THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SERVANT LEADERSHIP, OTHER ORIENTATION AND AUTONOMOUS CAUSALITY ORIENTATION

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Abstract

Servant leadership is a theoretical model of leadership, premised on the central foundational characteristic described by Greenleaf (1977) as the desire to serve others first. The purpose of this study was to examine whether a work value, other orientation, operationally describes this characteristic in servant leaders, and to test whether autonomous causality orientation increases the likelihood that those high in other orientation will act on this value. Those high in other orientation have been described as being concerned about issues other individuals are experiencing, and believing they should act in behalf of others. However, does being self-directed, or autonomously oriented, make it more likely that they will act? Conversely, does controlled causality orientation not effect this relationship? To test this, data were collected from employees in four organizations representing different industries. Supervisors and their employees were emailed an invitation to respond to a survey. Data were collected using a secure software system, and the responding supervisors were matched with the responding employees who reported to them. Correlational analyses were performed on the data, but no significant relationships were found between other orientation and servant leadership, nor autonomous orientation and servant leadership, therefore no other hypotheses could be tested, including whether autonomy orientation moderates the relationship between other orientation and servant leadership. These findings add to the literature that has

demonstrated the difficulty of operationalizing the desire to serve Greenleaf surmised preceded servant leadership behaviors.

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Chapter 1. OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

"*Do you wish to rise? Begin by descending. You plan a tower that will pierce the clouds? Lay first the foundations of humility."* Saint Augustine

Research Topic and Background

Who makes a great leader today? This question can spark many answers, but the essential behaviors can seem elusive or espoused yet not enacted. Now more than ever, organizations are searching for the behaviors or characteristics of leaders that are most likely to have a positive impact on the organization and on the followers. The number of people unhappy in organizations present challenges for the leaders due to the potential costs in terms of retention, recruitment, corporate earnings and corporate security. One leadership thinker, Greenleaf (1977), stated it is not the acts of an evil leader that causes problems for organizations, for there will always be another at some point. The real issue is not relying enough on the development of leaders who are willing to take on the difficult and sometimes corrupt factors that are embedded in institutions, and have the capacity to look within themselves and the organization to find the problem. "In short, the enemy is servants who have the potential to lead but do not lead" (Greenleaf, 1977, p.40).

One model of leadership that holds promise for organizations wanting to improve their leadership is servant leadership, a model that has been adopted by some of the top U.S. companies, such as Southwest Airlines and Herman Miller (modernservantleader.com). Servant leadership scholars report positive organizational impacts related to servant leadership such as improving employee perceptions of trust (Joseph &Winston, 2005), justice climate (Walumbwa et al, 2010; Kool &Van Dierendonck, 2012), empowerment (Schneider & George, 2011), engagement (van

Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, & Alkema, 2014), and increased employee job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors, lower turnover, and a positive work climate (Parris & Peachy, 2015). These and other outcomes demonstrate the value of servant leaders to influence desirable organizational outcomes.

Servant leadership was conceptualized by Greenleaf (1977) as:

> The servant-leader is servant first. It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. The best test 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? (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 7).

The central premise of servant leadership is that a servant leader desires to serve others and to address their highest priority needs before his or her own (Greenleaf, 1977). Servant leader's focus on others is also what differentiates them from those who practice other approaches to leadership aimed at advancing personal and organizational goals. This does not imply that servant leaders ignore problems or performance issues. Responsibility is key for servant leaders, for they are accountable for their influence and behavior, and expect followers to be accountable as well (Greenleaf, 1977).

Early followers and proponents of servant leadership expounded on Greenleaf's beliefs and offered their interpretations and characteristics (Spears, 1994; Covey, 1989; and Batten, 1998). They did not make a push to empirically study the phenomenon because they did not think that it should or could be measured (Page & Wong, 2000). Frick (1998) states that operationalizing servant leadership in terms of characteristics

moves the emphasis from the core concept of desiring to serve first and may cause leaders to fear that they are not measuring up. He compared it to measuring love, asserting that would detract from its essence of deep spiritual and affective meaning. However, researchers were interested in learning how this leadership style might benefit organizations, and explaining what characteristics are inherent to the phenomenon of servant leadership.

Page and Wong (2000) and Laub (1999) were the first scholars to begin developing empirically-tested theoretical models several decades after Greenleaf introduced his ideas. In the last 10-15 years, servant leadership has been described, operationalized and undergone empirical analysis by many scholars. Multiple theoretical models have been developed by scholars attempting to capture Greenleaf's concept of servant leadership, (Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006; Ehrhart, 2004; Laub, 1999; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, Henderson, 2008; Page and Wong, 2000; van Dierendonck & Nuitjen, 2011 and Winston and Bocarnea, 2005).

Each of these models describes the servant leadership phenomenon differently, with some overlaps created by scholars building on preceding efforts. Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008) proposed seven dimensions of servant leadership, including conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates grow, putting others first, behaving ethically, emotional healing, and creating value for the community. Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) found five dimensions in their analysis including altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom persuasive mapping and organizational stewardship. Van Dierendonck and Nuitjen (2011) identified eight characteristics of servant leadership: empowerment, standing back, accountability, humility, authenticity, courage, forgiveness and

stewardship. Other theorists include Page and Wong (2003), Sendjaya and Sarros (2002), Dennis and Bocarnea (2005), and Laub (1999). Servant leaders have been described as having humility, authenticity, and being inspiring and influential leaders. They develop other people, build supportive relationships, empower and forgive others, and put their subordinates first (Van Dierendonck, 2011). These characteristics and behaviors have been incorporated into multiple models and definitions of servant leadership.

Research on servant leadership and its relationship with organizational outcomes has increased dramatically in the last decade and studies have reported positive results on both the individual and organizational levels. The organizational outcomes related to servant leadership include extra effort, satisfaction and organizational effectiveness (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006) organizational citizenship behavior and procedural justice climate (Ehrhart, 2004), leadership effectiveness (Hale & Fields, 2007), team effectiveness (Irving & Longbotham, 2007). Individual level outcomes related to servant leadership include: organizational commitment, turnover intention, job satisfaction (Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonko & Roberts, 2009; Mayer, Bardes & Piccolo, 2008), leader trust and organizational trust (Joseph & Winston, 2005) community citizenship behavior and job performance (Liden, Wayne, Zhao & Henderson, 2008; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008), decreased deviant behavior, increased helping behavior and creative behavior (Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008), trust (Reinke, 2003), satisfaction with supervisor and organizational support (Sun & Wang, 2009), supervisor's value of empathy, integrity, and competence (Washington, Sutton & Field, 2006). The outcomes demonstrate the effectiveness of servant leadership in improving the lives of employees and subsequently, the organization.

These outcomes are associated with different models of servant leadership, and trace their roots to the writings of Greenleaf (1977) or Spears (1995), who condensed Greenleaf's writings into ten elements for application. Multiple models mean that there are multiple constructs for servant leadership which may account for some of the lack of convergent validity, due to the use of multiple measures for operationalizing servant leadership.

When incorporating the core concept of servant leadership, putting the needs of others first, the models that include this concept do so differently. Some of the models of servant leadership include a domain that refers to the desire to be a servant first, including servant-hood (Page and Wong, 2000), service (Dennis and Bocarnea, 2005), and putting subordinates first (Liden, et al, 2008), while others do not name serving others as a distinct characteristic although it is considered an element within a broader domain (van Dierendonck and Nuitjen, 2011; and Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006). For instance, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) consider serving others as part of the altruism dimension, and Sendjaya (2003) use the term "being a servant." In an effort to move toward a single definition, scholars have called for coalescing around a central construct based on Greenleaf's definition (Parris & Peachey, 2013; Van Meter, Chonko, Grisaffe & Goad, 2016; & Winston & Fields, 2015) as well as calls for consolidating measures (van Dierendonck, 2011, and Focht & Ponton, 2015). Within these efforts toward consolidation, Van Meter et al., (2016) assert priority should be given to clarifying the core concept first, i.e. what it means to be in service to others.

Some scholars have suggested that conceptually, Greenleaf's description of servant leaders as focusing on others, and putting others' interests before their own may

reflect elements of an "other orientation," (Liden, Panaccio, Meuser, Hu and Wayne, 2014; van Dierendonck, 2011. Ravlin and Meglino (1987) operationalized other orientation as a psychological process responsible in part for prosocial behavior. Prosocial behaviors are actions by individuals intended to help others and to promote their well-being. These behaviors within organizations go beyond what is expected as part of the job description and foster an effective and cooperative culture (McNeely et al, 1994). Meglino and Korsgaard (2004) define other orientation as that "which refers to one's propensity to be concerned for other persons" (p. 946). They assert that other orientation compels people to act in the interest of other people, at the expense of their own self-interest, with little consideration to the consequences. Meglino and Korsgaard (2004) describe other orientation as a value disposition that is unaffected by inconsequential factors in the situation or environment.

Values are considered to be important in organizations because they influence employees to act in socially desirable ways. In their review of the literature on work values and how they are measured, Ravlin and Meglino (1987) found four values that were considered most important (because of the number of times they appeared in the research): achievement (including extending extra effort), helping (including the concern for others), fairness and honesty. They developed a measure to operationalize these values, called the Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES) (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987), which uses an ipsative (i.e. "forced choice") method to measure values. They assert this type of measure controls for much of the social desirability bias found when using Likert scales to assess values (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). One purpose of this study was to explore whether Ravlin & Meglino's measure of other orientation is correlated with servant

leadership. To the extent other orientation is a dispositional construct it may be asserted to be an antecedent of Servant Leadership, if a correlation between the two constructs can be demonstrated. While demonstrating the dispositional nature of other orientation is beyond the scope of this study, clarifying the relationship between other orientation and servant leadership could potentially contribute to advancing the goal of operationalizing Greenleaf ‘s (1977) concept of serving others first.

Beyond demonstrating whether other orientation is correlated with servant leadership, this study also explored whether those high in other orientation are more likely to be perceived as a servant leader if they are self-directed by having an autonomous causality orientation, which is an aspect of intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Desi, 2017). If a person is other oriented (disposition) yet not motivated to take the initiative to help others, how likely are they to act on their value? Because other orientation is presumed to be a disposition that guides behavior, the addition of an autonomous causality orientation was expected to increase the likelihood that one would act on their concern for others, and as a result, might be more likely to be perceived as a servant leader. Meglino and Korsgaard (2004) assert that for those who are other oriented, taking the initiative to serve others may be intrinsically motivating. They report finding that those who scored highest in other orientation acted without considering whether they would be rewarded for their behavior, suggesting that their acts of service were intrinsically rewarding.

Self Determination Theory (SDT, Deci & Ryan, 2000) states that there are multiple sources of motivation, with some of those coming from internal sources such as values and interests, and others may originate externally, such as the desire to please

others or accumulating wealth. In SDT, motivation is characterized as the autonomy-control continuum, which represents the extent to which one's motivational orientation is self-directed or controlled by outside influences (Ryan & Deci, 2017). For example, a person with a controlled orientation is more influenced by pressure to behave in ways that do not align with their personal beliefs or values. Intrinsic motivation is a dimension of an autonomous causality orientation, and is the source of behaviors made manifest by authentic interest and excitement, and leads to better performance, persistence, and well-being. Leaders who are intrinsically motivated do not seek external rewards, act autonomously without the need for direction from others, and have self-control. The reward for acting in congruence with one's sense of self is the spontaneous feeling of being competent and pleased. Alternately, behavior that is motivated by outside influences varies along the continuum from strongly controlled to autonomous, depending on the degree to which the external reward compels one to act.

Individuals who are characterized by being more strongly influenced by extrinsic motivation are more controlled by external factors that do not align with their interests or beliefs (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Extrinsic motivation varies in the degree to which it is internalized, or how well it aligns with one's self, which corresponds to whether one's behavior is autonomous or controlled. For instance, an external reward, such as recognition or a raise, may be desirable to individuals regardless of their orientation, but has little, if any, control over the behavior of an individual who is self-directed and autonomous. Extrinsically motivated behavior (through rewards or punishment) that is congruent with one's values is more autonomously oriented.

SDT has been cited by van Dierendonck (2011) as a potential antecedent of

servant leadership because servant leaders' behaviors are considered to be self-generated and based on their personal beliefs. This study was designed to explore whether other orientation interacts with intrinsic motivation to propel servant leaders to act in others' best interest while also sustaining their efforts to be in-service to others. This interaction was expected to explain why some other oriented people act to serve others best interests while others do not act without an incentive.

The foundational dimension of servant leadership is being in service to others, or to focus on the highest priority needs of the followers, serving others' needs before one's own (Greenleaf, 1977). In an effort to define the meaning of being in service to others, this study was designed to examine the relationship between other orientation, causal motivational orientation and servant leadership to contribute to ongoing efforts to operationalize the central idea of Greenleaf's concept of servant leadership that differentiates it from similar leadership models.

Statement of the Problem

Serving others first, and focusing on others' needs before one's own, is the central tenant of Greenleaf's concept of servant leadership and is the key difference that separates this leadership theory from other similar leadership styles, such as transformational leadership. This is the central tenet of Greenleaf's (1977) treatise on the servant leader. Following publication of this treatise, other scholars sought to describe and explain the phenomenon of servant leadership. Many attempts have been made to operationalize the characteristics that comprise this approach to leadership, to account for its effects and to explain the proposed operational elements of a theory of servant leadership. At present, there is no agreement on one theoretical framework that reflects

Greenleaf's proposition, and efforts to synthesize the models into one theory of servant leadership has thus far failed (Focht & Ponton, 2015; van Dierendonck, 2011, and Van Meter, et al, 2016).

Among these attempts to formulate an integrated theory of servant leadership are many dimensions purported to characterize a servant leader, but none have successfully operationalized the central tenant of the desire to serve others first: "The most defining feature of servant leadership, 'serving first' has not been featured prominently in the literature as a primary distinctive trait in empirical operationalizations of servant leadership" (Van Meter et al, 2016, p. 68). Theorists have suggested that future research should focus on those characteristics of servant leadership that make it conceptually different from other leadership theories (Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck and Liden, 2018 & Hock, Bommer, Dulebohn & Wu, 2018)). This study was designed to promote concept clarity regarding the central tenant of servant leadership, the desire to serve, by exploring the relationship between other orientation and a causal orientation toward motivation that is autonomous. These constructs were explored as potential correlates of servant leadership that may offer an explanation for how the desire to serve others first manifests in servant leaders.

