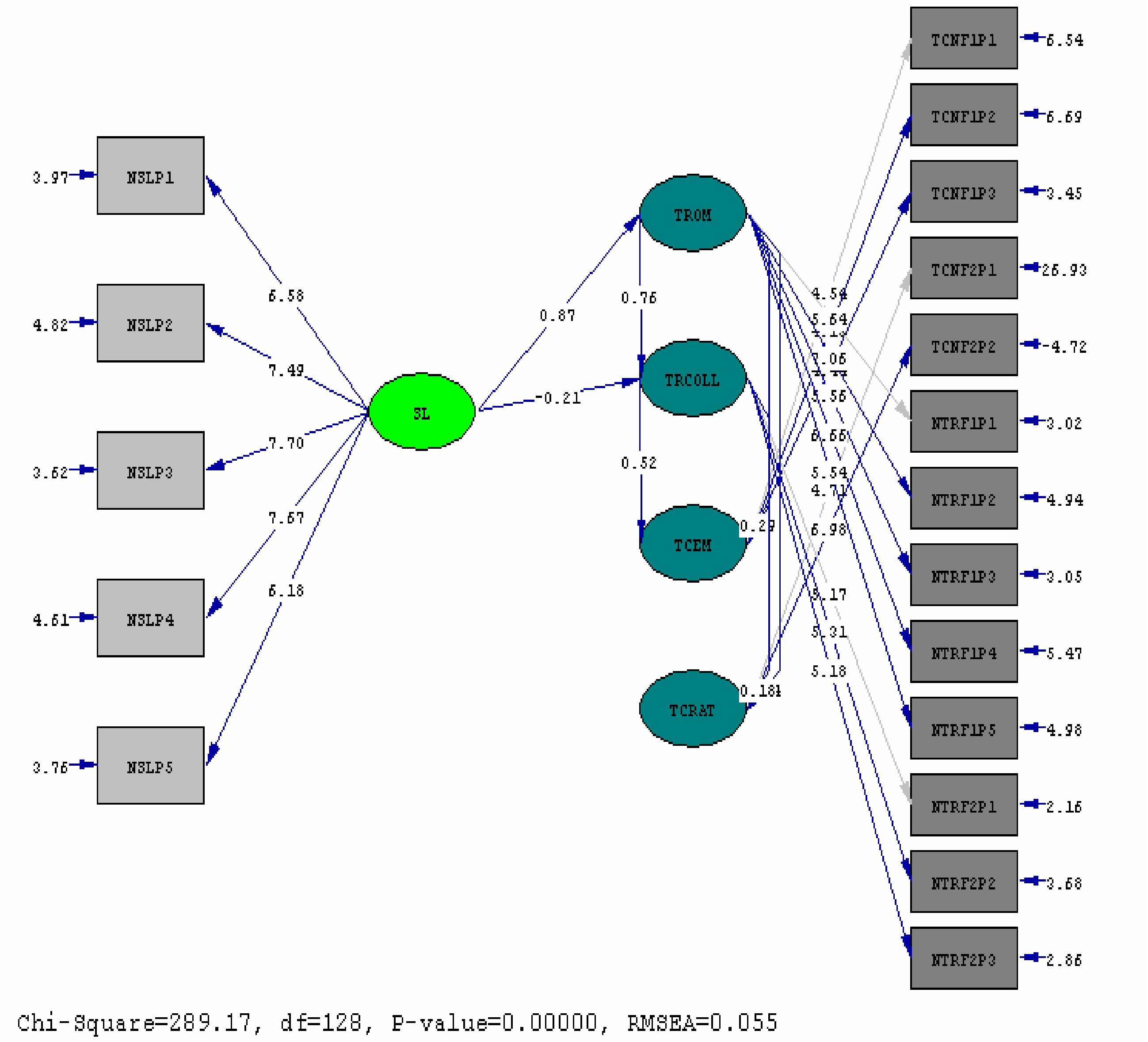

NSLP1
NSLP2
NSLP3
NSLP4
NSLP5
3.97
4.82
3.62
4.61
3.76
6.58
7.49
7.70
7.67
6.18
SL
0.87
-0.21
TROM
TRCOLL
TCEM
TCRAT
0.76
0.52
0.29
0.18
4.54
5.64
7.06
5.56
6.66
5.54
4.71
6.98
5.17
5.31
5.18
TCNF1P1
TCNF1P2
TCNF1P3
TCNF2P1
TCNF2P2
NTRF1P1
NTRF1P2
NTRF1P3
NTRF1P4
NTRF1P5
NTRF2P1
NTRF2P2
NTRF2P3
6.54
6.69
3.45
26.93
-4.72
3.02
4.94
3.05
5.47
4.98
2.16
3.68
2.86
Chi-Square=289.17, df=128, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.055

Figure 4.32 Proposed empirical model one

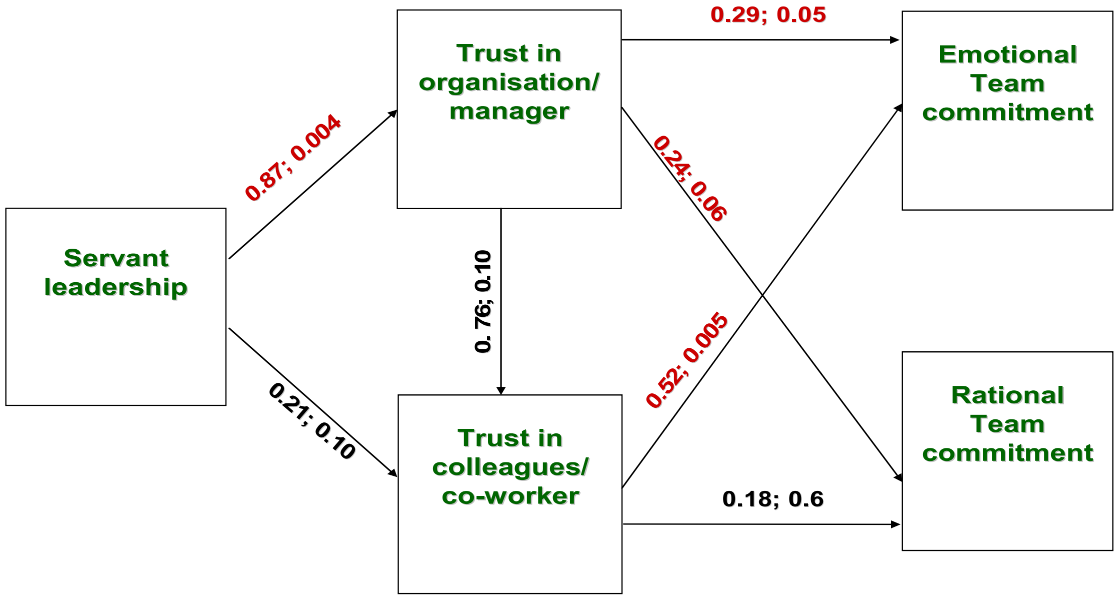

Servant leadership
Trust in organisation/ manager
Trust in colleagues/ co-worker
Emotional Team commitment
Rational Team commitment
0.87; 0.004
0.21; 0.10
0. 76; 0.10
0.29; 0.05
0.24; 0.06
0.52; 0.005
0.18; 0.6

Figure 4.33 Proposed empirical model one in text format

The proposed structural empirically-built model two is shown in Figure 4.34 and depicted in its text format in Figure 4.35 below.

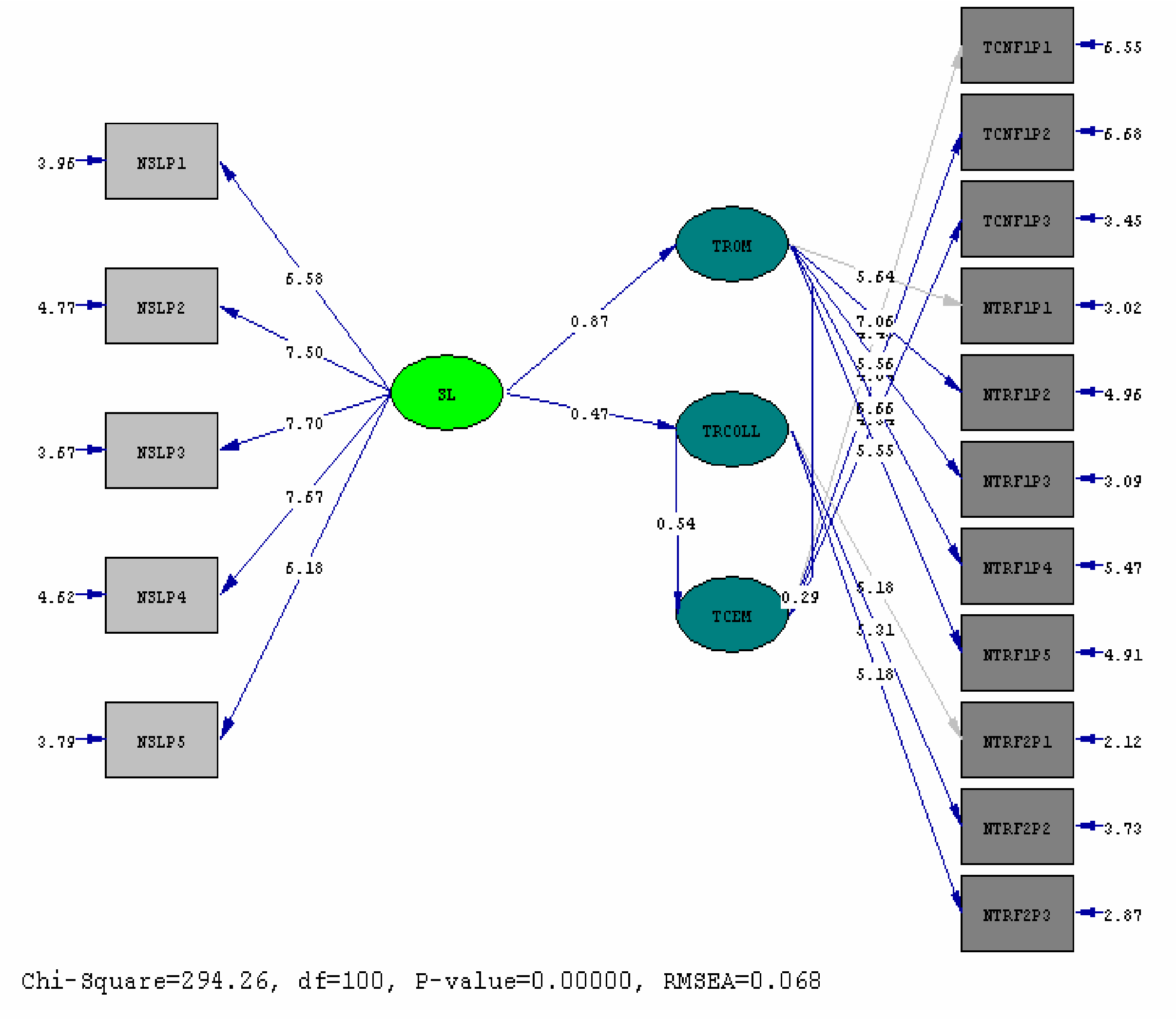

3.96
NSLP1
4.77
NSLP2
3.67
NSLP3
4.62
NSLP4
3.79
NSLP5
6.58
7.50
7.70
7.67
6.18
SL
0.87
0.47
TROM
TRCOLL
0.54
TCEM
0.29
5.64
7.06
5.56
6.66
5.55
5.18
5.31
5.18
TCNF1P1
TCNF1P2
TCNF1P3
NTRF1P1
NTRF1P2
NTRF1P3
NTRF1P4
NTRF1P5
NTRF2P1
NTRF2P2
NTRF2P3
6.55
6.68
3.45
3.02
4.96
3.09
5.47
4.91
2.12
3.73
2.87
Chi-Square=294.26, df=100, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.068

Figure 4.34 Proposed empirical model two

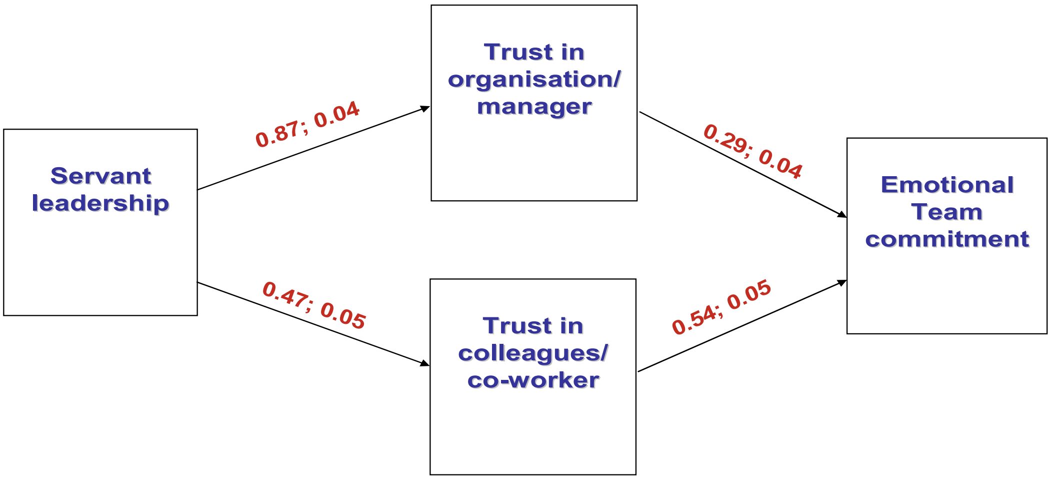

Trust in organisation/ manager
Servant leadership
0.87; 0.04
0.29; 0.04
Emotional Team commitment
0.47; 0.05
0.54; 0.05
Trust in colleagues/ co-worker

Figure 4.35 Proposed empirical model two in text format

The indices obtained from the two structural models, when treated as measurement models, are graphically shown in Figures 4.36 and 4.37, and in Tables 4.45 and 4.46.

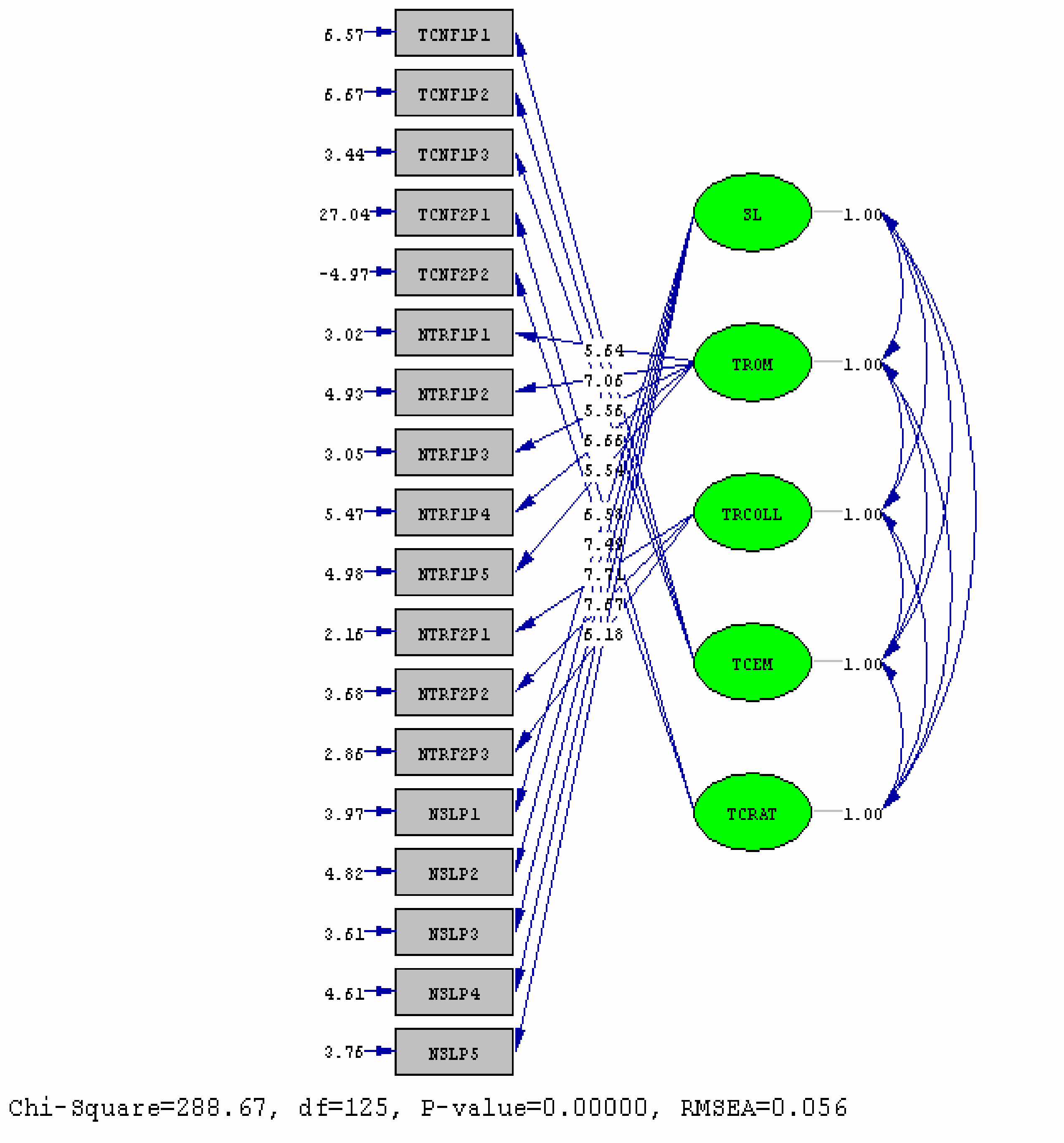

6.57
TCNF1P1
6.67
TCNF1P2
3.44
TCNF1P3
27.04
TCNF2P1
-4.97
TCNF2P2
3.02
NTRF1P1
4.93
NTRF1P2
3.05
NTRF1P3
5.47
NTRF1P4
4.98
NTRF1P5
2.16
NTRF2P1
3.68
NTRF2P2
2.86
NTRF2P3
3.97
NSLP1
4.82
NSLP2
3.61
NSLP3
4.61
NSLP4
3.76
NSLP5
5.64
7.06
5.56
6.66
5.54
6.58
7.49
7.71
7.67
6.18
SL
TROM
TRCOLL
TCEM
TCRAT
1.00
1.00
1.00
1.00
1.00
Chi-Square=288.67, df=125, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.056