Part of the issue with empirically defining what it means to serve others is that there is enough ambiguity in the concept provided by Greenleaf to allow researchers to interpret his definition widely. Greenleaf (1977) referred to the phenomenon as an innate desire driving behavior subconsciously like a disposition or motivation. If being in service to others reflects both core dispositional and motivational processes, then exploring the relationship between existing measures of servant leadership and indicators

of these underlying psychological processes would bring further understanding of servant leadership behaviors. Such behavioral models would clarify the desire to serve as the antecedent to leader behaviors that reflect acts of service, which could then be tested. Greenleaf stated that the desire to serve propels servant leaders to act to address their followers' highest priority needs, which could be different for each follower. This study aimed to establish relationships among variables that could shed light on the phenomenon of "desire to serve", or to "be in service to others" (Greenleaf, 1977). If a relationship is found between these variables and servant leadership, it could provide some justification for asserting that dispositional and motivational processes may explain some aspects of a servant leader's propensity toward "being in service to others."

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore the contributions of two potential antecedent constructs that may help clarify the "desire to serve first" dimension of servant leadership. The correlation between servant leadership and the dispositional construct other orientation was examined as a potential predictor of who may possess potential to emerge as a servant leader. The moderating effect of autonomy orientation was then going to be examined and contrasted with the effects of two other motivational orientations defined by the causal motivational orientations sub-theory of Deci and Ryan's (2002) theory of self-determination. The goal of this study was to explore whether individuals with other orientation are more likely to be seen as a servant leader by followers, and whether a leader's causal motivational orientation moderated that relationship. Specifically, it was predicted that the relationship between other orientation and servant leadership would be stronger for leaders with an autonomy causal

motivational orientation, than for those with either a control or impersonal causal motivational orientation. Establishing the relationship between these constructs would inform future research aimed at clarifying the sub-facet of servant leadership, being in service to others and contribute to ongoing efforts to establish greater construct clarity and validity in servant leadership theory.

Theoretical Framework

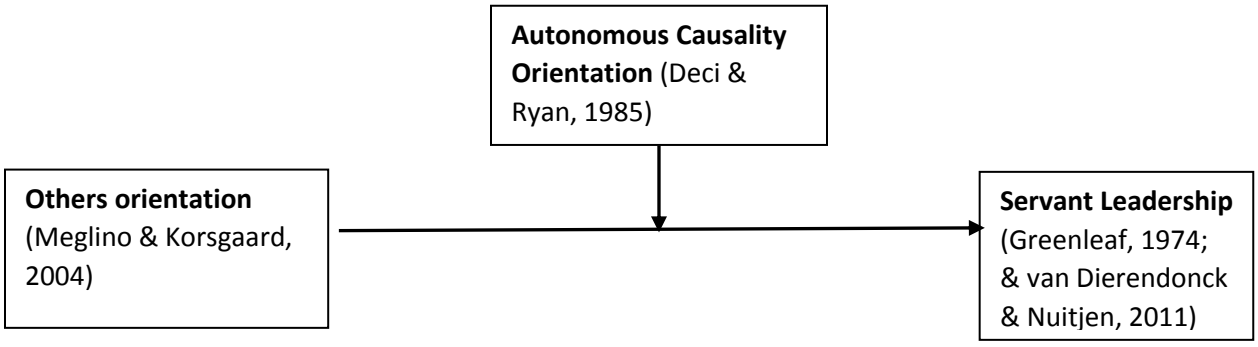
The theoretical framework for this study suggests that a servant leader is more likely to have an other oriented disposition and an autonomy orientation toward causal motivation. A person could be other oriented yet due to their causality orientation, may not initiate behaviors reflective of servant leadership without being asked or given directions. Examining these relationship may help to identify individuals who are more likely to emerge as servant leaders, and be seen as a servant leader by their followers. This theoretical framework proposed how one individual difference related to disposition (other orientation) may interact with the causal orientation underlying an individual's motivational state to explain some of the variance among follower's perceptions of servant leaders.

The proposed theoretical framework provided a basis for testing hypotheses that might offer some evidence to clarify dynamics related to Greenleaf's (1977) concept that "the servant-leader *is* servant first… It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve; to serve *first*… and manifests itself in the care taken by the servant-first to make sure that other people's highest priority needs are being served" (p.27). Greenleaf stated that servant leaders take initiative to empower followers to become more autonomous and grow in competence, stating that "everything begins with the initiative of an individual"

(p. 28). These statements provide the inspiration for exploring the hypothesized relationships.

Servant leadership is a leadership theory built on the premise that leaders should serve first, putting the highest priority needs of followers before any other goal. Several models of servant leadership have been studied empirically, yet the seminal factor, being in service to others, has not been clearly defined in the literature. The framework that guided this study called for testing the interaction of other orientation and autonomy motivational orientation as predictors of servant leadership (See Figure 1).

Figure 1: Model of Servant Leadership and the Desire to Serve



Other orientation is a psychological construct based on the value individuals place on four workplace values (Meglino and Korsgaard, 2004) and was proposed as a possible antecedent to the underlying impetus of servant leaders to serve others first. Autonomy, orientation refers to one of three motivational states, differentiated from impersonal and controlled orientations, which serve as sources of motivation in Deci and Ryan's (2002) causal orientations theory (COT). COT is a sub-theory of Deci and Ryan's (2002) meta-theory of motivation which specifies three orientations that differ in the degree to which they represent self-determination – namely, the autonomous, controlled, and impersonal

orientations. “The autonomy orientation involves regulating behavior on the basis of interests and self-endorsed values; it serves x a person’s general tendencies toward intrinsic motivation and well-integrated extrinsic motivation. The controlled orientation involves orienting toward controls and directives concerning how one should behave; it relates to external and introjected regulation. The impersonal orientation “involves focusing on indicators of ineffectance and not behaving intentionally; it relates to amotivation and lack of intentional action.” (Ryan & 2002, p. 21)

This study was designed to explore the other orientation disposition as a potential antecedent to servant leadership. The hypothesized antecedent role of other orientation in the theoretical framework asserted that individuals high in other orientation would be more likely to be perceived as servant leaders. It was further hypothesized that having an autonomy orientation toward self-determined motivation would moderate the relationship between other orientation and servant leadership, influencing a person high in other orientation to act in others’ interests. Investigation of this hypothesized interaction effect was to have been explored in contrast to two other causal orientations toward motivation (impersonal and controlled) which were not hypothesized to moderate the relationship between dispositional other orientation and servant leadership.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions guided this study:

Does dispositional other orientation predict servant leadership and is this correlational relationship moderated by an autonomous causal orientation toward motivation?

Hypothesis 1: There will be a positive correlation between leaders’ self-reported other orientation and followers’ ratings of servant leadership.

Hypothesis 2: Servant leaders will score statistically higher in autonomous causality orientation than controlled causality orientation.

Hypothesis 3: Leaders' self-reported autonomous causality orientation will moderate the relationship between their self-reported other orientation and followers' ratings of servant leadership.

Hypothesis 4: Controlled causality orientation will not be correlated with servant leadership.

Hypothesis 5. Controlled causality orientation will not moderate the relationship between other orientation and servant leadership.

Hypothesis 6: There will be an interaction effect between self-reported other orientation and autonomy causality orientation with respect to follower's ratings of servant leadership, such that the effect of other orientation on servant leadership will be higher for leaders reporting an autonomous causality orientation.

Hypothesis 7: There will be no interaction effect between self-reported other orientation and controlled causality orientation with respect to follower's ratings of servant leadership.

Methodology

Other orientation is a workplace value that is characterized by being concerned for others and intending to act in the interest of others (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). Other orientation was explored in this study as a potential antecedent of the seminal characteristic of servant leadership, the desire to service others first (Greenleaf, 1977). Ravlin and Meglino (1987) devised the Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES) to measure

four workplace values of achievement, concern for others and helping (incorporated together as concern for others), honesty and fairness. The concern for others value has been interpreted separately from the other values, and operationalized as other orientation. Ravlin and Meglino (1987) developed the tool to measure other orientation, by measuring work values that direct individual's behavior. They searched the scholarly literature on values associated with work, and examined the data. After evaluating the content and processes used to study work values, Ravlin and Meglino (1987) chose values in the workplace that were cited consistently in the many studies reviewed for their study, then surveyed individuals, asking them to name a value held by a fellow co-worker. Through identifying the values mentioned in the surveys and the studies, four value categories were found that accounted for most of the mentions and are: achievement (and working hard), helping (concern for others and helping others), honesty and fairness. These four values are measured by the Comparative Emphasis Scale. To decrease the possibility of social desirability bias, a common issue in the measurement of values, Ravlin and Meglino (1987) decided to use a forced choice format for the survey instrument. After a participant takes the CES, the results are presented by listing the person's values in rank order. An individual is considered high in other orientation if that value is ranked first or second in the hierarchical order of the four values. In this study, the other orientation subscale from the CES was examined as a possible operational definition of Greenleaf's (1977) desire to serve, which he described as a value placed on putting the needs of others first, disposing individuals to act in the interest of others regardless of the personal cost.

The other orientation construct and CES instrument were also chosen for this study because Meglino and Korsgaard (2004) demonstrated that those high in other orientation did not consciously choose to respond to others needs. They acted automatically, without using a deliberate, cognitive evaluative process to decide how to act. Those lower in other orientation used a rational self-interest process to weigh the potential consequences for extra helping behavior to determine if there was a possibility for a reward in the future. This subconscious process aligns with Greenleaf's (1977) description of the leaders' desire to serve. Meglino and Korsgaard (2004) have been cited in the servant leadership literature as possible explanations for the desire to serve, although no one has yet reported testing this proposition (Liden, Panaccio, Meuser, Hu and Wayne, 2014 and van Dierendonck, 2011).

This study was designed to be conducted using a sample of supervisors and their direct reports, including only those supervisors with which a minimum of three direct reports responded to the survey, from four organizations located in the mid-west region of the U. S. The principal investigator worked in conjunction with a designated liaison in each organization to apply the parameters of the study to their organization to determine which employees qualified to be included in the study. The PI also advised how to generate personal identifier codes, how and when to send the emails, and other considerations associated with the organization's email server.

The company liaison, working in cooperation with the PI, sent the solicitation emails to their eligible employees. Supervisors were sent a message via company email with an explanation of the nature of the study, a request for their cooperation, a personal identifier code, and a secure link to the survey administration site, Qualtrics. The

Qualtrics server also provided access to an Informed Consent document that assured participants the survey would be anonymous, and an explanation that their responses would not permit the researcher to identify individual participants, because the researcher would not have their email addresses and responses would only be associated with their personal code. Supervisors willing to participate completed the Comparative Emphasis Scale (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987) and the General Causality Orientations Scale (Deci & Ryan, 1985) which measures other orientation and motivational orientation, respectively.

Direct reports of supervisors invited to participate were sent a survey assessing the dependent variable, servant leadership. Direct reports responded to the Servant Leadership Survey (van Dierendonck and Nuitjen, 2011) as it pertains to their immediate supervisor. This scale was chosen because it has been widely tested and found reliable and valid. This survey is also unique in that it measures the behaviors that characterize both the leader side of servant leadership as well as the servant side. The SLS measures the leader's behaviors from a micro focus, individual development and holding followers accountable, to a macro focus, stewardship for the community (Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck, & Liden, 2018). Responses from subordinates were coded for analysis by linking to data submitted by their most immediate supervisor.

All data, collected from the responses, was managed through the Qualtrics software program licensed by Xavier University. The data has been housed in the app Dropbox, which uses encryption to avoid data breaches. The principal researcher and co-investigator, Dr. Latta, were the only individuals who had access to the data. The data will be stored for a period of no more than three years and then be destroyed.

If significant correlations were found among predicted variables, regression analysis was to be used to examine whether there is a moderated relationship between the predictor, other orientation; the outcome variable, servant leadership; and the moderator, autonomy orientation. Data analysis was to have focused on correlation and meditational computations following the Baron & Kenny (Baron & Kenny, 1986) model. These inferential tests would have provided statistical evidence to evaluate the hypotheses addressing whether having an other orientation is positively correlated with servant leadership and if so, whether having an autonomy causal orientation moderates that relationship.

Definition of Terms

Servant Leader - The servant-leader is servant first. It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. The best test 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 (Greenleaf, 1977).

Servant Leadership – Servant leadership is a constellation of characteristics manifested in a leader's behavior which are focused on the best interests of others. Servant leadership behavior is marked by acting as one amongst equals, not as superior, more powerful or more important than others. Their focus is on the needs of others, and the wider community, and is demonstrated through listening, empowering others, empathy, and sharing their vision with others. The seven major characteristics of servant

leadership are: empowerment, accountability, standing back, humility, authenticity, courage, and forgiveness (van Dierendonck & Nuitjen, 2011).

Other orientation - The dispositional tendency to be concerned with and helpful to other persons (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004). Other orientation has been proposed as a potential factor related to the desire to serve in servant leadership, although this proposition has not yet been tested (Liden, Panaccio, Meuser, Hu and Wayne, 2014 and van Dierendonck, 2011).

Self-Determination Theory - Self-determination theory (SDT) is an empirically based, organismic theory of human behavior and personality development. The theory is particularly concerned with how social-contextual factor support or thwart people's thriving through the satisfaction of their basic psychological needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy. SDT assumes that humans have evolved to be inherently curious, physically active, and deeply social being. Individual human development is characterized by proactive engagement, assimilating information and behavioral regulations, and finding integration within social groups. From infancy on, people manifest intrinsic tendencies to take interest in, deeply learn about, and gain mastery with respect to both their inner and outer worlds. These inclinations include intrinsic motivation. (Ryan & Deci, 2017 p. 3&4).

General causality orientations theory - A sub-theory of the theory of self-determinism that "applies across domains, times, and situations. Causality orientations describe motivational sets or characteristic ways of perceiving and organizing motivationally relevant perceptions and information. They are 'characteristic adaptions' (McAdams & Pals, 2006) reflecting people's propensities to orient to different

motivationally relevant aspects of situations, especially with respect to whether the individuals will exercise autonomy, attend to controls, or fear noncontingent reactions to their initiations and behaviors." (Ryan, R.M. & Deci, E.L., 2017, p.217). Three causality orientations are defined within the theory: autonomy, controlled and impersonal.

Autonomy orientation - One of three causality orientations in Deci & Ryan's (1985) causality orientations theory that describes the degree to which people orient toward their environments by treating them as sources of relevant information, as they take interest in both external events and the accompanying inner experiences. It also involves their experiencing choice with respect to their actions and reactions and finding or creating opportunities for the engagement and expression of what they find interesting and important. When autonomy-oriented, people are 'interest-taking,' putting them in a position to be more self-regulating. Thus when people are high in the autonomy orientation, they tend to use the identified and integrated styles of regulation and to have a high level of intrinsic motivation. (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p.217).

Controlled orientation - One of three causality orientations in Deci & Ryan's (1985) causality orientations theory that describes the degree to which people's attention and concerns tend to be oriented toward external contingencies and controls. Individuals in a controlled orientation experience social contexts in terms of rewards and social pressures that they either comply with or defy, and in so doing they often lose sight of their own values or interests. (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p.217).

Impersonal orientation – One of three causality orientations in Deci & Ryan's (1985) causality orientations theory that describes the degree to which people orient toward obstacles to goal attainment, readily experience anxiety and incompetence, and

react to their lack of control over outcomes and thus are relatively prone to be amotivated (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p.218).

Intrinsic Motivation - The inclinations that include the inherent propensities to explore, manipulate, and understand and the propensity to assimilate social norms and regulations through active internalization and integration. These propensities are accompanied by and indeed grounded in, specific phenomenal satisfactions in the pursuit of feeling competent, autonomy and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p. 4-5).

Assumptions

The primary assumption embedded in the theoretical framework of this study was that other orientation is a dispositional attribute (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004). However, due to the cross-sectional design of this study, that assumption will not be directly tested. Another assumption reflected in the theoretical framework is that causal motivational orientation is not dispositional, but may be influenced by organizational context. Again, the design of this study will not test that assumption directly. These assumptions will limit the conclusions that can be drawn from results of this study without further investigations of a longitudinal or experimental nature.

An underlying methodological assumption of this study was that participants would freely choose to complete the survey instruments, understand the nature and implications of participating, and answered to the best of their ability. The self-report nature of all instruments employed in this study raises concerns about potential bias in participants' responses, so the researchers designed the methodology and explained the steps taken to ensure that they protected confidentiality of responses in order to minimize self-serving responses.

The study design also assumed that participants who agreed to participate in this study, did so freely, without being rewarded or coercion by anyone in their organization.

Limitations

One limitation of the design of this study is that results reflect only a small number of organizations, and may not generalize to organizations in other areas of this country or outside of this country, or to organizations in other industries. The study also reflects the views of the participants at one point in time, so the findings could not support any causal claims.

Additional limitations resulted from the execution of this study. All data for this study were collected from four different organizations representing the for-profit, non-profit and educational industries. Whether or not these findings generalize to other industries is unknown. Self-report survey instruments were used to operationalize the independent variables. Self-report measurements are subject to self-serving bias. The dependent variable was assessed using a rater report survey. Such surveys are only valid to the extent respondents have had the opportunity to directly observe the leadership behaviors assessed, which may vary among respondents. The design of this cross-sectional nature of this study was limited analysis to predicting the probability of correlational and moderated relationships among variables; no causality could ever be assumed from the results based on this cross-sectional design.

While the number of overall respondents nearly reached the proposed target, the number of respondents from participating organizations varied greatly, so the sample size from each organization could potentially be an issue in interpreting results. Results of the data analysis was also limited by the high degree of homogeneity in the outcome

variable, servant leadership, and the positively skewed scores of participants on most metrics.

Delimitations

A delimitation of this study is that although the measure of work values was selected in part because of its ability to overcome social desirability bias, which is often found in measures of values, no measure is totally free of the potential for bias.

Significance of the Study

Researchers have demonstrated that servant leadership makes a positive impact on organizational outcomes, at both the individual and group levels (Davis, 2018; Doni, Raja, Panaccio & Wang, 2016; Parris & Peachey, 2013), and in doing so, improves the well-being of employees. Outcomes from these previous studies on servant leadership provide reasons why organizations could benefit by adopting this leadership style. Scholars are still engaged in the process of testing empirically the concept of servant leadership, including coming to agreement on one definition and measure of servant leadership. Despite all of the empirical evidence on servant leadership, the seminal facet of servant leadership, being in service to others, has yet to be defined clearly in the literature. This study was designed to make a contribution to ongoing efforts to clarify what it means for a leader to possess an underlying desire to serve others, and put the needs of followers first by exploring the potential contribution of other orientation and autonomy motivational orientation. Results failed to reach significance on all hypothesized effects tested, therefore findings shed no light on why some individuals may be more disposed than others to be seen as servant leaders in the eyes of their followers. Findings offer preliminary empirical evidence the tested variables do not

represent antecedents of servant leadership, and offer no statistical support for propositions derived from reviewing previous research on servant leadership (van Dierendonck, 2011). This study makes a limited contribution to concept clarity in the development of servant leadership theory, and provides little direction for defining and operationalizing core constructs. Data from this study of other orientation disposition and autonomy orientation toward causal motivation failed to explain any of the variance in follower's perceptions of their supervisors as servant leaders. Results of this study suggest scholars may want to consider other avenues for advancing our understanding of servant leadership, especially the desire to serve others first, and developing a unified theory of servant leadership.

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation is organized in five chapters that explain and describe the study to be conducted. In the first chapter, the topic is explained with the background information supporting the selection and significance of the study. The chapter includes the purpose of the study, the theoretical frameworks giving rise to this study, the research questions, methodology, definitions and limitations of the study. The second chapter presents a review of the literature related to the topic and variables in the study. The focus of the study is on servant leadership, the various definitions of servant leadership, and the direction of research on servant leadership, as well as the gaps in research pointing to areas of needed research. Other orientation is described as a possible explanation for the phenomenon of focusing on the needs of others before one's own needs, and will be explored as a potential construct as part of servant leadership. Self-determination theory will also be addressed as it relates to other orientation. In Chapter 3,

the methodology is described and discussed, along with the measures used, study participants, and other details. Chapter 4 presents findings from the collection and analysis of date. Finally, Chapter 5 interprets study results in relation to stated research questions and discusses implications of the study for future research.

Chapter 2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

"*The real voyage of discovery consists not in seeking new landscapes, but in having new eyes."* Marcel Proust

What makes a great leader? This question has consumed the thoughts and efforts of organizational leaders and leadership scholars for decades. One of the difficulties is identifying the characteristics that are critical for great leadership, and finding agreement on the what those are. One of the most current models of leadership is servant leadership, which offers a perspective unique in the field of organizational development. Servant leadership was first conceptualized by Robert Greenleaf (1977) and is based on the premise that great leaders are good servants who focus on their followers' needs before their own interests or those of the organization. This movement away from "company first" mantras goes against what is typically taught in business schools about the role of leaders. The idea that a manager would consider the needs of their subordinates first is a change in priorities from the first concern being organizational goals, stock prices, bottom line, and other measures of the financial and performance goals of an organization. These priorities are also present in non-profit organizations or governments who also depend on financial resources for survival. This leadership theory, servant leadership, is based on the importance of serving others, and in turn, serving the community as well. This concept goes against common thinking, and requires a change in perspective, so is it worthwhile enough to be adopted by organizations?

This review addresses that question by providing an overview of the history of servant leadership, the models that have been designed, and the value of this leadership style as demonstrated by empirical evidence. Along with the background, this review will explain what we still need to learn about servant leadership and offer directions for

answering those questions. The research on servant leadership began around the beginning of this century, and has accelerated in the past decade. As more studies are conducted, the evidence increasingly points to servant leadership as a leadership style that is significantly related to desirable organizational outcomes while offering something that is missing in all of the others – a model of leadership based on the importance of putting others before oneself. In a recent meta-analysis of several related leadership theories (including ethical, authentic, and transformational leaderships), Hock, Bommer, Dulebohn and Wu (2018) stated that servant leadership explained more variance than the other leadership styles in multiple organizationally related outcomes, with the added dimension of a demonstrated concern for and focus on others. They concluded that servant leadership has the potential to be an improved model over transformational leadership, the 'gold standard' of leadership models for the last several decades.

Servant Leadership

Servant leadership was conceptualized by Greenleaf (1977) following his career as a corporate executive and was based on his reflections from his work experience and spiritual beliefs. The concept came to him after reading the book *Journey to the East* by Hermann Hesse when he became fascinated by the character of Leo. Leo was a servant with a band of travelers, and his value to the travelers was not realized until after he left them. The impact that a servant could have without any formal power intrigued Greenleaf, and inspired him to develop this idea into a leadership concept.

> "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. He is sharply different from the person who is *leader* first, perhaps because of the

> need to assuage an unusual power drive or to acquire material possessions… The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant-first 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?" (Greenleaf, 1977, p, 7).

Greenleaf called the desire to serve a "natural feeling" (p. 7) that encourages a person to seek, be attenuated to or be aware of opportunities to act out of their concern for others. Wanting to serve initiates the process of becoming a servant leader followed by behaviors that are perceived by followers as those of a servant leader. The anticipated result of this style of leadership is to develop followers that desire to serve and act autonomously. This implies that Greenleaf believed that the process of becoming a servant leader is not dependent on characteristics that are innate, but ones that can be learned in different ways, including through being led by a servant.

An effective servant leader empathizes and seeks to understand others' perspectives and understand what it takes to fulfill their highest priority needs. The servant leader provides followers with enough autonomy to take risks and learn (Greenleaf, 1977). Servant leaders use their insights along with trial and error to find the best way to build and develop the followers' capabilities. This process can be discouraging when first attempts are unsuccessful, and is dependent upon the servant leader's concern for others and the tenacity to figure out the best way to reach each follower. The servant leader must accept that suffering is part of the process, a burden willingly carried for the sake of others. This genuine concern that servant leaders have for

their followers compels them to listen to their followers, tolerate imperfections, seek ways to foster their growth and expect their best.

Greenleaf did not expect perfection in leaders just as he did not expect it in followers. He accepted that leaders may not always have pleasant demeanors because all people fall short. What is important is the continuous development of their abilities to serve, to communicate well and to understand others. Servant leaders are acutely interested in understanding each follower and will try over and over again to find the best method of developing them. Their foresight is utilized to see the issues ahead that may impact their followers, and use this information to guide them (Greenleaf, 1977). The servant leader must be attenuated to changes or events on the horizon, to anticipate issues that could impact the followers and the community in the future. Without this characteristic, which Greenleaf called foresight, a servant leader may fail to be observant, an ethical failure, due to the potential for causing harm to followers. In this respect, the servant leader must be able to see what is right before him or her and what lies ahead with the confidence to lead. Greenleaf (1996) saw the servant leader as positive force in building a better society by engaging followers to work together in devising and enacting plans based on the leader's vision.

Greenleaf's ideas, as expressed through his writings and lectures at universities, garnered support from both organizational scholars and thinkers (Bennis, 1989, Frick, 1998, Block, 1993; Senge, 2006; & Blanchard, 2017) and business leaders (DePree, 1989 and Covey, 1998) since its initial conception. Spears, an early follower of Greenleaf, was the executive director of the leadership institute founded by Greenleaf, and now called the Greenleaf Center. He was the first to identify the characteristics of a servant leader

and distill them into 10 characteristics: being listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community (Spears, 1996). Other leadership thinkers, such as Covey, Blanchard and Frick, studied Greenleaf's writings and offered their interpretations as well. None of these were empirically based, and some believed that the concept was too illusive to study scientifically.

By the beginning of this century, research scholars began studying servant leadership to determine the effectiveness of Greenleaf's model. Laub (1999) was the first to develop an empirically tested model of servant leadership in his doctoral dissertation, including an instrument, the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), to operationalize the construct. The OLA measures servant leadership at the organizational level. Laub defined servant leadership as "an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader" (Laub, 2010, p. 108) and his model is consists of six characteristics: values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership.

During the next decade, other scholars proposed and tested their theoretical frameworks based on Greenleaf's philosophy. Page and Wong's (2000) framework is based on their definition that a servant leader's "primary purpose for leading is to serve others by investing in their development and well-being…" (Page & Wong, 2000, p. 2). Wong and Davey (2007) devised another model of servant leadership with five dimensions: serving and developing others, consulting and involving others, humility and selflessness, modeling integrity and authenticity and inspiring and influencing others. Russell and Stone's (2002) values-based model consists of nine functional attributes and

11 accompanying attributes. The complexity of the model has made interpretation and application difficult. Dennis and Bocarnea (2005) also developed a values-based model which incorporated aspects of the model proposed by Patterson (2003). The model by Dennis and Bocarnea included five domains: empowerment, trust, humility, agapao love, and vision.

Ehrhart (2004) developed an instrument for servant leadership for the purpose of examining its relationship to organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). The focus of the study was on the factors that lead to OCB, and in the process Ehrhart developed a tool to operationalize servant leadership. The instrument has become one of the most often used instruments for operationalizing servant leadership, even though Ehrhart's research interests have pivoted to other areas of organizational development, such as organizational climate and culture and strategic leadership (Ehrhart, Bliese & Thomas, 2006; Schneider, Ehrhart & Macey, 2013; Schneider, Ehrhart, Mayer, Saltz, & Niles-Jolly, 2005).

Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) were among the first to develop a servant leadership model based on behaviors, with five behavioral dimensions: altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping and organizational stewardship. Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora (2008) subsequently proposed a behavioral model that incorporates spirituality as an element. They cite the meaning behind the character Leo, and references to serving from the Bible as explanations of the meaning of being a servant leader. Their model is designed to resemble the life of Jesus Christ.

Liden, Wayne Zhao, and Henderson (2008) proposed a behavioral model operationalized with their instrument, the Servant Leadership Scale (SLQ). Their model

has seven dimensions: empowering, helping subordinates grow and succeed, putting subordinates first, emotional healing, conceptual skills, creating value for the community, and behaving ethically. Like Sendjaya et al (2008), they incorporate ethics into the behavioral dimensions of the model.

Following Liden et al (2008), van Dierendonck and Nuitjen (2011) developed a model that consists of eight behavioral dimensions: empowerment, humility, standing back, authenticity, forgiveness, courage, accountability and stewardship and is operationalized with the Servant Leadership Survey (SLS). van Dierendonck (2011) also reviewed the empirical models and studies to date, described the common elements and findings related to servant leadership, and suggested future directions for research. He also proposed a model that incorporated characteristics from the other models as a way to coalesce around one construct for servant leadership. However, research continued operationalizing servant leadership with the multiple instruments designed by these and other scholars.