Figure 4.36 Measurement model one

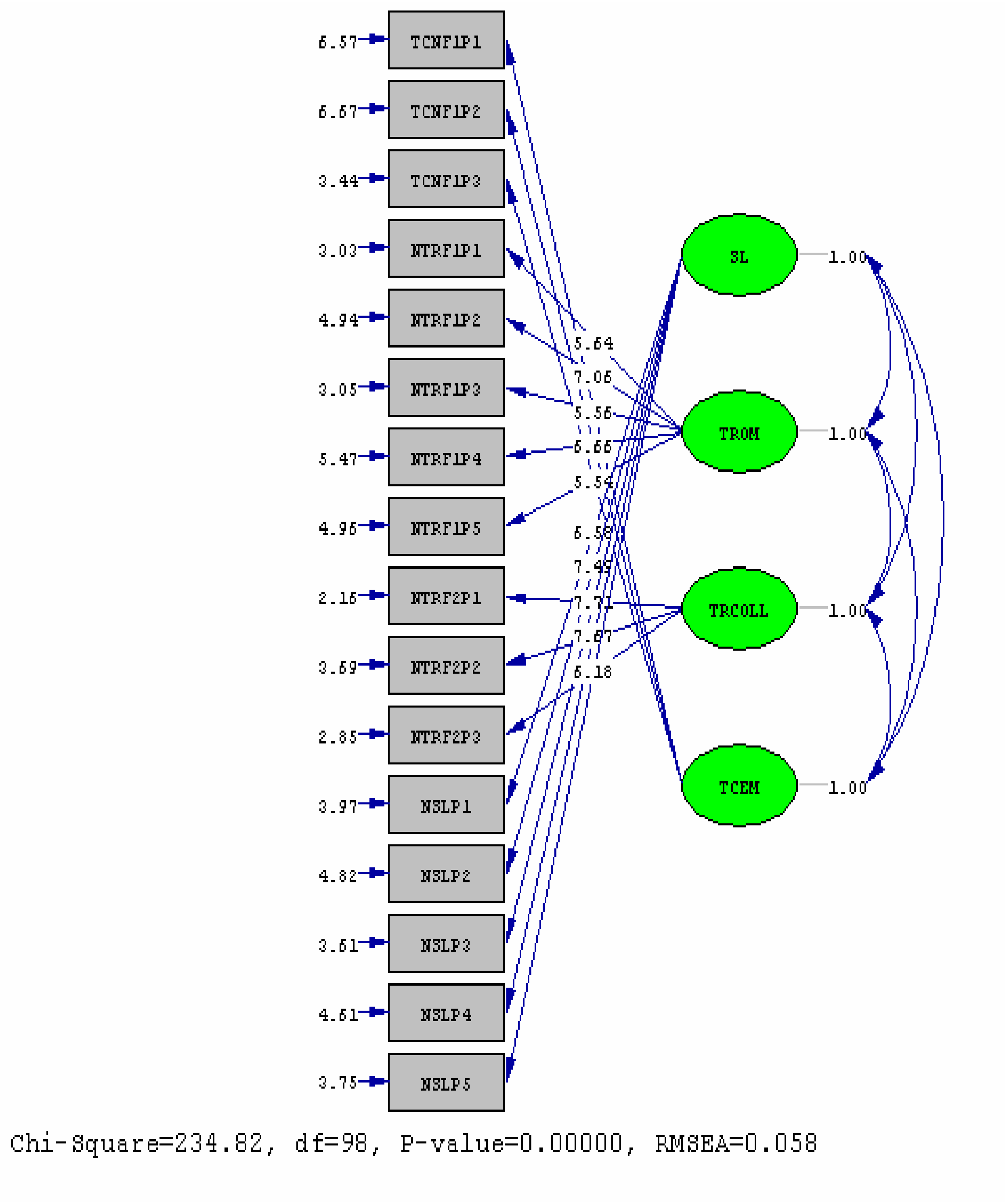

6.57
TCNF1P1
6.67
TCNF1P2
3.44
TCNF1P3
3.03
NTRF1P1
4.94
NTRF1P2
3.05
NTRF1P3
5.47
NTRF1P4
4.96
NTRF1P5
2.16
NTRF2P1
3.69
NTRF2P2
2.85
NTRF2P3
3.97
NSLP1
4.82
NSLP2
3.61
NSLP3
4.61
NSLP4
3.75
NSLP5
5.64
7.06
5.56
6.66
5.54
6.58
7.49
7.71
7.67
6.18
SL
1.00
TROM
1.00
TRCOLL
1.00
TCEM
1.00
Chi-Square=234.82, df=98, P-value=0.00000, RMSEA=0.058

Figure 4.37 Measurement model two

The fit statistics of CFAs carried out with the two structural models treated as measurement models are shown in Table 4.45.

Table 4.45 Fit statistics with variables in structural models treated as measurement models

	Model One	**Model Two**
Degrees of Freedom	125	98
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	348.33 (P = 0.0)	291.07 (P = 0.0)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	353.17 (P = 0.0)	298.66 (P = 0.0)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	288.67 (P = 0.00)	234.82 (P = 0.00)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	313.52 (P = 0.0)	231.62 (P = 0.00)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	163.67	136.82
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	118.01 ; 217.05	95.78 ; 185.57
Minimum Fit Function Value	0.84	0.70
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	0.39	0.33
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	0.28 ; 0.52	0.23 ; 0.45
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.056	0.058
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	0.048 ; 0.065	0.048 ; 0.067
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	0.11	0.082
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	0.92	0.75
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	0.81 ; 1.04	0.65 ; 0.86
ECVI for Saturated Model	0.82	0.65
ECVI for Independence Model	55.89	53.15
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 10 Degrees of Freedom	23213.36	22079.39
Independence AIC	23249.36	22111.39
Model AIC	380.67	310.82
Saturated AIC	342.00	272.00
Independence CAIC	23339.95	22191.92
Model CAIC	612.19	502.08
Saturated CAIC	1202.66	956.50
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.98	0.99
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.99	0.99
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.80	0.81
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.99	0.99
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.99	0.99
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.98	0.98
Critical N (CN)	197.69	191.77
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	1.08	1.08
Standardised RMR	0.028	0.028
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.91	0.92
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	0.88	0.89
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI)	0.67	0.66

From the indices in Table 4.45 it was clear that the two structural models treated as measurement models yielded indications that the testing of structural models could proceed.

These two models were tested by means of the structural equations modelling procedure. The indices obtained from these analyses are shown in Table 4.46.

Table 4.46 Fit statistics structural models one and two

Goodness of Fit Statistics	**Model One**	**Model Two**
Degrees of Freedom	128	100
Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square	350.50 (P = 0.0)	358.02 (P = 0.0)
Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square	352.79 (P = 0.0)	374.63 (P = 0.0)
Satorra-Bentler Scaled Chi-Square	289.17 (P = 0.00)	294.26 (P = 0.0)
Chi-Square Corrected for Non-Normality	329.29 (P = 0.0)	254.97 (P = 0.00)
Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP)	161.17	194.26
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP	115.62 ; 214.44	146.62 ; 249.55
Minimum Fit Function Value	0.84	0.86
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0)	0.39	0.47
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0	0.28 ; 0.52	0.35 ; 0.60
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	0.055	0.068
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA	0.047 ; 0.063	0.059 ; 0.077
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05)	0.16	0.00051
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI)	0.90	0.88
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI	0.79 ; 1.03	0.77 ; 1.01
ECVI for Saturated Model	0.82	0.65
ECVI for Independence Model	55.89	53.15
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 153 Degrees of Freedom	23213.36	22079.39
Independence AIC	23249.36	22111.39
Model AIC	375.17	366.26

Saturated AIC	342.00	272.00
Independence CAIC	23339.95	22191.92
Model CAIC	591.59	547.46
Saturated CAIC	1202.66	956.50
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	0.98	0.98
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	0.99	0.99
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI)	0.82	0.82
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.99	0.99
Incremental Fit Index (IFI)	0.99	0.99
Relative Fit Index (RFI)	0.98	0.98
Critical N (CN)	200.55	158.81
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	1.10	2.35
Standardised RMR	0.029	0.067
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.91	0.90
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	0.88	0.86
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI)	0.68	0.66

It appears from the indices in Table 4.46 above that the two truncated models (empirically built) rendered acceptable indices of the fit between the model and the data. Path coefficients were not in all cases significant. Further discussion of these and other results of this chapter will follow in Chapter 5.

4.10 Summary

In this chapter the analyses were carried out in an attempt to find answers and to prove or disprove the propositions stated in Chapter 2. It is clear that several of the research questions could be answered rather unequivocally. The statistical analysis regarding some of the other questions rendered less clear results. One of the propositions i.e. that POB variables would be significantly related to team effectiveness ratings could not be accepted. The implications and contributions of these findings will be discussed in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS, CONTRIBUTIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 will be arranged according to the following structure:

Section 1

- **Discussion** and **conclusions** that can be drawn from the **main findings** of the study in terms of the research questions and how these relate to previous research (discussed in Chapter 2).

Section 2

- **The contributions** the current study makes toward the body of knowledge.

Section 3

- **Limitations** and **shortcomings** of the present study, in terms of:
  - generally recognised limitations of survey research, and
  - specific potential problems of the present study.

Section 4

- **Recommendations:**
  - theoretical (new theories/thinking/body of knowledge), and
  - methodological.

5.2 Discussion and conclusions of the main findings

While the exploratory nature of the study warrants conclusions of a tentative nature, the findings suggest several organisational behaviour considerations. For the congruence propositions posed at the end of Chapter 2, the findings may be summarised as follows:

Results: Research question one

Intercultural measurement of constructs is important due to globalisation of organisations, as stated in Chapters 1, 2 and 3. The portability of constructs and measuring instruments between cultures is a practical consideration in the globalising world. It therefore was deemed necessary to investigate the measurement qualities *and* content of all the instruments used in this study. As shown in Chapters 3 and 4, this was done mainly by means of CFA and EFA. In all cases the original structures of the instruments were investigated by firstly testing the structures by means of CFA. If the fit of the original structure to the data was not satisfactory EFA was conducted to determine the underlying dimensions (structure) of the measurement. This was followed by a CFA on the finally accepted structure. Tests for the internal consistency of the instruments when applied to two "independent" groups were carried out, where appropriate. This formed the attempts to answer the first research question and to ascertain whether the first proposition can be accepted. The results of the EFA also gave indications of the degree to which the constructs as reflected in the measuring instruments were the same as identified by authors of the questionnaires.

The results with regard to the revalidation of the measuring instruments and the constructs are summarised in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Summary of results regarding content and structure of constructs

Variable	**No of original factors**	**Cronbach α (all items)**	**No of new factors**	**Items lost**	**Cronbach α (new)**	**Variance %**	**CFA indices (original)**	**CFA indices (new)**	**CFA of sub-samples**	**CFA of invariance of sub-samples**
Servant Leadership	5	.981	1	0	.981	71.70	Unsatis-factory	Satis-factory	Satis-factory	Variant
Trust	3	.976	2	2	.975[a] .963[b] .974[c]	54.70 13.70	Unsatis-factory	Satis-factory	Satis-factory	Invariant
Team Commitment	3	.920	2	11	.898[d] .855[e] .879[f]	30.66 16.95	Unsatis-factory	Satis-factory	Satis-factory	Invariant
Team Effectiveness	1	.823	1	0	.823	40.79	Doubtful	Doubtful	N/A	N/A

a. Trust in organisation/manager
b. Trust in colleagues/co-workers
c. Total trust scale
d. Emotional team commitment
e. Rational team commitment
f. Total team commitment scale

The results of the analyses on the content and structure of the instruments used to measure servant leadership, workplace trust, team commitment and team effectiveness, as summarised in Table 5.1, seem to convey some useful information.

It seems as if the contents of the Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) Servant Leadership Questionnaire were retained when the instrument was applied to the present sample. As far as the content of Spear's (1995, 1998) views regarding the content of the construct is embedded, it seems as if the instrument can be used on the South African sample. However, the five-factor structure of servant leadership, derived from Spears's (1995) identified characteristics of servant leadership, could not be replicated in the present study. All of the 23 items were retained when EFA was carried out on the responses of the South African sample. The structure of what is measured by the SLQ does not seem to be the same in the sample of the present study as in the development sample used by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006), who identified five factors, while the instrument was found to be uni-dimensional when used on the present sample. According to Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) the five dimensions that they identified correlated quite substantially with each other. The respondents in the development sample rated the behaviour of individuals who were in roles that hypothetically demanded a service to the community approach.

This possibly differed from the role of sales managers in the present sample whose behaviour was rated by their subordinates. The sales managers were in the present sample in direct control of the functioning of the raters. Thus, the uni-dimensionality of the SLQ, when applied to the present sample, could probably be due to the possibly of response-set in the reaction to the items – aggravated by social desirability responses. The internal revalidation of the SLQ indicated that the one-factor structure fitted the data quite well in both sub-samples. The test for variance/invariance of the measurement over the two sub-samples indicated that variance did exist. The stability of measurement by the SLQ, when used on different samples, is therefore in some doubt. Implying that, even though no items had to be eliminated to get to the finally accepted one-factor structure in the present study, the 23 items possibly do not cover the construct adequately. The instrument's portability is further in doubt as it appeared to not be a stable measure over the two random sub-samples derived from the respondents in the present study. When the results obtained from the analysis of data gathered from the members of the total present sample are considered, it seems clear that the internal consistency of the measure is very high. (Cronbach alpha = .981).

The one-factor structure also predicted an acceptable proportion (71,7%) of the total variance. The one-factor structure represented a satisfactory fit with the data. The five-factor structure seemed to be a less good representation of the data. Thus, it seems as if the quest for understanding the servant leadership concept continues. This is important, as an inadequately defined, not generally accepted construct presents many problems, and has done so for decades – especially in the social sciences.

Therefore it seems as if the SLQ, which was developed in the USA on a sample that differed substantially in nature from respondents in the present study, can as a measure, not be seen as fully portable to the South African cultural setting.

As far as the WTS is concerned the CFA done on the three-factor structure of the instrument identified by Ferres (2001) indicated an unsatisfactory fit between the measurement model and the data. EFA identified a two-factor structure in which 34 of the original 36 items were included. The two-factor structure seemed to measure two quite highly related factors i.e. trust in the organisation and the respondents' manager, and trust in colleagues/co-workers. This configuration of the responses yielded CFA indices that indicated a good fit with data. The internal consistency of the measurement, reflected in CFA indices of the two equivalent sub-samples seemed to be satisfactory. A CFA carried out on the responses of the two sub-samples to determine the variance/invariance of the measurement by means of the two-factor WTS indicated that the measure appeared to be invariant i.e. stable across the two sub-samples. The two-factor configuration predicted, on the responses of the whole sample 68,4% (respectively 54,7 and 13,7%) of the variance

– a satisfactory proportion. The two sub-scales also had acceptable Cronbach coefficients (.975 and .963) with the coefficient for the scale being .974. It seems as if the contents of the construct as embodied in the WTS, can be regarded as quite stable when applied to the present sample. The configuration was, however, different from that identified by Ferres (2001).

It is speculated that the respondents in the present study did not make a distinction between the organisation and their manager(s) – trust in organisation/manager was therefore probably interpreted (or seen) as the same entity. Working on the sales floor of the dealerships the respondents had little direct contact with individuals at more senior levels of the organisation i.e. the dealer principles, marketing managers and directors at the (distant) head office. The sales persons' perception of the organisation was therefore possibly principally formed by how they experienced/perceived the behaviour of the immediate manager(s) who represented the "organisation" for the sales persons. The respondents' views of the trustworthiness of their co-workers are seen as a separate dimension of the trust measurement. The results regarding the configuration of the WTS may therefore indicate that the organisational circumstances of the respondents may play a substantial role in the data obtained from the WTS and, possibly, similar measuring instruments.

An explanation for this finding could also pertain to the aspect that salespersons work under a sales manager, but do not necessarily have significant interaction with the organisation at large. Therefore, their feelings toward their sales manager are likely to influence their feelings toward the company. The trust (and commitment) constructs therefore largely indicate the levels of trust, commitment, or attachment, salespersons have toward their (dealership) sales manager – and not so much toward the "global organisation". This no-discernment-finding between manager and/or the organisation is similar to the results of the study by Straiter (2005) in which she found support for the hypothesised relationship between supervisors' trust of their organisation and their affective organisational commitment. This indicates that the relationship between trust of the organisation and affective organisational commitment is stronger than that of trust of the subordinates and affective organisational commitment.

This finding is also equivalent to Büssing's (2002) study's result, where a positive and significant correlation between affective commitment and personal trust in (specifically) the supervisor/organisation was established.

This finding coincides with Bews and Uys's (2002) study of the impact of organisational restructuring on perceptions of trustworthiness. These authors found a statistically significant relationship between respondents' trust in their immediate supervisor (their interpersonal trust) and their trust in top-management (their generalised trust). These results revealed the tendency for the level of employees' trust in their direct supervisor to correspond with (specifically) their trust in top-management/the organisation.

A similar finding was obtained in Den Hartog *et al.*'s (2002) study, where the transformational leadership scales were positively related to trust in management. Trust in the leader was also related to trust in management. To this end, Shamir, House and Arthur (1993) refer to the relationship between transformational leadership and trust in management as a "double-edged sword", meaning when a leader's vision is streamlined with organisational goals, and s/he is seen as representative of management, transformational leadership is likely to increase trust in management.

Hay (2002) found that trust in management is lower than both team trust (inter-team trust), and trust between teams – and also that trust in management decreases significantly over time.

The results regarding the measurement characteristics of the Team Commitment Scale presented, in some respects, a different picture from what was found in the case of the other instruments of which the characteristics were investigated. The initial CFA indicated that the three-factor structure, consisting of affective, continuance, and moral commitment to the respondents' teams did not represent a good fit with the data. The EFA carried out yielded a two-factor (rational and emotional) team commitment structure that fitted the data well and was invariant over sub-samples. The scale and sub-scale scores had a Cronbach alpha coefficient of

.879 (scale), .898 (emotional) and .855 (rational) commitment. Of the original 41 items 17 had to be rejected as not part of the construct. Of the remaining variance less than 50% (47,61%) was predicted by the two-factor structure. The contents of the construct therefore did not appear to be stable over the development and the revalidation samples. Some doubt about the portability and stability of the instrument seems to exist. Not only the configuration but also the content of the construct seems to be different over the development and revalidation samples. The two factors identified during the revalidation process seems to be a recombination of the items originally found to make up the three dimensions of the construct. The factor emotional commitment seems to be a combination of items in the moral commitment and the affective commitment dimensions of team and earlier, organisation commitment. For the respondents in the present study, affective and moral commitment apparently seemed to blend in to one dimension. The other dimension found in the present study seemed to be somewhat similar to the continuance commitment factor – the employee stays with his/her present organisation due to lack of other employment opportunities, the bosses associated with changing occupation or employer, built-up pension and other benefits and/or the problems associated with relocation, additional travel and so on.

The TEQ results presented a picture that was more difficult to understand and to interpret. In its original form the instrument consisted of 11 items, according to the authors measuring the effectiveness of a work unit uni-dimensionally. In the present study 11 sales managers completed the instrument as a measure of the effectiveness of the group of his/her subordinates selling, in different combinations, new and used passenger and commercial vehicles. The CFA carried out on the reponses to the uni-dimensional scale yielded a not entirely satisfactory fit with the data. Subsequent EFA yielded a uni-dimensional structure with all the items loading satisfactorily on the one-factor. The measure therefore seemed to cover a construct that remained essentially the same when applied o the South African sample. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the scale was .823. Only 40,79% of the variance was predicted. Some doubt about how broadly the unit effectiveness construct is measured by the instruments when applied to sample other than the original validation sample therefore exists.

The assessments done by marketing directors of the organisation in which the study was carried out, was not subjected to measurement assessments as no claims as to the validity and reliability of the evaluation of the sales function in dealerships under their control were made.