Many studies have been conducted using these instruments to determine the effectiveness of servant leadership in organizations. After years of research by many scholars on its impact, Parris and Peachey (2013) conducted a literature review of the findings related to servant leadership in organizational contexts. They wanted to learn how servant leadership is defined, what methods have been used to analyze it and the results. They found that the most widely used instruments to measure servant leadership were the ones developed by Laub (1999) and Ehrhart (2004). At the team level, they found servant leadership was related to organizational outcomes such as leader and organizational trust, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), procedural justice, and

an increase in team effectiveness. In relationship to followers, Parris & Peachey (2013) found strong evidence for increases in employee job satisfaction, positive work climate, employee creativity, helping behaviors, follower well-being, lower turnover, and higher levels of employee commitment. They also noted that servant leadership is related to unit level performance and firm performance.

Another comprehensive literature review was conducted by Coetzer, Bussin and Geldenhuys (2017) on the main functions and outcomes of servant leadership. The purpose of this review was to find the functions of servant leaders as defined in organizational studies, specifically the measures, characteristics, abilities, and outcomes associated with the various models. The review showed strong support for individual outcomes including low burnout and turnover intention, work engagement, organizational citizenship behavior, innovativeness, organizational commitment, job satisfaction trust, and person-job fit are related to servant leadership. Outcomes at the organizational level associated with servant leadership were customer service, sales performance, organizational citizenship behaviors at the team level, and service culture and climate.

More recently, studies have found that servant leadership is related to voice behavior in organizations (Yan & Xiao, 2016), and affective commitment to the organization (Lapointe & Vandenberghe, 2018). Researchers also began looking at possible mediators and moderators that influence the relationship between servant leadership and outcomes. For instance, Sousa and van Dierendonck (2017) found that servant leaders are under-estimators of their capability to influence followers, and this characteristic led to psychological empowerment in the followers. Newman, Schwarz, Cooper, and Sendjaya (2017) found that the effect that servant leaders have on

organizational citizenship behavior is through psychological empowerment, which is influenced by the follower's proactive personality. Helping behaviors in nurses was found to mediate the relationship between servant leaders and patient satisfaction with nurses (Neubert, Hunter & Tolentino, 2016). Servant leadership influences organizational outcomes (Chiniara and Bentein, 2016) through follower relatedness need satisfaction. These results demonstrate that servant leadership's influence is often indirect and through their service to others, the manifestation of Greenleaf's description of servant leaders' motivation: "the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first" (Greenleaf, 1977, 1991, p. 7), which also precedes the serving behaviors.

The importance of servant leadership as a leadership style is evident in studies that compared servant leadership to other leadership styles. Van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, and Alkema (2014) studied whether servant leadership shared similar outcomes as transformational leadership. In a series of studies, they demonstrated that the two leadership styles are related to some of the same results, work engagement and organizational commitment, but they effect outcomes through different mechanisms. On the basis of their findings, these researchers assert that servant leadership works through satisfying the needs of their followers, while transformational leaders are viewed as being more effective, leading to organizational commitment.

In Need of a Unified Model and Definition

The multiple frameworks and characteristics are scholars' attempts to empirically define servant leadership in the absence of empirical evidence offered by Greenleaf, to test his theory and demonstrate its effectiveness. It is common during the development phase of a construct to have multiple frameworks proposed to explain the phenomenon

with accompanying instruments to operationalize it. The purpose of using multiple instruments is determining which model is the best fit. After multiple tests of these models, there has been an increase in calls from scholars for a unified construct that best explains Greenleaf's definition (Parris and Peachey, 2014; Van Meter, Chonko, Grisaffe, & Goad, 2016, and Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck & Liden, 2018, and Winston & Fields, 2015). Focht & Ponton (2015) contacted major researchers and experts in servant leadership, and asked them to participate in a study designed to find agreement on one model for servant leadership. Ten out of 36 experts agreed to participate, with eight completing the process. The results produced a list of the most relevant domains as rated by the participants. In a comprehensive effort to find commonality amongst the constructs, Van Meter et al (2016), reviewed the empirical frameworks and claims, and constructed a definition for the construct of servant leadership that closely resembled Greenleaf's definition. Winston and Fields (2015) similarly contacted leadership theorists and asked them to respond to a pool of items from most of the current measures, and asked them to rate the items in importance to the servant leadership concept. From this, they conducted a statistical analysis and published the new measure which reflected the outcome. As of yet, no agreement has been reached on one measure of servant leadership.

The most foundational behavior of servant leadership, serving others, is described in the models as altruistic calling (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006), agapao (Patterson, 2003), putting subordinates first (Liden et al, 2008), standing back (van Dierendonck & Nuitjen, 2011), and servanthood (Page & Wong, 2000). In 2016, Van Meter, Chonko, Grisaffe and Goad reviewed the ways that servant leadership has been defined in the literature, the domains in the various theoretical frameworks, and how they relate to Greenleaf's

definition. They provided comprehensive lists of construct and operational definitions, domains elements, and variables studied in relation to servant leadership. Their conclusion was that there is a need for construct clarity, and a new definition that more closely reflects Greenleaf's concept. They contend that it is difficult to draw definitive conclusions from the results found to date until there is agreement on an operational definition that captures the concept of serving others first.

Reviewing Greenleaf's (1977) definition of servant leadership, he states that servant leaders are "servants first… with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first." (p. 7), implying that this feeling occurs first, before one acts, that the behavior is self-directed and congruent with the leader's values. The behavioral models of servant leadership measure the followers' perceptions of their leader's behaviors, not the factors that predict those behaviors. An understanding of what leads to serving others will improve the model by providing details that clarify the motivations and personality characteristics of servant leaders. These antecedents could direct scholars to ways in which they could modify the current frameworks of servant leadership and come closer to one model. Table 1 presents examples of some of the definitions proposed by scholars who have operationalized the construct.

In Table 2, the domains listed are those that incorporate the concept of service to others in the current servant leadership operational constructs. These domains are serving behaviors that have been found by scholars to be associated with followers' perceptions of servant leadership in their supervisor. Van Meter et al (2016) stated in their review of

Table 1. How 'serving others first' is defined by servant leadership scholars

AUTHOR	DEFINITION
Laub (1999, p. 81)	"Places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader…"

Page & Wong (2002, p. 2)	"A leader whose primary purpose is to serve others …"
Patterson (2003)	"Servant leaders are those who serve with a focus on the followers"
van Dierendonck & Nuitjen (2011, p. 252)	"the extent to which a leader gives priority to the interest of others first"
Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora (2008, p. 406)	"a willingness to take up opportunities to serve others"
Russell and Stone (2002, p. 145)	"servant leadership takes place when leaders assume the position of servant "

Table 2 Behavioral Domains of Servant Leadership

AUTHORS	DOMAIN NAME	SUPPORTING THEORY
Spears (1998)	Stewardship and Commitment to developing others	None
Laub (1999)	Values people	None
Page & Wong (2000)	Servanthood	Hall (1991)
Russell and Stone (2002)	Service	Fairholm (1997)
Dennis & Bocarnea (2005)	Humility	Patterson (2003)
Wong & Davey (2007)	Serving and developing others	Blanchard & Hodges (2003)
Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora (2008)	Voluntary Subordination	Blanchard & Hodges (2003)
Liden et al (2008)	Putting Subordinates First	Greenleaf (1977)
van Dierendonck & Nuitjen (2011)	Standing Back	Greenleaf (1977)

the various constructs that "the most defining feature of servant leadership, 'serving first' has not been featured prominently in the literature as a primary distinctive trait in empirical operationalizations of servant leadership." (p. 68). The variety of descriptions of serving others and the frameworks supporting them are the scholars' best efforts to explain the behavior. It is difficult to do this without an understanding of the psychological mechanisms underlying the behavior. Each of the different terms used has a different definition, which may or may not capture the essence of serving others first.

An alternative view is defining 'serving others first' as a behavior that is operationalized as a characteristic in the models, and defining 'the desire to serve others

first' as an antecedent that informs how the phenomenon is manifested. Given Greenleaf's (1977) definition, it would be expected that the desire to serve is an antecedent of servant leadership behaviors, and the question would be what is the desire to serve? Then examining which current definitions encompass behaviors expected to be associated with the desire to serve and result in ensuring that "the highest priority needs are being served" (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 7). The first step in coming to agreement on one definition for servant leadership is to understand the nature of the phenomenon of wanting to serve others first. Following Greenleaf's logic, this yearning is the impetus for the process of serving, followed by the "conscious choice to aspire to lead" (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 7), followed by the actions of a servant leader. The evidence of this process would come from empirically testing antecedents that are likely to explain the desire to serve others first, and later to test the antecedents of servant leadership, their relationship to serving behaviors and outcomes in followers. This would enhance the model by explaining the process more completely. In the absence of this, some of the current results conflict or seem confusing.

For instance, one of the most commonly researched outcome variables in relationship to servant leadership is organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), selected to measure whether the followers model the servant leader and perform helping behaviors. This is based on Greenleaf's assertion that the evidence of whether a leader is a servant is if the followers become servant themselves. To test Greenleaf's theory, research scholars hypothesized that effective servant leaders would have subordinates that performed acts that were not considered a part of their job duties and positively contributed to the organization. These behaviors, called OCBs, are defined as activities

that "do not support the technical core itself as much as they support the organizational, social and psychological environment in which the technical core must function" (Borman & Motowildo, 1993, p.73). These behaviors are discretionary acts that are not formally rewarded and foster a more successful operation (Organ, 1988). In some studies, the supporting theoretical framework for the selection of OCBs as the outcome variable is Social Exchange Theory (SET, Blau, 1964), which is used to explain social interactions. This theory states that individuals will go beyond what others expect in exchange for an expected reward in the future. SET is aligned with the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), which also suggests that the motive for one's extra-role behavior is the possibility of a future reward. Behavior that is motivated by a reward, such as to please others or to be considered for a promotion, and is not congruent with one's values, depletes one's energy, is associated with internal conflict, and is dependent on outside contingencies and constant monitoring (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

Studies examining the relationship of servant leadership to OCBs have shown mixed results with small to moderately significant relationships, and most often only through a mediator (Chiniara & Bentein, 2016; Hunter et al, 2013; Liden, Wayne, Liao & Meuser, 2014; Newman, Schwarz, Cooper, & Sendjaya, 2017; Panaccio, Henderson, Liden, Wayne & Cao, 2015; and Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010), while others have found no effects (Donia et al, 2016). One study found that employees who performed OCBs were driven by impression management, and, once promoted, performed fewer OCBs. They helped others only when it served their purposes, showing that not all OCBs are altruistic (Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000). In another study (Donia et al, 2016) examining servant leadership's influence on employee OCBs directed toward individuals, they

found that employees with low prosocial values performed fewer OCBs with servant leaders than other leaders. One possible explanation for this finding is that they perceived that their leaders do not operate under the norm of reciprocity, so the employees' extra efforts may be considered as a self-sacrifice, an action that the leader believes does not need to be rewarded in the future, or that they do not hold the same values as their leader and were not motivated through extrinsic rewards. However, when employees felt like they were being fairly rewarded for their work, they were more likely to perform OCBs that benefit the organization. If servant leaders do not model an expectation of reciprocity, then it would be expected that a number of followers would not expect a reward for helping behaviors and would ascribe those behaviors to more altruistic motives. The effect on followers is not a focus of this study, but it highlights the importance of selecting the variable that most closely matches the phenomenon being tested.

Greenleaf's writings (1977, 1994) do not suggest that the motive of servant leaders is the expectation of a future reward, such as a promotion or a favor. In fact, he says the opposite, that servant leaders do not seek extrinsic rewards such as boosts to their professional status. Instead, servant leaders serve others out of their personal desire to do so, and their goals are the development of their followers and to build the community. Servants' first concern is the welfare of others and their focus is on meeting the followers' highest priority needs. The examples of servant leaders provided by Greenleaf include Leo, the fictional character in Hesse's novel, and Jesus, both of whom exemplified the selfless nature associated with being in service for others. It is possible

that this slight misinterpretation of the disposition and motivation of servant leaders has misdirected scholars and has contributed to the confusion in defining servant leadership.

Antecedents of Servant Leadership

The foundational characteristic of servant leadership is the desire to serve first, and has been defined as "an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those lead over the self-interests of the leader" (Laub, 1999, p. 81). Page and Wong (2002, p. 2) defined it as "A leader whose primary purpose is to serve others by investing in their development and well-being for the benefit of accomplishing tasks and goals for the common good." Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) consider serving others as part of the altruism dimension, and Sendjaya et al (2003) use the term "being a servant." The concept of focusing on followers first, before organizational goals, is unique to servant leadership and what distinguishes servant leadership from other leadership styles. While these definitions aptly explain the behaviors of servant leaders, they do not identify what leads to this behavior, a key to understanding how to develop future servant leaders.

The difficulty in defining the act of serving others could be related to the lack of research conducted on the antecedents of servant leadership. Scholars have proposed antecedents yet few studies have been conducted on these or any other antecedents of servant leadership. Ng and Koh (2010) stated that the construct of servant leadership lacked research on the motivations to become a servant leader, and that it merits attention. They proposed that motivation to serve, a construct they conceptualized and defined, is the antecedent to servant leadership. This construct has three dimensions, personality traits (agreeableness, conscientiousness and low neuroticism), values (self-transcendence), and past experience with servant leaders. Although they stated that their

construct, the motivation to serve, addresses the absence of empirical studies on antecedent of servant leadership, they did not test their antecedent. Other proposed antecedents include self-determination, cognitive complexity, (van Dierendonck, 2011) and core self-evaluation (Liden, Panaccio, Meuser, Hu and Wayne, 2014). Table 3 lists the antecedents proposed by scholars.