In terms of research question one and the associated propositions it can be concluded that factor structures that could be interpreted were found, and the propositions related to this could be accepted. However, to view the contents of the constructs similarly to the authors of the instrument, should be approached with caution. This seems to be especially true of the Team Commitment Scale and the Team Effectiveness Questionnaire. Inspection of the items in the Team Effectiveness Questionnaire creates some doubt about whether the content of such an apparently complex variable (as discussed in Chapter 2) can be adequately measured by the items in the currently available instruments.

Results: Research question 2

Attempts to answer research question two and the associated propositions, pertained to the possible relations that the POB variables would have with one another. It should firstly be observed that the distributions of scores on all the variables tended to be negatively skewed with in some cases relatively high kurtosis and/or restriction of range of the scores. These phenomena should be kept in mind when the results are interpreted as non-normality of distributions may be a significant factor influencing the validity of finding regarding the relationship among variables.

The results regarding the relationships among the POB variables were summarised in Table 4.34 in Chapter 4. From this table it is clear that servant leadership had a marked degree of common variance with trust in the organisation/manager and with the total trust score. It had a substantial relationship with trust in colleagues, emotional team commitment, and with the total team commitment score. The relationship between servant leadership and trust in rational team commitment (“I am committed to stay here because I have to”) is considerably weaker at 8.01% than between servant leadership and trust in the organisation/manager, with a common variance of 73.79%.

The findings with regard to the relationship between servant leadership and other POB variables is in line with the theory and hypotheses regarding servant leadership, and its influence in organisations and their members' relationships (cf Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Dennis, 2004; Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005; Drury, 2004; Ehrhart, 2004; Farling *et al.,* 1999; Hebert, 2004; Irving, 2004; Laub, 2003; Ledbetter, 2003; Page & Wong, 2003; Patterson, 2003; Reinke, 2004; Rude, 2003; Sendjaya, 2003; Thompson, 2002; Winston, 2003; Winston & Hartsfield, 2004). These results seem to provide some confirmation of the relationships among organisational leadership postulated by Patterson (2003) and Winston (2003). Emotional commitment is to a larger degree explained by the servant leader than rational commitment, for the simple reason that emotion is not rational in nature and also that a great component of a servant leader constitutes an affective/emotive inclination (as elicited in Chapter 2). Thus, the weaker relationship between servant leadership and rational team commitment seems to make intuitive sense. Servant leadership is unlikely to influence rational team commitment by employees. Rational team commitment implies an attitude of "I remain here because to leave would be too expensive, uncomfortable, uneconomical". Servant leadership as defined and described in Chapters 1 and 2, is unlikely to have a strong relationship with, or influence on, such a reaction.

Contrary to the theoretical literature, indicating a relationship between servant leadership and organisational commitment, Drury (2004) found an inverse relationship that was statistically significant (as discussed in Chapter 2). This finding of Drury contradicts the finding of the present study where a positive significant relationship was found between servant leadership and commitment.

The two TC constructs, namely emotional and rational commitment, appear to be in line with the two similar labelled commitment constructs, as identified by the Corporate Leadership Council (CLC) and reported on by Buchanan (2004). This was elaborated on in Chapter 2. Thus, the clearly crystallised two-construct TC finding (emotional and rational) of the current study seems also to be meaningful because of the abundance, and in some cases redundant, commitment-related concepts and measures that appear in the literature (Morrow, 1983).

A quite similar pattern of relationships emerges when the relationships between trust in the organisation and managers, and other variables are inspected. Trust in the organisation and the manager correlated moderately, indicating a substantial relationship, with respondents' trust in their colleagues. Trust in the organisation/manager correlated substantially with emotional team commitment and with the scale score of team commitment, but at a lower level (less than 10% common variance) with rational team commitment. Trust in colleagues seems to be quite strongly related to emotional team commitment and to total team commitment. The importance of trust in the relationships between the organisation/manager, employees and colleagues are vividly illustrated by these findings. The finding that trust (especially trust in the manager/organisation) too is strongly related to servant leadership, also contributes to the understanding of the role of servant leadership in creating a climate conducive to commitment by organisation members to their organisation, co-workers and work teams. Thus, trust seems to be an important dimension of life in organizations.

An attempt to predict team commitment and its components by means of multiple regression of servant leadership and trust scores, was hampered by the degree of co-linearity between the predictor variables – when the two sub-scales of the trust variable were used as independent variables, and emotional team commitment as dependent variable. A substantial prediction (48% common variance) with trust in colleagues emerged as the best predictor that was obtained. The same pattern emerged when the total trust score was predicted. In this case 44,3% of the variance in the total trust score could be predicted. As could be expected from the bivariate relationships among the variables the level of prediction of rational team commitment was considerably lower at 11% common variance, with trust in colleagues still making a numerically longer contribution to the prediction. When servant leadership scores were added to the two trust sub-scales as independent variables, no improvement in the predictions was obtained. The contribution of the servant leadership variable was non-significant in all the predictions and the common variance found lower rather than higher. The results regarding the relationship among the POB variables (both bivariate and multivariate) provided quite clearly an affirmative answer to research question 2. The different variables are related although the relationships between the variables are not equally strong. The pattern of relationships turned out (as could be expected) if the content of the variables, as redefined in the present study, is taken into account. The relationships are in the expected direction i.e. positive. Propositions two, three and four are therefore confirmed. This is in agreement with the theory regarding servant leadership set out in Chapters 1 and 2. The findings seem to provide support to the models of servant leadership behaviour built by Patterson (2003) and Winston (2003).

Results: Research question 3

The third research question was concerned with the possible relationships between the POB variables and evaluations of the effectiveness of the sales teams in the different dealerships. The proposition five stated that a statistically significant relationship would exist between these variables. This proposition was rejected as none of the POB scale or sub-scale scores correlated at a significant level with TEQ scores or the evaluations done by the marketing directors. The reasons for these (unexpected) results can possibly partly be sought among the general problems associated with the measurement of unit effectiveness as outlined in Chapters 2 and 3, as well as in terms of the procedures followed in the present study. In the present study the sales managers whose subordinates had to react to questionnaires measuring the POB variables completed the TEQ. It is possible that bias, in the form of a predisposition to give high (“good”) assessments of the performance of their subordinates, could have influenced the assessments by sales managers. The managers would have felt that “good” (high) assessments should be given as indications of poor performance by the sales units under their leadership could reflect negatively on their (sales managers’) managerial performance. The assessments by the sales managers were strongly negatively skewed (skewness index = - .881) with the scores distributed over a narrow band (kurtosis = 1.039).

The restricted range of the sales managers’ assessments could have lowered the value of the correlation coefficients obtained.

The assessments of the marketing directors and marketing managers might have suffered from the same shortcomings but probably to a lesser degree. The skewness index (-.804) was also quite high although the form of the distribution of the scores did not represent the same degree of kurtosis = .534.

The very weak/no correlations seek explanations in the form of the distributions. Thus, possible explanations for this (unexpected) finding to research question three are offered next.

A possible explanation for the absent correlations between sales managers' and executives' ratings of leadership and performance was that team members' ratings were substantially influenced by some type of biased, inference process (Lord & Maher, 1990); that is, if a team member had an overall favourable impression of their group, they would be more likely to rate both their team and their leader more positively. This explanation would be consistent with various information processing approaches to performance appraisal and leadership ratings (Lord *et al*., 1982). It was to avoid just this type of possible contamination when obtaining ratings from the same source, as well as any other ensuing artifacts, that the decision was made to obtain ratings from the managers.

An equally likely explanation for the effectiveness results of this study could also possibly be related to Schneider's (1984) identification of the two fundamental problems connected with the definition and measurement of effectiveness (as discussed in Chapter 2): (1) finding good indicators of effectiveness, and (2) measuring them reliably.

It is also possible that, in this case, the managers had information on relative unit performance that was not available to the executives. In addition, both from the perspective of multiple levels of analysis theory (e.g. Avolio, O'Connell, Maritz & Kennedy, 1999; Bass & Yammarino, 1991) and stakeholder theory (Donaldson & Preston, 1995) perspectives, one might expect to see inconsistencies in ratings of performance from different levels or constituencies within an organisation. Thus, the lack of agreement between sources is a finding that should be of interest not only to those interested in leadership perceptions in work teams/units, but also to those interested in multi-source performance appraisals.

A separate explanation could be that the managers themselves were not in a good position to rate the performance of the team. They may have been unable to accurately rate the performance of the team because of the continuous nature of the sales process in the dealerships. Although work teams were broken into the sales function areas of the organisation, the organisation itself only maintained performance information for groupings of teams; it was for this reason that the present researcher was unable to get objective information on group performance. The organisation only collected hard data on the quality and production of the primary processes and not the individual teams involved in the process. Thus, it might have been quite difficult for managers to actually differentiate, in a reliable manner, the performance of a single team, although it would seem that it would be even more difficult for team members to have access to this type of information and to make accurate ratings of the differential performance of work team units.

However, manager ratings may be useful because they help to avoid issues of same-source bias, but they are also less favourable because they have lower levels of reliability and validity than the aggregation of the employee ratings (James, 1982; Scullen, 1997). Although the differing results for manager ratings may be partially due to statistical artifacts, there are also more substantive explanations. Managers may only observe unit effectiveness that is performed in their presence or that is directed towards them, and may not be able to distinguish genuine effective behaviour from ingratiatory behaviour (Eastman, 1994). Leadership and unit effectiveness are unlikely to be related to ingratiatory behaviour, which could result in weaker relationships between these variables and manager ratings of unit effectiveness.

A question which is raised by the TEQ showing no evidence of validity, is whether it is in fact team effectiveness that is being measured by it? This question seems to be valid, since the TEQ was never developed with the intention to measure *sales unit effectiveness*. Thus, a generic measure like the TEQ can entirely miss-measure the variance that is important, specifically in sales. To this end, it is important to mention that the results are a reflection of unit effectiveness, and not remotely a reflection of the organisation as a whole’s (overall) performance.

Results: Research question 4

The fourth research question was whether POB variables were related to biographical and organisational variables. This was depending on the nature of the measuring scales used to investigate by means of t-tests and Mann Whitney tests, ANOVA and product-moment correlation.

The results seem to indicate that only a few biographic/demographic variables had a significant relationship with POB variables. It seemed as if the language and the religious groups differed on respectively rational commitment and on trust scores. Afrikaans speakers tended to measure higher on rational commitment while Catholics and Protestants had higher scores than individuals with other religious affiliations on trust scores. The higher scores of Afrikaans speakers can possibly be explained by cultural factors and assumptions about work and the work career. Such individuals may feel less sure of moving to other jobs or organisations because of the view that a rolling stone does not gather any moss. This may be less true of English speakers adhering to other cultural norms. The differences found in terms of trust levels are more difficult to explain. The differences found by using the statistical procedures may be influenced by the large sizes of the groups whose scores were compared. It was therefore decided to use a multivariate procedure i.e. discriminant analysis to determine whether models could be built to determine whether the POB scores in combination could classify the respondents into biographical/demographical and organisation groups. The results of this procedure indicated that the POB variables did not have significant relationships with the biographic and organisational variables. It can be concluded that the respondents from the different groups included in the study had quite similar scores on the POB variables, and were quite homogenous in terms of their responses to the measurement of the POB variables.

This finding was confirmed by the results of the discriminant analysis, which indicated that no significant or useful relationship between biographic/demographic/ organisational on the one hand and POB variables on the other hand, could be found.

Results: Research question 5

The final research question was whether a structured equations model of the studied variables representing a good fit with the data could be built. Due to the absence of correlations between the POB variables and the unit effectiveness scores it was not realistic to built the theory-based model depicted in Figure 1.1/Figure 2.18.

Two truncated models were therefore built. These models are shown in Figures 4.33 and 4.35. The structural models were firstly tested to determine whether they could from a measurement perspective be seen as acceptable. The indices obtained indicated that this was indeed so. Both models were then assessed as structural models. The obtained indices indicated in both cases that the models fitted the data of a satisfactory level. The less elaborate model yielded better fit indices as well as stronger path coefficients. It seems as if the research question could be answered in the affirmative, and the proposition that satisfactory models could be built, accepted. It should, however, be kept in mind that the two models that could be built were considerably less complex than the model that was originally derived from the theory with regard to the relationships among the variables included in the study.

5.2.1 Central conclusions drawn from the findings

The central conclusion with regard to the contents of the three Positive Organisational Behaviour constructs (servant leadership, trust, and team commitment), is that the constructs as contained in the three measuring instruments used in the present study, manifest themselves in a different form in a South African sample. It seems as if in the case of TC, the contents as well as the form of the construct are different to the responses of the present South African sample.

Evidence has been provided that servant leadership, trust, and team commitment are empirically distinguishable, as well as conceptually distinct.

Thus, the findings in this study demonstrated that servant leadership can be measured in a workplace setting, is perceived differently by employees in the organisation, and correlates differently, but positive with two other organisational constructs, *viz* trust and team commitment. However, servant leadership showed an absent correlation with unit effectiveness.

5.3 Contributions of the study

Some new insights seem to have developed from the study – thereby adding to studies in the POB field without having replicated previous studies. The extensive analyses that were carried out on the responses and the results obtained in this regard, clearly indicated the need to revalidate, from a content and construct (configurational) point of view, the measuring instruments to be used in a study. If this is not done, error variance may intrude into the results and the findings may be interpreted incorrectly without the researcher realising it. In the present study more clarity about the content of the measures and their configurations could be obtained. The degree of portability of the instruments (usefulness under different circumstances, on different samples) could be ascertained.

The present study brought more clarity on the construct labelled servant leadership. It became clear that further work on the measurement of the construct, its relationship with other, especially POB constructs, had to be investigated further. The high but differentiated correlations between servant leadership, trust, and team commitment contribute to the still limited understanding of servant leadership and its role in organisational life.

The finding that the trust variables predicted team commitment, and its sub-scales to a substantial degree, while servant leadership did not enter at a significant degree, must be treated with caution as the very high co-linearity among the predictor variables casts some doubt on the significance of this finding. Nonetheless, trust seems to be an important dimension of life in organisations. Also, servant leadership seems to be strongly related to trust, especially trust in the manager and trust in the organisation. Trust is also related to team commitment – specifically the role of trust in co-workers/colleagues – and is an important predictor of team commitment.

The current study also extended that of Cook and Wall's (1980) investigations into the correlates of peer trust. Similar to Ferres *et al.*'s (2004) and Cook and Wall's findings, the results revealed a link between trust at the co-worker level (TRCOL) and commitment, specifically emotional commitment (TCEM). While the current results are not comparable to the majority of the extant trust literature, it is suggested that it is acceptable to posit that co-worker trust could also facilitate servant leader behaviour, emotional/rational commitment, and trust in manager/organisation. Ferres *et al.*’s (2004) findings indicate that employees are more likely to be emotionally attached to the organisation when greater trust in co-workers is evident.

Regarding the two-factor structure of commitment found in the present study that was labelled emotional and rational commitment, the author thought it appropriate to make the following suggestion. It appears as if commitment can be classified into two categories, namely content and context commitment. With content commitment is meant a desire to stay with an organisation/a team, (mainly) because the content or mere nature of an individual’s work/job makes him/her either more, or less, or equally committed to the cause – be it their job/organisation/team. Thus, content commitment would have a more subjective inclination. Whereas context commitment would refer to commitment based more on objective, tangible, or factual aspects, such as remuneration, status, career enhancement opportunities an organisation offers, or positive image of being associated with a specific organisation. Thus, context commitment could be expected to have a more objective angle than content commitment. Thus, an individual could, for example, be unsatisfied or unhappy with his/her context (e.g. the remuneration received) but still be committed due to content-based commitment (e.g. challenging or unique nature of a specific job). In such a case, it could be seen as high content commitment. The opposite could also be present, where, for instance, an individual could be paid very well, but s/he does not necessarily derive great satisfaction from his/her job. However, due to the high pay received, s/he is committed to his/her job – thus, high context commitment subsists. Though only these two examples are mentioned, the possibility of these and other content/context combinations could exist.

The present study served as a baseline/first-level study that provides a foundation for future research and provides additional data-based research on servant leadership, and its relationship to other variables.

The (truncated) structural models that could be built to represent the relationships among the POB variables contributes to the understanding of the relationships among the variables. The role of servant leadership is possibly bringing about the behaviour and attitudes included in the different variables, and is a confirmation of the thinking obtained in the theory on servant leadership and its role in organisational behaviour.

Concerning the recommended approach in examining or developing new models of leadership and organisational studies, this study succeeded in following a theory-based approach. This has the implication that one has to start with a conceptual model first, and then move towards building a model, as apposed to working at random.

The measurement and causation of unit effectiveness still seems to be a problem. The present study indicated that neither the evaluations of immediate managers nor the assessments of marketing directors were related to any of the POB variables. Thus, performance appraisals of the sales executives and the TEQ ratings of the dealerships' sales managers have no correlation. The two criteria are independent and can therefore not be used to predict the other. This can possibly be explained according to the differing perceptions that supervisors have toward their work units' effectiveness, and that managers have of the organisation's effectiveness (Weitzel *et al.,* 1971). Thus, an explanation for the differential perceptions may be that unit supervisors/managers observe or perceive different aspects of unit effectiveness than what executives do (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995). These perceptual differences between managers and supervisors were discussed in Chapter 2.

This is not only an unexpected result, but also a contradiction to the results of Irving's (2004, 2005) studies where he found a significant positive relationship between servant leadership and team effectiveness.

It should be noted that rather than being unexpected, the disagreement found between rating sources is probably the norm (Murphy & Cleveland, 1995). Studies on the relationship between various ratings sources generally show low levels of agreement (Bass & Yammarino, 1991; Cohen *et al.,* 1997; Furnham & Stringfield, 1994; Hoffman, Nathan, & Holden, 1991; Murphy & Cleveland, 1995; Williams & Levy, 1992).

In terms of the literature on unit effectiveness, and the results of the present study it is clear that considerable work should still be done on the understanding of what different groups (management scholars, supervisors, managers, and members of work groups) will perceive to be the characteristics of effective work units.

That the organisational position of a respondent can play a role in the reactions to items in a measuring instrument was illustrated in the present study. For the sales persons included in the study the distinctions between the organisation, its demands and characteristics and these of their immediate managers, were apparently blurred. Interpretation of results from survey studies should clearly take such phenomena into account.

Something that seems quite clear from the findings is that biographical variables did not have significant influence on the levels of the scores on the POB variables. Organisational factors probably play the more important part in determining the levels of such variables.

5.4 Limitations and shortcomings of the present study

5.4.1 Generally recognised limitations of survey research

This study, like all field research, has limitations.

5.4.1.1 Method variance

As with all studies of this type, a recurrent concern pertains to one method of data gathering – possibly leading to common method variance, or mono-method bias. Resulting from mono-method bias, common (method) variance occurs. That is, it is plausible to argue that the relationships among the study variables could have been inflated because they were all taken from a single source – the individual employee. Although common method variance is an issue with this type of research methodology, this design can still be quite useful in providing a picture of how people feel about and view their jobs (Spector & Brannick, 1995). Furthermore, this design can provide information about the intercorrelations among various feelings and perceptions (Spector, 1994). Given the nature of the constructs included in the present study, as well as the theoretical reasons for their relationships, it was necessary to assess these variables from the perspective of the same individual. As individual ratings are the theoretically appropriate means of assessing leadership, trust, and commitment, ratings from other sources could not be used to control for method variance. Spector (1994, p. 387) notes that self-reports can be quite useful for deriving insights about how people feel about and react to their jobs and relationships among various feelings and perceptions and that: “the reasonableness of using selfreports depends upon the purpose of the study”. Spector concludes that: "properly developed instruments are resistant to the method variance problem" (Spector, 1984, p. 438). Making use of multiple sources of data can reduce the effects of common method variance.