Table 3. Proposed and Studied Antecedents of Servant Leadership

AUTHORS	ANTECEDENTS PROPOSED	ANTECEDENTS STUDIED
Ng & Koh (2010)	Agreeableness, conscientiousness, low neuroticism, self-transcendent values, and experience with a servant leader	
van Dierendonck (2011)	Self-determination, moral cognitive development, and cognitive complexity, and need to serve (values)	
van Dierendonck & Patterson (2015)	Agapao or compassionate love, mediated by virtuous traits of humility, gratitude, forgiveness, and altruism	
Liden, Panaccio, Meuser, Hu & Wayne (2014)	Desire to serve, emotional intelligence, moral maturity and moral conation, prosocial identity, core self-evaluation, and low narcissism	
Peterson, Galvin & Lange (2012)		Narcissism (small, significant relationship, $p < .10$, -.15)
Hunter, Neubert, Perry, Witt, Penney & Weinberger (2013)		Agreeableness and extraversion (mixed results/inconclusive)
Barbuto, Gottfredson & Searle (2014)		Emotional intelligence (mixed results, differences between self and other-rated)
Flynn, Smither, & Walker (2016)		Core self-evaluation (supported)

The research conducted on the antecedents has shown little conclusive evidence, some studies showing mixed results or small significant relationships. Hunter, Neubert, Perry, Witt, Penney & Weinberger (2013) tested one factor in Ng & Koh's (2010) theory,

agreeableness, as an antecedent along with extraversion. The results of their study found a small, significant negative relationship between extraversion and servant leadership and mixed results for the relationship between agreeableness and servant leadership. The discrepancy in the results stems from the differences between servant leadership as measured from the followers' perceptions versus the perceptions of the leader's supervisor, the regional manager. The regional managers' rating of servant leadership in the supervisor showed a small but significant negative relationship with agreeableness, while followers rated their leader high in agreeableness.

Barbuto, Gottfredson and Searle (2014) studied an antecedent, emotional intelligence, and its relationship to servant leadership as rated by followers and self-reported by the leader. And again, there were major differences in the how each groupperceived the servant leadership characteristics in the leader. Emotional intelligence was self-rated by the leader six weeks after taking the Servant Leadership Questionnaire, a self-report instrument (SLQ, Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006). The leaders rated themselves significantly higher in all five characteristics than the followers did; the relationships between each servant leadership characteristic and emotional intelligence was in the moderate to strong range while most of the relationships between servant leadership as perceived by the followers and emotional intelligence were weakly significant.

Flynn, Smither, and Walker (2016) examined an antecedent proposed by Liden, Panaccio, Meuser, Hu & Wayne (2014), core self-evaluation. Core self-evaluation is a personality trait based on one's personal evaluation of their own worth and competence, and is a combination of self-esteem, low neuroticism, self-efficacy, and locus of control. They found that the relationship between the leader's core self-evaluation and

perceptions of leader performance was fully mediated by the subordinate's perception of servant leadership. This study shows support for the proposition by Liden et al (2014) that core self-evaluation is an antecedent of servant leadership. The overall findings from the empirical studies on antecedents to servant leadership demonstrate that the only antecedent with strong empirical support is core self-evaluation (Flynn et al, 2016). The studies on emotional intelligence (Barbuto et al, 2016), agreeableness (Hunter et al, 2013), and narcissism (Peterson et al, 2012) showed mixed or conflicting results.

Identifying the critical antecedents not only aids in defining the servant leadership construct, but also points to possible outcome variables that align more closely with the servant leadership construct due to a greater understanding of how the phenomenon works. For instance, many studies have investigated whether servant leadership is related to behaviors that demonstrate that followers respond in ways that Greenleaf (197) proposed. Greenleaf stated that the criterion of a servant leader is that the followers will become servants themselves, and will act in the interest of others. To test this assertion, some studies have used social exchange theory (SET, Blau, 1964), which is based on the concept of social interactions and the expectation that good works will be reciprocated in the future. This theory is oftentimes used as the theoretical framework used to explain helping behaviors in an organizational setting, called Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB, Organ, 1988). OCBs are defined as "those organizationally beneficial behaviors and gestures that cannot be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations" (p.46). OCBs facilitate a positive climate in the workplace and improve the effectiveness of task performances and processes (Borman, Penner, Allen, & Motowidlo, 2001). These extra-role behaviors create a culture where employees volunteer to do

additional work, are enthusiastic and conscientious. While these behaviors are desirable and would be expected under a servant leader, this variable may not aptly represent the nature and effectiveness of servant leadership. Finding the antecedents may help to refine the behavioral model of servant leadership and point to variables that better capture their followers' behavior.

Greenleaf (1977, 1996) described servant leaders from different angles, yet believed that their basic nature was constant. Servant leaders are "affirmative builders" (Greenleaf, 1991, p. 4), yet may be gruff at times. They look for the best in others and will tirelessly work to find a way to develop their capabilities, which may not always be a pleasant experience for the follower. Servant leaders have genuine concern for their followers, and will accept suffering as part of the process. In all of his writings, Greenleaf never expresses an expectation of reciprocity as a feature of servant leadership, and in fact says that servant leaders have 'entheos,' a sustaining and giving spirit that is not fostered by rewards, such as professional success or status (Greenleaf, 1996). This is what makes being a servant leader so difficult, the standard for giving of oneself out of concern for others is not easily achieved, but is highly effective.

The premise for using OCBs as the criterion variable is based on Greenleaf's statement that the followers will become servant leaders, and demonstrate the same helping behaviors as the leaders. However, studies that investigated whether servant leadership is related to an increase in OCBs by followers have shown mixed results, possibly because OCBs are not the best measure for the effectiveness of servant leaders. A study on the motives of employees that perform OCBs found that self-interest motives and the belief that helping behaviors would be appreciated, expected and rewarded

explained their reason for engaging in OCBs (Michel, 2017). Another study found that employees who engaged in OCBs, and were subsequently promoted, were less likely to perform OCBs after the promotion (Hui, Lam & Law, 2000).

These studies show that a considerable amount of the helping behaviors in organizations is at least partially self-serving, and is not necessarily a sign that followers have become more concerned about others. Donia, Raja, Panaccio & Wang (2016) did not find a relationship between servant leadership and OCB, but did find that followers high in impression management are less likely to be satisfied with their job versus followers low in impression management. Baker (2012) states that the principle of reciprocity is a powerful tool in organizations as a mean for fostering compliance, creating a culture where helping others is done for appearances only. OCBs become a vehicle for promotions, awards, and permits manipulative behavior. The use of OCBs as a measure of the outcomes of servant leadership initially appeared appropriate, but may encompass elements not aligned with servant leadership. The results from studies on outcomes related to servant leadership may provide clues to which antecedents may be the best predictors of servant leadership behaviors.

Proposed Antecedents That Suggest Directions for Research

The proposed antecedents by leading scholars in the study of servant leadership (as seen in Table 3) have not all been tested, and the one that has been tested and explained the most variance was core self-evaluation. Several of those yet to be tested share common elements. Ng and Koh (2010) proposed self-transcendent values, van Dierendonck (2011) proposed the "need to serve" as a value, van Dierendonck and Patterson (2015) proposed virtuous traits, and Liden, Panaccio, Meuser, Hu and Wayne

(2014) proposed the "desire to serve" as well as moral maturity, moral conation, and prosocial identity. These represent values and morals as a core identity of servant leaders which have yet to be empirically explained.

Another shared element is the motivation or drive that compels someone to act on their desire to serve. One proposed explanation for this phenomenon is having experience with a servant leader (Ng and Koh, 2010) and another is self-determination (van Dierendonck, 2011). Self Determination theory (SDT, Deci & Ryan, 1985) is a theory of human behavior, personality, and motivation. SDT explains how social interactions develop or thwart the fulfillment of the three basic psychological needs of autonomy, relatedness and competence. van Dierendonck (van Dierendonck, 2012; van Dierendonck & Dijkstra, 2012; van Dierendonck & Driehuizen, 2015; van Dierendonck & Sousa, 2016; and van Dierendonck & Stam, Boersma, di Windt & Alkema, 2014) has studied SDT as a mediator in several studies, with positive results. Although SDT has not been studied as an antecedent, it has potential to be the catalyst for servant leadership behaviors. First, I will review the proposed antecedents and then discuss how they align with what we have learned so far about servant leadership in the empirical studies and their potential as an antecedent.

The first category of proposed antecedents that may offer the best description of servant leaders is the values group, including self-transcendent values (Ng & Koh, 2010); virtues of humility and altruism (van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015); and the desire to serve and moral maturity (Liden et al, 2014). Of the antecedents proposed by Liden et al (2014) that have not been empirically studied, the one they considered to be most important to servant leadership was the desire to serve. They stated that this phenomenon

includes more than merely the concern for others, or other orientation (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004), perhaps including a form of intrinsic motivation. Liden et al dismissed other orientation due to the lack of a motivational element in the construct yet did not offer another possible concept as an alternative. However, the construct of other orientation, a workplace value, includes elements of self-transcendent values (Ng & Koh, 2010); the value of wanting to serve (van Dierendonck, 2011); and altruism (van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015) which merits it as a potential antecedent. Meglino and Korsgaard (2004) define other orientation as a value that is constant across contexts, and because it is hierarchical, it is measured on a bipolar continuum. Measuring values, in this case other orientation, more clearly differentiates the importance of the value in relation to other values that may be more self-interested, such as achievement. Although values are considered to impact behavior, the addition of another proposed antecedent (van Dierendonck, 2011), Self Determination Theory (SDT, Deci & Ryan, 1985), could be the mechanism that influences those high in other orientation to act on their values, addressing Liden et al (2014) concerns.

Liden et al (2014) also proposed that prosocial identity (Grant, Molinsky Margolis, Kamin, & Schiano, 2009) may be an antecedent to servant leadership. Prosocial identity is considered part of the self-concept that motivates individuals to help others and has been offered in other studies as an alternative to other orientation. However, Grant & Mayer (2009) believe that prosocial identity has elements of both self and other-serving, and does not include being self-sacrificial. The prosocial framework is a combination of motives and behaviors that benefit both the self and others that are not expected to be at the expense of the prosocial individuals. However, this conflicts with

the self-sacrificial dimension of servant leadership. Greenleaf (1991) defines servant leaders as willing to accept suffering for others as a part of life due to their deep love for their followers. Later in life, Greenleaf (1996) surmised that the primary issue in organizations is mediocrity, which includes self-serving behavior. While prosocial identity shares some of the same elements of servant leadership, the difference lies in the absence of self-sacrifice in prosocial identity, and a calling to a more difficult level of leadership. A recent study on morals and emotions (Reynolds & Conway, 2018) exemplifies how examining the dimensions of constructs can elucidate how the phenomenon works. In this study, the authors wanted to understand the similarities or differences between morals and emotions, especially between empathy and concern for others. By honing their focus in each of four sequential studies, they found a significant difference in individuals high in empathic concern. They tested what sources of pain caused the most anguish, and how their morals impacted their judgments. Reynolds and Conway found that those who are high in empathic concern, and have an aversion to watching a video of someone getting hurt, are more likely to have non-relative values, and will decide to take the life of a child in a war zone if it means that the rest of the village will live. These empathic people scored higher in concern for the welfare of others than all of the groups. Conversely, those who also scored high in empathic concern, yet have an aversion to modeling violent actions, are more likely to have relative values, and tend to choose to save the baby even if it means that the rest of the village would die. The authors hypothesize that they have so much personal distress around killing the baby that they would rather relieve their stress than save the village. These finding point to how those high in empathic concern can appear and act so differently.

What may appear to some as behavior that is based on caring about others is actually more self-serving. Like those engaging in OCBs that appear to be done out of concern for others, a closer examination explains important differences in those behaviors. Reynolds and Conway found that people high in empathic concern for others have morals that are relatively stable, yet are willing to do difficult things that are not otherwise personally acceptable if it is for the best interests of the group or community. This study demonstrates the nuances in empathy, and, like prosocial identity, the importance of understanding how the way that it differs impacts important actions. Like prosocial identity, what appears at first glance to be beneficial and kind may have other important implications. For this reason, it is key to our knowledge of servant leadership to narrow our examination of the antecedents that are more likely to predict servant leadership.

Proposed Antecedents as Predictors for Servant Leadership

Other orientation is a work value that disposes individuals to be concerned about the welfare of others, and, when given the opportunity, will be more likely to subconsciously choose to act for others before themselves (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004). van Dierendonck (2011) proposed that the antecedents, desire to serve and motivation to lead, are the foundation of the servant leadership model. He described the desire to serve as a value that impacts behavior. Values are beliefs about desired states or behaviors that are not influenced by the context and guide behavior (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). Values are ranked by each individual, and the importance of the value determines whether it will guide one's actions. Other orientation is a value that places priorities on the welfare of others, is generated from the need for relationships with others, and promotes

forgiveness, helpfulness, genuine concern (Schwartz, 2012). Values direct behavior, and the highest ranked values are those manifested in one's behavior.

Values alone are not expected to be sufficient to explain one's behavior. Does merely being concerned for others propel a person to act in service for them? What differentiates those who act and those who are bystanders? The key that provides the motivation to act on one's values may be found in self-determination theory (SDT, Deci & Ryan, 2000), an individual characteristic proposed as an antecedent (van Dierendonck, 2011). The interaction of highly valuing others and having an autonomous causality orientation, the motivation based on Self-Determination Theory, are proposed to be the explanation for a servant leader's desire to serve others, or "the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first… then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead" (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 7). This study will examine whether the meaning of being in service to others is explained by other orientation (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004), and mechanized by an autonomy orientation (Deci & Ryan, 2017).

Other Orientation

The most widely used models of servant leadership are behaviorally based, and are operationalized by measuring the followers' perceptions of whether their leader demonstrates those behaviors. Less is known about what drives servant leaders to be in service to others. Greenleaf (1977) described them as valuing others, and in doing so, putting others' needs before their own. Greenleaf (1996) believed that servant leaders are distinguished from other leaders by their attitude of service. It is that attribute that has eluded most servant leadership scholars to date, perhaps because of the difficulty in defining and measuring it. The phenomenon of being in service to others is described as a

desire that encourages a leader to consider deeply the needs of the followers before self-concern. The very nature of a servant is selfless and finds joy in promoting the well-being of others. This joy is not found in the achievement of hedonistic goals that others may ascribe, but in finding what others truly need to grow and develop. Greenleaf (1996) describes this quality as entheos, defined as "the essence, the power actuating the person who is inspired" (p.81). Entheos is a spiritual sustaining force that strengthens people during difficult and trying times. It keeps leaders open to gaining new knowledge and bridges religious beliefs to actions, and nurtures the self-concept. Entheos is not fostered by external rewards, and these are not indicators of it: professional status, material wealth, social status, outward trimmings of family success, or the appearance of being busy. These indicators are typical markers of success when an individual achieves their personal professional goals.