5.4.1.2 Cross-sectional element of the data

Another limitation could be the presence of a cross-sectional element of the data obtained. Since the data were gathered at one (single) point in time, it is difficult to determine whether a team’s leader’s behaviours cause *unit* effectiveness to increase and/or decrease, or whether *unit* effectiveness causes managers to report higher levels of positive organisational behaviours. Researchers have indicated that managers’ characteristics and behaviours may directly contribute to the effectiveness of their work units (e.g. Landy, 1985; Landy, Barnes & Murphy, 1978; Landy & Farr, 1980; Ganster, Schaubroeck, Sime & Mayes, 1990), and leader social effectiveness (i.e. political skill) to be the strongest predictor of team performance (Ahearn, Poertner, Ferris, Hochwarter, Ammeter & Douglas, 2001).

Staw (1975) makes a similar point in his study of group cohesiveness and group performance. He found that groups who were told that their performance was high rated themselves as more cohesive than groups who were told that their performance was low, even though the performance feedback the groups received was completely unrelated to actual group performance. In a similar manner, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) found that managers of *units* that performed well, may be inclined to report that their employees engage in more OCBs because they implicitly assume that OCBs relate to performance. Although such an interpretation of the results clearly would contradict the fundamental assumption of POB research conducted in the fields of organisational behaviour, it could simultaneously serve as an interesting avenue for further research persuasion.

5.4.1.3 Post hoc

Due to a cross-sectional element present in the data, it is capable of only revealing the net effect of the POB variables on *unit* effectiveness, at a particular point in time – since it is *post hoc* – and therefore the variables could not have been employed sufficiently to have a real impact. It is possible, for example, that though servant leadership behaviour does not show a significant effect in the short run, it may have beneficial effects in the long run. Alternatively, it is possible that even some other (POB) variables may enhance *unit* effectiveness in the short run, they have no long-term effects on performance. Because some of the data used in this research is cross-sectional in nature, lagged effects like these cannot be detected (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994).

5.1.4.4 Single moment in time data gathering

Therefore, collecting the POB variables, unit effectiveness, and performance evaluation data at a single point in time (by making use of a single-point-in-time survey measurement), rather than long-term and continued measurement (e.g. longitudinally) over a period of time, may have exacerbated same-source or common method biases (as described above). Conversely, prior research, for instance, by MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter (1991, 1993) examined the effects of specifically, OCBs on managerial evaluations, and found that such biases did not appear to be very strong. However, despite this finding Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) posit that a longitudinal design could reduce this potential influence. According to Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994), separating the measurement of the POB variables, unit effectiveness, and managerial evaluations, in time may reduce consistency biases, halo effects, and priming effects by making it more difficult for respondents to remember their POB judgements at the time they are making their overall evaluations of performance.

Adding to this concern, Rylander (2003) and Arnolds and Boshoff (2004) call for a movement away from the practice of measurement at a single point-in-time during employment, since organisational constructs (like the ones included in the present study) cannot optimally be measured by such means.

Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) state three advantages a longitudinal study would have over cross-sectional studies like the one reported in this study, on the impact of organisational behaviour variables on *unit* effectiveness. These include the following:

1. it would permit a better assessment of the causal priority of OB variables and *unit* effectiveness and performance;
2. it would allow examination of longer-term effects of OB variables on a *unit's* performance; and
3. reduce the potential effects of same-source or common method biases.

Thus, examining the long-term effects of the POB variables and unit effectiveness constitute an important priority for further research.

5.1.4.5 Skewed distributions

The responses to the questionnaire and skewness of the data, when applied to the present sample, could be due to the possibly of response-set in the reaction to the items, which may have been exacerbated by social desirability responses given by the respondents. Instead of falling prey to central tendency, it appears as if the respondents, as an alternative, gave higher scores – especially present in the sales managers sample.

5.4.2 Specific potential problems of the present study

5.4.2.1 Unfamiliarity with structural equation modelling

A main concern is that readers unfamiliar with structural equation modelling may erroneously conclude that causal relationships can be inferred from the results. Making such conclusions have been exacerbated, in part, because structural equation modelling has also been referred to as causal modelling. It should be remembered that proof of causality cannot be made from statistical results alone. Only sound theory, appropriate experimental designs, and corroborating statistical results can allow one to make causal inferences. Even so, the independent variables in the model(s) have been identified by theory and prior research as antecedents of the dependent variables. The results show only that causal relationships are possible, and readers should make such inferences with caution.

5.4.2.2 Single sample used

A relative homogenous sample of the present study was included, meaning only one single organisation was used – specifically the sales departments of dealerships, despite the wide spread of dealerships across the country. This one sample being studied (sales division) is also unique due to the fact that it forms part of a much larger corporation that is known for its retailing automobile core business. Thus, replication is needed prior to generalising these findings to other domains.

5.4.2.3 Type of biased, inference process

A likely explanation for the absent correlations between sales managers’ and executives’ ratings of leadership and performance was that these individuals’ ratings were substantially influenced by some type of biased, inference process (described by Lord & Maher, 1990); that is, if a sales manager had an overall favourable impression of their unit, they would be more likely to rate their unit more positively. This explanation would be consistent with various information processing approaches to performance appraisal and leadership ratings (Lord *et al*., 1982). Equally, the performance appraisal questionnaire that was answered by the marketing executives contained ambiguity, implying that the marketing executives were not sure what it was they had to evaluate with the questionnaire. Thus, these performance evaluations were not very reliable/valid measures of true performance within the company – since a rule of thumb was used to “develop” the eight performance areas. These eight performance areas asked in the questionnaire is not used as standard performance criteria in the company. These ratings could therefore have caused a type of possible contamination, as well as any other possible ensuing artifacts.

5.4.2.4 Source of the unit effectiveness

Clearly, the source of the unit effectiveness ratings played a role in the results of this study. One explanation for these differences, that they are due to same-source bias in the employee data, can be ruled out based on the consistency of the results with and without the common method variance factor for the models with employee ratings. To some extent, the differences in the results may be due to the samples studied because there were manager data for only 67 of the 100 dealerships where there were employee data, and the lower levels of power associated with the smaller *n*.

5.4.2.5 The measure of team effectiveness

Another limitation seemingly pertains to the measure of team effectiveness. Unfortunately, this limitation is one shared by much of research that has employed group-based measures of performance, effectiveness, and/or productivity (Parks & Sanna, 1999; Witt *et al*., 2001) – as was discussed in Chapter 2. Additionally, team effectiveness was limited to the TEQ scale, and this scale was not designed to measure the contextual dimensions of effectiveness (Irving, 2005).

5.5 Recommendations

5.5.1 Theoretical recommendations

Further refinement of the servant leadership construct is recommended, implying to move from conceptual theory-building to empirical theory testing. Thus, making an ideographic to nomothetic transition. However, it remains important to continue with building of theory, especially when a new construct is still in the process of being developed and expanded on through continued research in the domain of such a construct (like in the case of servant leadership).

An important area to explore in future research should be to investigate servant leadership at personal and organisational level, in relation to interpersonal trust (dynamics of trust among peers and the organisation as a whole), and team commitment in other divisions of the same, and/or other organisations in alternative industries to confirm that these findings are generalisable across all areas of business. This seems to be an under-examined area of OB in organisations.

Resulting from this, studies should be conducted where servant leadership is measured at organisation-level compared to studies where servant leadership is measured at both group/team level, and individual level, as well as organisational level.

Researchers should study rational commitment to determine if it relates as strongly to followers' trust of their supervisors/managers, and to their organisation as does affective commitment. It would be worthwhile to study (a) top management and their followers, and (b) the same followers and their direct reports to determine if correlations exist between the two groups.

The present study may not be generalisable but servant leadership seems a viable style with lower turnover and reciprocal effect (Winston's 2003 model), and apparent greater profitability, in both unstable and stable environments (Smith, Montagno & Kuzmenko, 2004). Concerning generalisability, it is therefore suggested that this study should be replicated/duplicated in other organisations, cultures, and countries. The main reasons for this argument can be supported by the following:

- Intercultural research has become a very important research consideration, especially in the social sciences. The intercultural cross-validation of existing instruments therefore becomes a research concern that needs to be addressed in studies of this nature. Carrying out similar studies in other cultural environments, or contexts, is not only important for the purposes of generalising the findings of the present study, but also to cross validate the findings of the present study with the findings of other studies.

- Even when research is conducted in, and/or between, different and diverse types of organisations (e.g. for-profit or not-for-profit/non-profit) within one country, the matter of multi-cultural versus relatively homogenous cultures also requires to be attended to in such studies. In similar light, studies should also be conducted to determine if there are differences in the existence between for-profit and not-for-profit organisations.

- Not only intercultural research needs to be focused on, but also moving toward research between countries. Here also, the importance of regarding multi versus homogenous cultural settings comes to the front.

- All three of the issues raised above point to the importance of the portability of measuring instruments from one cultural setting to another (as discussed in Chapter 3). Especially when an instrument was developed and validated on a very specific sample in a certain setting, it becomes rather important to consider the portability of the same instrument, when applied to a sample (and setting) very different to the one it was developed on. Therefore, not only the portability, but also the revalidation of instruments need to be considered in future studies that are similar to the nature of the present study.

In additional to model-specific hypotheses/propositions that are formulated in research studies, it is also important to further investigate *the processes* by which servant leadership, trust, and team commitment develop.