Servant leaders are characterized more as concerned for others than self-serving, and see themselves as builders of teams, organizations and communities that are positive and life-enhancing. Greenleaf (1977) states that servant leaders do not expect extrinsic rewards for their work as a servant, but work for the benefit of others and the community as well as the development of their personal capacities to become better servant leaders. Their fulfillment comes through relationships with others, learning, and serving. The ultimate test is what leaders do when they are successful and powerful. Servant leaders find satisfaction in how they have facilitated others' growth, yet are never satisfied that they've done enough. They want to broaden their responsibilities yet focus on one important goal. They act with a sense of purpose.

The descriptions of servant leaders depict them as being concerned for others without considering the consequences to themselves. This could also be called self-sacrifice, defined as "a person's willingness to suffer the loss of types of things to maintain personal beliefs and values" (Yorges, Weiss, & Strickland, 1999, p.428). When examining the concept of 'desiring to serve others first' in empirical studies, it is necessary that the operational definition, along with the conceptual definition, includes a measure of self-sacrifice. De Cremer (2006) found that leaders are seen as self-sacrificing when they do not push their own agenda and are received with more positive emotions than other leaders. He states that this self-sacrificing behavior most likely is servant behavior, yet it is not known whether servant leaders have some self-interest as well.

This distinction in self-interest versus other-interest has been discussed in the research literature when examining prosocial motivations and behavior. It is pertinent to understand the nuances in the different explanations for the phenomenon in order to select the construct that most closely resembles the 'desire to serve' for empirical analysis. Other orientation is a construct that allows for the inclusion of self-sacrifice as an element.

Other orientation, when first defined, was referred to as concern for others (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987), and is a work value along with achievement, fairness, and honesty. Other orientation is defined as "the dispositional tendency to be concerned with and helpful to others." (Meglino and Korsgaard, 2004, p. 948). In their investigations into workplace values, (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987) found that values are partially innate, learned through socialization early in life, difficult to change, impact behavior, and are ranked hierarchically. Values have been referred to as goals,

motivations, interests and attitudes with no consensus to date (Meglino &Ravlin, 1998), but what is agreed upon is that values influence and guide behavior. Although values are stable, there are situational mechanisms that can influence a person to act against their dominant values, such as conforming to expected social practices in public but acting differently in private.

The instrument used to measure work values is the Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES, Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). Because work values reflect socially acceptable and expected ways to behave, they are characterized as highly socially desirable. Measures of constructs that are socially desirable are subject to bias when respondents tend to answer items according to how they want others to perceive them. In an effort to design an instrument that is free or low in social desirability bias, they analyzed multiple formats for measuring values, including rank, point assignment, Likert scales, and forced-choice responses using the Marlowe-Crowne test for social desirability. The results from a series of tests found that the best format was the forced-choice or ipsative method (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). For each item, the respondent chooses between two values. This format results in the values of the respondent ranked in order of importance, but lacks the ability to determine the strength of each value to the individual. One could rank a value as being the most important to them, but it is in comparison to the other values, not whether any of these values are strongly held.

Ravlin and Meglino (1987) also researched and analyzed findings and philosophies concerning values in the literature. Social values are a type of values used in social systems to influence members to be concerned about the welfare of the system and its members. Compliance to values keeps order and helps to prevent aggrievances against

the community. The ipsative method forces the respondent to rank their values, which reflects the ones that are most likely to influence them in most situations. In the process of evaluating the options for the design of the CES, Ravlin & Meglino (1987) acknowledge that there is another view of values that does not align with the format of this measure. This alternative view does not assume that values are necessarily hierarchical, and that there is more variance both in the importance and strength of each of the values to the individual. This approach provides a wider breadth of information on the power of values in specific situations, but it forfeits the ability to rank them. Due to the nature of social values, Ravlin & Meglino (1987) concluded that the importance of understanding which value is most likely to drive behavior supersedes the need to know more details about how an individual may react in specific situations. This forfeiture may be a source that generated arguments from other scholars in the field of organizational behavior, which will be discussed later.

The helping value measured by the CES, (a combination of the concern for others and helping others categories of values) closely describes what Greenleaf (1977) called "a natural feeling that one wants to serve" (p. 7). Those higher in this value are more likely to show their concern for others through behaviors ascribed to servant leaders, such as addressing the needs of the followers, projecting a positive and supporting demeanor and generally caring for their followers. The concern for others, as a value that influences behavior, is a similar concept as the 'natural desire to serve others,' which guides servant leaders' behaviors. Because values are hierarchical, if concern for others is ranked higher than other workplace values, it would be expected to influence a leader's behavior more than the values ranked lower. The exception to this would be if there was a cultural

expectation to act on a value that is not the most prominent, prompting the leader to reconsider and be guided by a more acceptable value. This dilemma could encourage a leader to act in the interest of others when it is not a high-ranking value, but is expected or desired behavior. Being influenced by cultural expectations does not mean that the hierarchy has been amended or that they are situational. They are overridden when the social context demands it, and remain stable (Meglino and Korsgaard, 2004).

Meglino and Korsgaard (2004) extended their theory of workplace values and proposed that people vary in the degree to which they are motivated to pursue their self-interests. They introduced the construct of other orientation as "the propensity to be concerned for other persons" (p. 946) and contend that "individual differences in other orientation are associated with basic differences in rational self-interested judgment and behavior" (946). They measure the construct using the concern for others subscale of the Comparative Emphasis Scale (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). Individuals lower in other orientation are considered to be more rationally self-interested, defined as "thinking and acting in a manner that is expected to lead to an optimal or maximum result for a person on the basis of a consideration of the person's values and risk preferences" (p. 946). They propose that individuals' actions reflect the degree to which they deliberately weigh how closely their beliefs match others. Those higher in other orientation are more likely to respond intuitively and are less likely to engage in rational self-interest. The subconscious reaction to the needs of others resembles the description by Greenleaf as a natural feeling, one that does not need to weigh the costs and benefits before deciding whether to act in another's interest or one's own interest in any given situation.

The proposed theory of rational self-interest may have been a way to address a

limitation in the ipsative method used in the CES, which is that it cannot determine the relative strength of a value to an individual. In other words, one may rank achievement as their most significant value in the CES, but that may not strongly influence their behavior if they hold other values not included in the CES as more important in influencing their behavior. Ranking a value at the top of a hierarchy, yet not holding any of the beliefs strongly is possible with an ipsative measure. The concept of rational self-interest may be one way to discover whether a behavior is the result of a strongly held value or a decision to act according to the value because of situational expectations or a potential reward.

This theory drew arguments from other scholars in the field, mostly from De Dreu (2006) and De Dreu and Nauta (2009), who asserted that the theory of other orientation proposes that others-interest and self-interest are on a bi-polar continuum, with each one at opposing ends of the spectrum. De Dreu (2006) argued that the concepts are orthogonal and unipolar, and may intersect at times. This is based on their definition of self-interest and other orientation as being personality characteristics that are influenced by situations. In agreement with De Dreu (2006), Grant & Berg (2012) define prosocial behavior/motivation as intending to help others but not at the cost of self-sacrifice. Grant (2009) constructs self-interest as gaining intensity and becoming more relative to the situation as the motivations operate closer to one's personal decisions versus global decisions. Both Grant and De Dreu do not refer to other orientation as a value and seem to consider it as the same type of phenomenon.

This reflects a fundamental disagreement in the nature of other orientation. Ravlin and Meglino (1987) conceptualized it as a value, and acknowledged that there are two schools of thought concerning values – one considers values as hierarchical, that when

activated, are laden with emotions, and their relevance is not subject to situational influences. The other view considers values to be weighed in consideration of the situation.

The basic differences in the structure of these concepts is at the center of the disagreement. De Dreu (2006) defines self-interest as a motive that is related to self-concern (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009). Motives have been defined as "a goal-directed psychological force within an organism that desires some change in his or her experienced world" (Batson & Shaw, 1991, p. 108), that are influenced by situational characteristics (De Dreu, 2006). This conflicts with the stable nature of values. It appears that they are describing two different types of phenomenon and are approaching the concept of other orientation from different vantage points. It is conceivable that other orientation and self-interest are orthogonal if other orientation is defined as a value and self-interest is defined as a self-preservation motive.

Another difficulty in fully understanding or addressing the differences in their thinking is due to the absence of definitions of the constructs offered by De Dreu (2006) and De Dreu & Nauta (2008), as well as a lack of theoretical bases of their argument. Without a working definition, it is impossible to follow their reasoning because self-interest has been defined in others ways, including as a behavior. De Celles, De Rue, Margolis, & Cernaic (2012) define self-interest as "actions that benefit the self and come at a cost to the common good" (p.681) and Cropanzano, Goldman & Folger (2005) define it as "an action that is undertaken for the sole purpose of achieving a personal benefit/s… The defining feature is the intended beneficiary of the action. If an act is intended to benefit another person in any part, it is not exclusively self-interested" (p.985). If self-

interest is a motive, or a behavior, and other orientation is a value that influences behavior, then the disagreement is about apples and oranges.

Other orientation is measured in relationship to its importance to other values, in ranked order. The hierarchical nature of values does not imply that ranking other orientation as high means the absence of self-interest. It only reflects the importance of other orientation in relationship to the other values. It does mean that if ranked highest, it is likely to influence behavior more than the other values would. In studies on empathic concern and concern for others, Reynolds & Conway (2018) found that the aversion to harming others in any situation was related to empathic concern, and being willing to allow one person to suffer for the good of many others was also related to empathic concern. However, when looking more closely, they found that empathic concern can be both self and others focused, and is more self-focused when one makes decisions for the purpose of relieving their own personal distress. Those judgments tend to be more relative to the situation. Concern for others, which is stable and not relative, is more likely to be related to maximizing overall outcomes, such as accepting one death if it saves many others. They found that those higher in empathic concern but lower in concern for others were less likely to agree with maximizing overall outcomes, thus being willing to allow all to die because of the personal distress caused by agreeing to allow the one person to die.

This study provides a clearer understanding of other orientation, which is also referred to as concern for others, and is also not easily influenced by the situation. It suggests that other orientation is the best measure for the “desire to serve others” because, like servant leadership, it is focused on the best interests of others, is a stable not

relative, and takes a big-picture view of what is most important to the community.

An interesting aside is that De Dreu, Dussel, & Ten Velden (2015) found that "self-sacrificial decisions to contribute were made faster than decisions not to contribute" (p. 1) in a study of altruistic behaviors in groups. This is a similar finding of Meglino & Korsgaard (2004), but there was no reference to them in the article. Grant & Berg (2012) stated that self-interest and prosocial motivations vary in intensity, and that extreme intensity is probably ruled by emotions while lower intensity is ruled by cognitive processes. Both of these assumptions support Meglino & Korsgaard's descriptions of other orientation.

For the purposes of this study, what is important is discerning why other orientation is a better explanation for the source of the servant leader's concern for other's welfare, and what generates their altruistic and humble behavior. One of the claims in the studies on other orientation is that those high in other orientation respond in situations that evoke empathy to act reflexively to aid the person, while those who are lower in other orientation take more time to consider the potential rewards or consequences of helping others when it is beyond the expectations of their job. Those lower in other orientation are more likely to weigh the possible outcomes and look for ways to protect their self-interests while helping others (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004).

Many of the studies in servant leadership analyze the relationship to organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) which are considered a measure of extra helping behaviors that go beyond the expectations of the job (Chiniara & Bentein, 2016; Donia, Raja, Panaccio & Wang, 2016; Hu & Liden, 2015; Newman, Schwarz, Cooper, & Sendjaya, 2017; Panaccio, Henderson, Liden, Wayne & Cao, 2015). The theoretical

framework used to support the hypothesized relationships between OCB and servant leadership in these studies is mainly Social Exchange Theory (SET, Blau, 1964). In SET, people evaluate whether a behavior has the potential of being rewarded in the future, although the nature and degree of the reward is unknown. This expectation of reciprocity does not align with the proposed nature of servant leaders as subverting their interests in favor of others interests. As a result, it is postulated that servant leaders' behaviors model and encourage followers to be focused more on helping others than rationally considering whether they believe that their actions will be reciprocated. The reliance on SET as the theoretical framework for the impact of servant leaders on followers has contributed to the confusion around the concept of servant leadership and how it impacts desired organizational outcomes.

Servant leadership is characterized by being in service to others, before considering one's own interests (Greenleaf, 1977). This behavior reflects the servant leaders' value of empathic concern for others above the financial success of the organization or the departmental goals or personal recognition. It is a selfless virtue that does not require reciprocity for helping others. This value is not a dimension of prosocial motivation (Grant, 2009) because prosocial motivation has no expectation of self-sacrifice. However, values alone are not sufficient to compel behavior although they are an element in motivation. The addition of a mechanism that motivates a person high in other orientation to act can be found in Self-Determination Theory (SDT, Deci & Ryan, 1985a), which was proposed as an antecedent by van Dierendonck (2011) and Liden et al (2014). SDT explains how people are motivated to act, and describes a process that operates across all psychological functioning. SDT is proposed to be the motivation that

leads a person high in other orientation to act in the interest others with the goal of fulfilling their needs. Other orientation is a value that is stable across situations, and SDT explains how interpersonal contexts along with one's level of satisfaction of basic needs influences behavior. In other words, values are fairly stable and SDT is a more fluid motivational orientation that mobilizes one's beliefs and interest into behavior. It is the mechanization of other orientation that describes the phenomenon of the desire to serve.

Self Determination Theory and the Motivation to Serve Others

People are born with basic psychological needs that are essential for growth and optimal psychological functioning. SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1985a) is "concerned with the social conditions that facilitate or hinder human flourishing." (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p.3). SDT explains how people, from birth, have an innate tendency to fulfill their basic psychological needs of relatedness, competence and autonomy. These needs are filled through interactions with others in their environment, and their life experiences either thwart or meet these needs. How individuals are oriented toward causality is due to the degree to which their needs have been satisfied. The level of causality runs on a continuum from controlled to autonomous, and a lack of causality orientation is referred to as apersonal (Ryan & Deci, 2017). The focus of each individual is to reach the goal of becoming a flourishing human being.

SDT is a complex theory that encompasses phenomenon and connects constructs to form a framework that explains the social contexts and psychological processes that promote healthy psychological functioning. Motivation is an element of SDT, and it is comprised of desires, values, goals, interests and fears (Ryan & Deci, 2017) of each individual and are intrinsic tendencies to be curious, to learn, and to build relationships. It

is important to note that SDT does espouse the content of any of those elements. To the extent that efforts are met positively in their environment, the functioning and structure of a person's capacity to engage with others and perform optimally will be affected.