Another important area to study involves expanding the understanding of the underlying dynamical process of servant leadership. Thus, future research needs to move toward more precise articulation of the conditions, and context (a critical aspect emphasised in Chapters 1 and 2) under which specific dimensions of servant leadership would be expected to affect inter- and intrapersonal relationships between individuals, their organisation, and their work outcomes. This can probably be attained by working towards developing a parsimonious definition and measure of servant leadership – in order to discern servant leadership characteristics – specifically from other leadership styles. This would necessarily imply to focus less on servant leadership descriptors and behaviours.

As illustrated in Chapter 2, servant leadership is seen more as a paradigm than a leadership style. Thus, this implies that servant leadership cannot be interpreted as a traditional dyadic leadership relationship. Consequently, servant leadership and its relationship to other positively-oriented concepts recognised in the OB field need to be explored, to reach the objective stated in the last sentence of the previous paragraph. Similarly, future studies should address some demographic variables like religious orientation, or gender, and how it can be compared to the levels of servant leadership style being practised. This could be done by looking at the correlates – antecedents and/or outcomes – of servant leadership. Amongst others, such investigations could include:

- The relationship between emotional intelligence, trust in the immediate supervisor, servant leadership and meaning in life.
- The investigation into the effect of a servant leadership style on positive coping strategies under adverse working conditions.
- The relationship between servant leadership, resilience, and emotional intelligence.
- Relationship between servant leadership and mentoring effectiveness.
- Relationship between servant leadership, self-efficacy and mentorship.

- Relationship between servant leadership and self-efficacy of mentor and mentee in relation to job satisfaction of mentor and mentee.

- Relationship between servant leadership, personality type in terms of the big five personality traits and OCB.

- Servant leadership's role in the succession planning process and the positive effects servant leadership can have on succession planning.

- Measuring servant leadership at organisational level and organisational commitment.

- Measuring servant leadership at organisational and personal level and comparing it.

- The effect servant leadership has on profitability.

- The effect on motivation and the servant leader's age.

- The development of a servant leadership instrument for a South African workforce.

- The development of a team effectiveness instrument for a South African workforce.

A crucial concern that pertains to all of the variables included in the present study, is that of *context*. The context of the specific situation, and background against which the variables are studied, becomes very important. The importance of context was already stated in Chapter 1, and again accentuated in Chapter 2. To this end Humphreys (2005) states that the examination of context within the leader/follower relationship is undoubtedly important. Also Gibbons (1992, p. 15) adds that: "different environmental conditions impact the nature of the leadership challenge". Contextual considerations are equally salient in examining trust (e.g. Blomqvist, 1997; Sitkin, Rousseau, Burt & Camerer, 1998; Hay, 2002), commitment, (e.g. Drury, 2004), and unit effectiveness (Klenke, 1996; Osborn, Hunt & Jauch, 2002; Leavy, 2003; Irving & Klenke, 2004). These variables are seemingly best evaluated in terms of contextual parameters. For this reason, the assessment of these variables often necessitates a contextual evaluation (Doolen, Hacker & Van Aken, 2003). Thus, the recurring presence of context throughout the present study, indicates toward the importance of context-inclusion and the recognition thereof, in future studies. For example, considering frames of reference that differs, as is the case in the present study, where sales people seek sales goals (a narrow strive, thus an inner-directed self-perspective) versus community leaders (a developing and community-building perspective, thus an outer-directed and others-perspective).

5.5.2 Methodological recommendations

The development and validation of servant leadership measures to distinguish it from similar constructs empirically.

The development and validation of servant leadership measuring instruments that measure servant leadership on different levels, i.e. at the organisational, group/team/unit, and individual level.

Due to very poor correlations found between the TEQ and objective performance evaluation criteria, it could be useful to investigate using measuring instruments that are reliable, validated, and standardised in measuring performance/effectiveness.

The presence of construct redundancy need to be addressed, meaning to find means to discern between the overlap of servant leadership with other value-based leadership styles/approaches. Thus, asking the question whether it could be that the same thing that is measures due to variables being redundant – new wine perhaps in old skins?

Conducting longitudinal studies, exploring how servant leadership development can be related to other areas of human development, e.g. moral, cognitive, or talent development over time, as well as its influence on performance.

Critical incidents of servant leader and non-servant leader behaviours need to be developed in order to produce typologies of servant leadership behaviours. This is crucial in defining the nomological network of the domain of the servant leadership construct more precisely. This can be done, for example, by means of employing Delphi techniques.

A move should also be made towards the employment of multi-case methods, such as the multi-trait multi-method (MT-MM) approach in researching servant leadership, and the other variables. In addition, meta-analyses should be conducted, as an endeavour towards establishing the constructs, especially servant leadership (as a relatively new empirically-tested construct and a one-factor construct as apposed to the other more clearly crystallised constructs of trust, and team commitment). In employing such research approaches certain pitfalls like mono-method bias, response set, and social desirability can be identified and pro-actively addressed.

Additional quantitative studies are therefore needed to generalise findings. However, qualitative and mixed-method studies should also be pursued in order to add to the in-depth insights that are required. Thus, combining both statistical (quantitative) and analytical (qualitative) methods in researching servant leadership, and other variables. Concerning the application of qualitative methods, for instance, can methodologies be employed such as stage theory (which is linear in nature, and therefore becomes stronger), the role of servant leader markers (a convergence experience), and narrative stories of servant leader identity development (grand narrative). Eventually, grounded theory studies might allow the work to move faster from the conceptual and theoretical on to quantitative studies.

Since this topic of servant leadership is still at the early stage of inquiry there is a need for exploratory phenomenological case studies (purposeful sampling then becomes crucially important), in which in-depth interviews, and observations are combined by researchers to increase the level of knowledge about the what and why of the concept. In addition, single and multiple-shot case studies of leaders who seem to do exceptionally well at creating servant led organisations, and displaying servant leader behaviours and practices, would allow researchers to more fully understand the ‘how’ of this concept. Also, succession process/planning (this is critical for continued and sustained success), and appreciative inquiry (this might help in increasing the focus on performance drivers instead of performance inhibitors, implying to focus on positive constructs but also on positive outcomes) approaches toward servant leadership practices could be pursued.

Further studies should also be conducted to determine if servant leadership succession planning, training, and knowledge has an influence on responses, and the effect of the lack of formal succession planning, and or training. This could be ascertained, for example, by making use of interventions or Solomons-four, in order to establish this.

Certainly an important area for research in this domain would focus on the development of effectiveness measures that tap into both group- and individual-level contributions to effectiveness in a more applicable manner.

A critical initial direction for future research could entail more extensive investigation and establishment of the construct validity of the effectiveness construct (also indicated by Ferris *et al.,* 2002). This would involve more precise delineation of the construct domain space of effectiveness measures, broader coverage of the convergent and discriminant validity, as well as empirical examination of how different effectiveness constructs (e.g. organisational or unit effectiveness) relate to one another. In general, it is essential to establish precisely what constitutes a particular construct before one can usefully employ that construct in criterion-related validity studies to predict important work outcomes (also suggested by Schwab, 1980).

This has the implication that it is also impossible to measure effectiveness in a general/overall/’one-size-fits-all’ fashion. This necessitates the importance to develop job-specific criteria measurement like for example a BARS specifically for sales people.

It seems important to follow the path of developing a BARS in obtaining a valid criterion measure. This is very important since many work teams have highly competent people, but they are ineffective or inept because individuals are neither properly matched to the job and culture, nor do they get accurately evaluated for their performance. By developing and applying a BARS-specific performance measurement this mismatched situation could perhaps be more accurately identified and rectified in future studies. To this end Longenecker, Liverpool and Wilson (1988) argue in their study that performance appraisals are seen as more effective to the extent that managers and subordinates have a shared perception of its purpose and function, and the degree to which it meets the needs of both groups and their satisfaction in organisational practice of performance. Longenecker *et al.*'s (1988) results were mixed, with regard to the appraisal system effectively accomplishing its diverse goals. However, in general, there was support for the notion that both managers and subordinates find the appraisal process to be a worthwhile organisational practice, involving everyone to develop “their own unique” performance appraisals to be evaluated on. Approximately 70% of the respondents indicated that they would participate in the appraisal programme whether they were required to do so or not.

5.6 Concluding remarks

Whether pursued quantitatively, qualitatively, or through a mixed-method approach, the relationship between servant leadership and teams is a promising area for those concerned about the effectiveness of organisational teams. Ongoing work in this area will help to gain a better picture of the terrain of factors contributing to the practice of team effectiveness (Irving, 2005). Resulting from this it appears as if the variables of servant leadership, trust, and commitment are not only context dependent, but also context sensitive, implying that the variables are very specific to the context of the situation.

This is thus an indication that the area of organisational behaviour dynamics (and especially positive organisational behaviour) and interactions in organisations is often muddled and complicated. Consequently, it does not always conform to the rational, orthogonal, linear organisational world one would like to believe exists and reflects reality. Indeed, it can be argued that the best organisational behaviour-related scales are probably the ones that will be the most psychometrically challenging, precisely because they do indeed tap into real-world issues in meaningful ways. This should not discourage scholars from initiating and continuing with work in this area. Quite to the contrary. The present researcher believes this area has much potential to enlighten the current understanding of behaviour and positivism in organisations. Thus, sound conceptual and careful empirical research is needed to move it forward. However, one should proceed with realistic expectations of the phenomena under investigation. The present researcher believes that the influence of POB variables, such as servant leadership, trust, commitment, and others plays key roles in organisational studies. However, in order to establish this, it deems imperative that clarity of these (and other) construct definitions must be developed and made known, to avoid falling in an esoteric-research-trap that might (mis)lead to the erroneous pursuit of pseudo-constructs. With the present study, the researcher attempted to advance the level of understanding of these important phenomena, and proposed future directions for research.

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