The social context can thwart needs, evidenced by being overly controlling, critical, negative and rejecting. This leads to characteristics such as being self-focused, unmotivated or antisocial, as seen in controlled or a personal motivational orientations. People depend on their social interactions for meeting their psychological needs, continuing throughout one's lifetime (Ryan & Deci, 2017). The motivational orientation representing the fulfillment of an individual's autonomy is called an autonomy orientation. Interpersonal contexts that are autonomy supportive are most conducive to meeting one's needs, not those that are controlling or demanding, and foster growth on the continuum from controlled to autonomy orientations. The basic psychological needs of autonomy and competence are fulfilled through relationships, and so the relationship need is the critical first need that must be fulfilled through interpersonal interactions in one's social context.

Within SDT are six mini theories that explain different aspects of psychological functioning related to the fulfillment of basic psychological needs. One of these mini theories is Causality Orientations Theory (COT, Deci & Ryan, 1985), which explains the individual differences in orientation toward motivation. Causality orientations are the subconscious processes that interpret cues in the environment that activate one's orientation towards being autonomous, controlled or apersonal. Autonomy orientation is "the propensity to organize behavior by orienting towards interest, values and supports for them in interpersonal contexts" (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p.20). An autonomy orientation

is evidenced when one is acting congruently with one's own values and beliefs, and is self-expressive. Those with this orientation are intrinsically motivated and confident in their ability to reach personal goals. (Ryan & Deci, 2017).

The controlled orientation is when behavior is regulated by "orienting toward social controls and rewards by complying or defying them" (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p.20). An impersonal orientation is one that is oriented towards "aspects in the environment that signify a lack of control over outcomes and incompetence and promotes amotivation" (Ryan & Deci, 2017, p.20). These three causality orientations, autonomy, controlled, and impersonal, are the primary individual differences in SDT.

Individual development relies on social support for the fulfillment of one's basic needs, and when they are satisfied, individuals are intrinsically motivated. The empathic concern characteristic as part of the other orientation dispositional value in servant leaders would generate the caring relationship needed for the development of their needs. The causality orientations reflect one's level of development, and are on a continuum from impersonal orientation to controlled to autonomy orientations. Depending on one's level of autonomy, people are oriented to different situational cues that dispose how they will react and behave. Those with an autonomy orientation use their environment as sources of relevant information that informs their choice of action or decisions to create their own opportunities. Those with controlled orientations are focused on extrinsic rewards and controls, are subject to social pressures through which they may lose sight of their personal values (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Table 4 compares the motivations and regulations associated with each orientation.

Individuals with a controlled orientation behave in response to the possibility of

receiving extrinsic rewards, to avoid undesirable consequences, or because of their concern for what others may think. They are more or less controlled (depending on where they are on the continuum) by their desire to comply to outside influences in the environment. These motivations for behavior are similar to those described by SET, the framework used to support OCBs in organizations, when they ascribe reciprocity, or the exchange of rewards, as the reason for the helping behaviors. It has been found that the number of helping behaviors drops when individuals are promoted, demonstrating that

Table 4: Characteristics of the General Causality Orientations

	Impersonal	Controlled	Autonomous
Style of regulation	Non-regulation	Introjected regulation	Identified or integrated (external motivation) and Intrinsic Regulation
Motivation	Amotivation	Extrinsic	Intrinsic & Extrinsic
Behaviors and characteristics	• Little initiative or self-confidence • Easily overwhelmed by autonomous environments • easily experience anxiety and incompetence • Orient toward obstacles in their environment	• concerned with what others think • Behavior is controlled with rewards and punishments • Behavior is not a reflection of one's own values • Lower levels of performance • Lower effort extended • Lower levels of persistence	• Choose their own actions and reactions based on personal values • Create opportunities that align with interests • Behavior is self-regulated • Supports autonomy in others • Open to ideas, change and new experiences

after being rewarded, the motive for helping others is gone (Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000). The theory of SET is based on reciprocity, the motivation associated with the controlled orientation. It is unlikely that an individual could be a servant leader with a controlled orientation because the number of serving behaviors are more likely to drop once they were reciprocated. Servant leaders do not seek rewards for being in service to others, and are not regulated by external factors in the environment such as the possibility of promotion, recognition or monetary rewards. This is similar to those with an autonomous causality orientation who are self-directed by their personal values, and are less likely to act in discordance with them.

People that have an autonomy orientation do not look to their environment to provide direction on which behaviors are acceptable, their behavior is self-regulated and based on their own values. Their personal beliefs are well-integrated into their personality allowing them to respond reflexively if others need help. Servant leaders are proposed to have an autonomy orientation because, like servant leaders, this orientation is characterized by taking initiative, acting on one's beliefs, seeking knowledge, and being open to change. If servant leaders are not autonomous, it is unlikely that they could provide the autonomous support needed for fulfilling others needs or fostering their autonomy. Servant leaders are not motivated by extrinsic rewards, but by intrinsic rewards (Greenleaf, 1977), a common element with autonomy orientation, shielding them from the lure of serving others only when it serves their interests. Autonomy orientation is characterized by self-initiating behaviors, improving the likelihood that those high in other orientation would act on their desire to serve others. Those with an autonomous orientation are capable of building healthy relationships which is the key to fulfilling the

basic needs of competence and autonomy, and the goal of serving others. An element of an autonomy orientation is the openness to learning, an important characteristic of servant leaders because they are focused on finding the best methods to develop their followers. The evidence that a person is a servant leader is when followers become autonomous and flourish, which is the product of an autonomy supported socio-context.

Ryan & Deci (2017) make it clear that their definition of autonomy is similar to those who use the term as meaning egotistic, or interested only in acting alone in their own behalf. They see autonomy as having one's own needs met, making them capable of reaching out to others to provide the type of supporting relationship that allows others to grow. It also makes them excellent team members because they are self-regulated and will behave ethically because their values are well integrated into their personality, and not just enacted when others are looking.

Other scholars in the field of prosocial behavior and prosocial motivation expected self-interest to be an element of this construct because it is assumed that self-interest guards against over-committing to others, to one's own detriment. This allegedly happens when one spends more energy and resources on others and ignores one's own needs, leading to performance failures (Grant & Mayer, 2009). Grant (2008) defines prosocial motivation as a temporary state, prompted by observing that others need help, with the goal of giving assistance. This is not to be confused with a value, such as other orientation, which is more stable and does not fluctuate over time. Prosocial motivation, with its fleeting state, is considered to be related to controlled as well as autonomy orientations, whereas other orientation seems to be more closely aligned only with autonomy, as it relates to servant leadership. It is expected that those high in other

orientation with an autonomy orientation are energized by helping others, which is intrinsically rewarding, and would be more likely to improve performance. Self-interest would be more of a detriment for a servant leader with these characteristics because it would relegate them to becoming less autonomous. Reaching the highest levels of autonomy is the pinnacle of selfless motivation, and the reason why being a servant leader is so difficult, and yet the most fulfilling. The intrinsic rewards associated with an autonomy orientation are emanated from one's values, and in the case of servant leaders, it would be the joy that comes from truly giving. Over-committing may also be averted by those with an autonomy orientation because they are learners, and through experience may have found where to draw boundaries so performance is promoted in others yet not hindered in themselves.

SDT is a theory of motivational processes and individual differences, and does not incorporate content, such as specific values, as a component of the framework. It explains how values impact individual differences in the motivational process. Other orientation is proposed to provide the content and SDT is the mechanism that explains the desire to serve others first, and what influences a servant leader to act. The purpose of this study is to add to the scholarly work on servant leadership by describing the desire to serve and helping to more clearly define the construct.

Chapter 3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

"*God will not have his work made manifest by cowards."* Ralph Waldo Emerson

The purpose of this study was to add to our understanding of the concept of servant leadership, specifically to attempt to clarify the phenomenon of "servant first," used by Greenleaf (1977, p.27) to describe the core element of servant leadership. Greenleaf states the servant leader is not someone who is motivated to lead to acquire power, but quite the opposite. Servant leadership "begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve *first* (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 6). While most of the current operational definitions of servant leadership focus on the behaviors, this study aimed to understand what motivates or leads to those behaviors in servant leaders. Some of the instruments used to operationalize servant leadership measure serving behaviors, such as calling (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006), putting subordinates first (Liden et al, 2008), service (Russell & Stone, 2002) and standing back (van Dierendonck & Nuitjen, 2011). This study was designed to assess whether other orientation (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987), a facet in the measure of work values, and operationalized with the Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES), explained the underpinnings of servant leadership behaviors.

The study first assessed whether being higher in other orientation could potentially be the value or feeling behind the behavior of servant leaders. If that were demonstrated, than the study was designed to further test whether other orientation was sufficient to motivate one to act in others' interest. Do some individuals who highly value others, stand by without assisting when they see an opportunity to help another? To answer this question, this study was designed to test whether one's causality orientation, a part of Self Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), represents the mechanism that propels a person into action.

This study was designed to assess whether an individual high in other orientation with an autonomous causality orientation is more likely to be perceived as a servant leader than those with a controlled or impersonal causality orientation. Hypotheses were tested by operationalizing variables using survey measures in organizational settings and applied statistical measures to analyze the data. Several control variables, age range and length of tenure with their supervisor, were collected due to their potential to influence the outcomes in the data. These variables are often included in studies of leadership, and tenure has been found to impact the quality of the relationship between leaders and followers (Matta, Scott, Koopman, & Conlon, 2015).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

In order to build on the previous research on servant leadership and more fully understand what compels a person to act in the interest of others before themselves, this study was designed to test the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: There will be a positive correlation between leaders' self-reported other orientation and followers' ratings of servant leadership.

Hypothesis 2: Servant leaders will score statistically higher in autonomous causality orientation than controlled causality orientation.

Hypothesis 3: Leaders' self-reported autonomous causality orientation will moderate the relationship between their self-reported other orientation and followers' ratings of servant leadership.

Hypothesis 4: Controlled causality orientation will not be correlated with servant leadership.

Hypothesis 5. Controlled causality orientation will not moderate the relationship between other orientation and servant leadership.

Hypothesis 6: There will be an interaction effect between self-reported other orientation and autonomy causality orientation with respect to follower's ratings of servant leadership, such that the effect of other orientation on servant leadership will be higher for leaders reporting an autonomous causality orientation.

Hypothesis 7: There will be no interaction effect between self-reported other orientation and controlled causality orientation with respect to follower's ratings of servant leadership.

Participants and Population Parameters

A convenience sample comprised of approximately 50 middle managers and their direct reports in 3-5 business organizations located in the Midwest region of the country was selected using probability sampling. The sample was comprised of frontline managers and three or more of their direct reports who were asked to respond to a survey via company email. The selection criteria for organizations to participate in this study was that they are a business organization based in the Midwest region of the United States and are willing to participate in the study. Organizations that were selected represented various industries, such as health care and the service sector. A contact within the organization served as a liaison for the purpose of acquiring permission to contact employees who meet the study criteria, to request their participation in the study. These organizations were chosen to capture a variety of industries in the study region.

The participants included individuals who met the following criteria: managers with supervisory capacity, along with three or more of their direct reports; and the direct

reports have worked under the supervision of the leader for a minimum of six months. Participation in the study was voluntary. The principle investigator worked with a liaison to each company to secure a letter of permission (see Appendix A) that permitted employees who meet the study criteria to be sent an email inviting their participation in the study. The contact or liaison in each participating organization worked directly with the principal investigator on the execution of the process. The liaison sent the solicitation emails, so the emails and identities of the employees would not be shared with the researchers. The liaison assigned personal identifier codes to the employees eligible to participate, under the guidance of the researchers. The responsibilities of the liaison ended after the solicitation emails are sent, ensuring that they would not know who responded to the survey and what their responses were.

Instrumentation

In order to operationalize the variables, the following measures were used.

The Servant Leadership Scale. This scale (van Dierendonck and Nuitjen, 2011 & van Dierendonck et al, 2017, see Appendix B) measures the followers' perceptions of their leader's behaviors. The short form has not been validated in an English-speaking country, so the long form was used. The direct reports rated their supervisor.

Other orientation will be measured using the concern for others subscale of the Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES, Ravlin & Meglino, 1987, see Appendix C), an instrument that measures work values using a forced options scale. The CES was chosen for this study because of its reliability in measuring values (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). Researchers studying values have found that surveys using multiple choice formats are subject to higher rates of social desirability bias, and the CES was designed to minimize

bias (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987)). Other orientation is an independent, explanatory variable. The instrument was sent to the supervisors as a self-rated measure.

General Causality Orientation Scale. This scale (Deci & Ryan, 1985, see Appendix C) will be used to measure the leaders' general orientation, either being autonomously self-directed and intrinsically motivated; or having a controlled orientation where a person is regulated by external rewards and punishments. The supervisors rated themselves on this instrument.

Data Collection

Phase I. Supervisors

Working with a designated liaison employed by each of the participating organizations, an email was sent with the message written by the co-investigators to all the supervisors with more than 3 direct reports (See Appendix D). The solicitation email explained the reason for email, the purpose of the study, how confidentiality would be managed through keeping identities anonymous, and the process and amount of time required to participate. Each supervisor was assigned a random identifier code that permitted their responses to be anonymously link to responses from their direct reports. Because participation in this study required that supervisors be matched with their direct reports to combine the data for calculating the dependent variable (servant leadership), using a code ensures these aggregate responses could be anonymously linked to supervisor ratings of the independent variables (other orientation and causality orientations) for analysis. Any data associated with a supervisor code that did not match with a rating on the dependent variable was be eliminated from analysis. The original

design of the study called for all data for supervisors which fewer than three subordinates completing the servant leadership scale to be excluded from analysis.

The solicitation email contained a link to the Informed Consent at the bottom of the email (See Appendix E). In order to move forward, the respondent had to first click the box marked "I accept." The link redirected participants to the secure Qualtrics utility that was used to administer the survey. After consenting to participate in the anonymous survey, supervisors entered the code provided in the solicitation email, then responded to both the Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES, Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004) and the General Causality Orientation Scale (GCOS, Deci & Ryan, 1985). Supervisors had two weeks to respond. Two reminder emails were sent by the company liaison, with a final thank you letter at the end of the two-week period.

Phase II. Direct Reports. Explain how data will be collected from direct reports.

An initial email from the co-investigators was sent to all direct reports meeting the study criteria stating the purpose of the study and requesting voluntary participation (See Appendix F). The emails to the supervisors and their direct reports were sent at the same time. The solicitation email included a link to the Informed Consent document in Qualtrics (see Appendix G) and a personal identifier code that permitted responses from multiple respondents to be combined to determine each supervisor's aggregate score on the dependent variable. Respondents were assured that no one in their organization will have any access to the data, did not know whether they decided to participate in the study, and would not be provided a summary of responses to the questionnaire. Data are only reported in the aggregate. Information was provided about how to contact the co-investigators to obtain a copy of the final report.

Participants who clicked their consent to participate in the research were prompted to enter the code provided in the solicitation email so their responses could be anonymously combined with others for analysis. The direct report employees who consented to participate (see Informed Consent procedures below) were presented with the Servant Leadership Survey (SLS, van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011) which assessed their perceptions of the behaviors of their supervisor.

Individuals who declined to consent were thanked for their consideration and exited from the survey. No IP tracers were employed that could be used to trace survey responses link responses to individual respondents or their email address. The identifier code assigned to each respondent served only to combine responses of participants reporting to the same supervisor for data analysis. The researchers did not have the email addresses of participants, nor have any personal identifying information. The key for the personal identifier codes was assigned and known only by the company liaison, who did not have access to any of the responses or data, nor will they know who responded to the survey. The key was destroyed immediately upon completion of data collection. Neither the names nor email addresses of employees receiving the solicitation email was shared with the researchers.

The anonymous data files containing coded responses were downloaded from Qualtrics upon completion of the responses period. The data files were stored in a secure location using the app Dropbox. Only the co-investigators will have access to the data. Responses to the survey were be encrypted during transmission. Prior to analysis, all responses from direct reports that did not meet the study criteria of being: a) complete

and b) grouped by code with at responses from at least two other direct reports were destroyed. Responses that meet the criteria were saved in the app Dropbox.

Procedures to Protect Human Subjects:

When the respondents click the link to the survey in the solicitation email (Appendices D & F), they were taken to a secure site administering the measures. An Informed Consent disclosures was presented initially, requiring the participant to agree to the terms stated prior to being presented with the survey (See Appendices E & G). The informed consent outlined how anonymity of individual respondents would be assured in the collection of data and institutional confidentiality maintained in reporting results. Willing participants were required to click on the "accept" box before proceeding to the survey. This invited participants to respond and provided a clear and complete explanation of the precautions and assurances protecting the rights of individuals who choose to participate in this study. All procedures and disclosures were approved by the Institutional Review Board prior to initiating this study.

Data Analysis

A correlation analysis was conducted on all variables: other orientation, general causality orientations, servant leadership,. The descriptive statistics were calculating and reported in a chart. If there had been any significant relationships between the independent variable, other orientation, and the moderator variable, causality orientation; between the moderator and the dependent variable, servant leadership; and between the independent and the dependent variables, then regression analysis would have been conducted to test the corresponding hypotheses.

The regression analysis would have tested whether the relationship between the independent and dependent variables changes when the moderating and control variables are factored into the equation (Baron & Kenny, 1989). This is also called an interaction effect, or the combined effect of the independent variable or predictor, and the moderating independent variable (Field, 2013). This study hypothesizes the moderating effect of causality orientation is being tested because it is hypothesized to change the relationship between other orientation and servant leadership.

Data Integrity Measures

The data collected from the surveys using Qualtrics was stored in a password secured account in the app, Dropbox, as recommended by the Institutional Review Board at Xavier University. The only people who had access to the file were the co-investigators. The results are reported only in the aggregate to protect both individual and organizational participants and are reported clearly to avoid misinterpretations and claims made beyond those allowed for by the data. Every aspect of this study was designed to maximize the validity and reliability of results of this study. The sample was a convenience sample from private and publicly held for-profit and non-profit organizations in the Midwest, which imposed some methodological limitations on the data collected and the validity and generalizability of results reported, including effects on response rates. The sample represents multiple industries, which could have enhanced generalizability. Results were interpreted with respect to implications for servant leadership theory (van Dierendonck, 2011 and Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck & Liden, 2018). and the debate over its relationship to other orientation and causality orientation (Gagne, 2003 & Grant, 2009).

Precautions were taken to ensure the integrity of the data and the Qualtrics website both during data collection and analysis. The survey was optimized to read on the screen whether it is a computer or accessed on their cell phone, and was optimized to make answering agile and easy. A codebook was written to the list the variables and how responses will be coded both on data sheets and in Qualtrics. Each variable, including the control variables, was given a name, a short definition and numbers assigned to each response option.

Prior to analysis, the data was reviewed and cleaned for errors, such as removing incomplete and respondents' scores that either showed no item variation or were not matched to a corresponding supervisor or subordinate participant code. Data was not shared with the organizational liaison designated to facilitate dissemination of the solicitation letters in each participating organization. Signed letters of permission were obtained from the company's senior executive prior to setting up the data collection procedures.

Chapter 4. DATA ANALYSIS

"As each one has received a gift, use it to serve one another as good stewards of God's varied grace." 1 Peter 4:10

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to test hypotheses related to a proposed extension of van Dierendonck and Nuitjen (2011) theory of servant leadership, specifically, the addition of the antecedents other orientation (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004) and autonomous orientation (Deci & Ryan, 1989), as possible operational definitions of the natural feeling to serve others first described by Greenleaf (1977).

Summary of Participants

Data were collected for this study from front line supervisors and their directly reporting employees working in four organizations in the Midwest region of the United States, including one for-profit company in the professional and business services industry, and two non-profit companies in the health care industry, and one in the educational sector. Table 5 lists the total number of eligible employees in each organization, the number who responded and the number of supervisor-direct report pairs that were matched in each category.

Table 5
Supervisor and Employees Response Rates by Participating Organization

	Population N		Supervisors n		Employees n		Matched Pairs
Org.	Supervisors	Employees	Responded	Matched	Responded	Matched	Analyzed
1	22	108	30	22	187	108	22
2	6	51	6	6	118	51	6
3	11	26	16	11	67	26	11
4	8	19	8	8	60	19	8
TOTAL	47	204	60	47	432	204	47

Data Collection. The study was based on a convenience sample from organizations willing to partner with and assign an internal liaison to send the surveys to

employees who met the study criteria. The liaison in each organization devised a unique set of personal codes to match anonymous responses from supervisors with their directly reporting employees (from now on referred to as "employees"). Responses to the anonymous surveys completed by supervisors and employees were matched for analysis using the unique personal codes assigned by company liaisons. Solicitation email messages containing personal codes and a link to the Qualtrics survey site were sent to eligible supervisors and employees by the company liaison. Surveys were administered between July 2019 and January 2020. A survey reminder was sent after one week and the survey was open for responses for three weeks. Employees were asked several demogr*aphic questions because of their potential to skew responses to the surveys. Those who were under the age of 18, who had worked for their current supervisor less than three months, or had worked for the company less than three months were excused from the survey. A short tenure with the company or supervisor could create a halo effect or not provide enough time to observe their supervisor's leadership behavior assessed by the survey.

Of the 1479 eligible direct report employees who were invited to participate, 428 responded. After being cleaned for missing or irregular data (such as inserting a personal code that did not fit the pattern), 312 valid employee responses remained, but only 204 of these were matched with responding supervisors, for an overall employee response rate of 14%.

A total of 115 eligible supervisors received the survey invitation. Of those, 60 responded and 47 were matched with at least one responding employees, for a matched response rate of 41%. This number was just under the minimum target of 50 matched

supervisor pairs established for the study. While the original research design called for excluding from analysis any supervisor with fewer than 3 responses from direct report employees, due to the low overall response rate, only 29 supervisors met this criteria. Therefore all supervisors with at least one responding employee were included in analysis.

Scoring survey responses. The supervisors rated themselves on their work values using the Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES, Ravlin & Meglino, 1987), a 24-item, forced choice instrument. The CES measures four common work values: honesty, concern for others/other orientation, achievement and fairness. Each of the values appears 12 times, with a possible score on each value between zero and 12. The supervisors were scored only for the number of times they chose the value concern for others/other orientation. When only the concern for others scale is scored, it is referred to as other orientation. Other orientation is defined as "the dispositional tendency to be concerned with and helpful to other persons" (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004, p.948). This value or disposition affects the way a person processes information in interpersonal situations by causing one to focus on the concerns of others (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004), perhaps to the detriment of themselves. Other orientation is significantly related to empathy (McNeely & Meglino, 1994).). Other orientation was hypothesized as a potential operational definition of the what Greenleaf (1977) called the desire to serve others first. Greenleaf stated that this desire is trait-like in that it is consistent over time and other orientation is considered to be a stable disposition.

Supervisors also rated themselves on the General Causality Orientations Scale (GCOS, Deci & Ryan, 1989), a measure of one's orientation to causality, or the degree to

which they are self-directed. Those who are more self-directed, or have an autonomous causality orientation, are motivated to act on their own personal values as opposed to adopting or conforming to the values espoused by those around them. The GCOS presents 12 scenarios with three different possible reactions. Respondents are asked to rate on a Likert scale from 1 – 7 the likelihood that they would respond to the situation in the manner described in each scenario. Each of the three possible reactions to each scenario represents one of the three causality orientations, autonomous, controlled or impersonal. The respondent gets a score on each of the orientations on each item or scenario, potentially scoring between 12-84 on each causality orientation. The orientation with the highest of the three scores is considered one's causality orientation. Generally, it is recommended to drop any respondents that score highest in impersonal orientation because it has been significantly related to low self-esteem, social anxiety, powerless alienation, depression, and amotivation (Ryan & Deci, 2017), and individuals with these characteristics generally have the least effective performances.

The supervisors' scores on the GCOS for autonomy ranged from 48-81, with an overall range of 33; and scored from 19-70 on control, for a range of 51. All but one supervisor scored higher on autonomy than controlled orientation. The mean score for autonomy was 67.57 with a standard deviation of 6.675, n = 47. Scores tended to be skewed negatively, reflecting a disproportionate number of high scores in autonomy. The mean for the supervisors' scores in controlled orientation was 43.94, with a standard deviation of 9.97, n= 47. The scores ranged from 19-70, with an overall range of 51. The descriptive statistics for the supervisors' scores are listed in Table 6.

Table 6. Descriptive Statistics

	N	Range	Mean	Std Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Autonomy	47	33	67.57	6.67	-.348	.611
Control	47	51	43.94	9.97	.024	.442
Hi Autonomy	46	33	67.54	6.74	-.331	.535
Hi Control	1	0	70.00	[a]	[a]	[a]
CES/Other Orientation	47	8	5.43	1.75	.268	-.048
SLS	47	2.62	4.45	.60	-.152	-.026

[a] values could not be calculated because n = 1

For purposes of hypothesis testing, supervisors were divided into Hi Autonomy and Hi Control categories, consistent with the instructions for scoring the GCOS. Descriptive statistics for these subpopulations of supervisors are also presented in Table 6: The majority of responding supervisors scored higher in autonomy that controlled causality orientation (mean = 67.54, n.s., n = 46), with only one supervisor scoring higher in control causality oorientation (score = 70, n = 1).

Direct report employees responded to a survey rating their supervisor's servant leadership behaviors using the Servant Leadership Survey (SLS, van Dierendonck and Nuitjen, 2011). This instrument has 30 items with eight factors (Empowerment, Accountability, Standing back, Humility, Authenticity, Courage, Forgiveness, and Stewardship), which for purposes of this study were not separately scored. Only the overall SLS score was analyzed in this study; factor scores were not computed. Individual employee ratings of supervisors were not analyzed; only group mean scores for all employees reporting to the same supervisor were calculated, (mean = 4.45, SD .60, n = 47). The descriptive statistics for all survey metrics are presented in Table 6.

Data Analysis

Using SPSS software, Pearson correlation analysis was employed to assess the strength of the relationships between the independent variables, other orientation and causality orientation, and the dependent variable, servant leadership. Results of the correlation analysis are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. Pearson Correlation Coefficients

Variable	n	*df*	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5
CES/Other Orientation	47	45	5.43	1.75					
Autonomy	47	45	67.57	6.67	.183				
Hi Autonomy	46	44	67.54	6.74	.180	1.0			
Control	47	45	43.94	9.97	.174	.238	.245		
Hi Control	1	456	456	456	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]	[a]
SLS	47	45	4.45	.60	.163	.205	.203	[a]	.007

[a] insufficient data n = 1

No significant relationships were found between any of the variables. The correlation between other orientation and servant leadership was not significant, (r (45) = .163, n.s. The correlation between Hi Autonomy and servant leadership was not significant, r (44) = .203, n.s. The correlation between Hi Control and servant leadership could not be tested because the sample size was n = 1. Because no significant relationships were found between the variables, no further statistical analyses were warranted.

Chapter 5. CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

"Ask and it will be given to you; seek and you will find; knock and the door will be opened to you. For everyone who ask, receives; and the one who seeks, finds; and to the one who knocks, the door will be opened." Matthew 7: 7-8

Introduction

This chapter will interpret results of the data analysis in relation to the stated research question and each of the hypotheses tested. Implications and limitations of the findings will be discussed, followed by recommendations for future research.

Interpretation of Research Questions

One research question guided this study:

RQ1. Does dispositional other orientation predict servant leadership and is this correlational relationship moderated by an autonomous causal orientation toward motivation?

Six hypotheses were tested to evaluate this research question:

H1: There will be a positive correlation between leaders' self-reported other orientation and followers' ratings of servant leadership. A Pearson's correlation between servant leadership (SLS), and CES/other orientation was not significant, r (45) = .163, n.s. Hypothesis 1 was rejected.

H 2: Servant leaders will score statistically higher in autonomous causality orientation than controlled causality orientation. Only one participant scored high in controlled causality orientation so this hypothesis could not be tested.

H3: Leaders self-reported autonomy causality orientation will moderate the relationship between their self-reported other orientation and followers' ratings of servant

leadership. No significant relationship was found between servant leadership and either other orientation (H1 reported above) or autonomy causality orientation, r (44) = .203, n.s. Therefore H3 could not be tested.

H4: Controlled causality orientation will not be correlated with servant leadership. This hypothesis could not be tested for the lack of sufficient numbers of participants who scored high in controlled causality orientation (n = 1).

H5: Controlled causality orientation will not moderate the relationship between other orientation and servant leadership. This hypothesis could not be tested because no significant relationship was found between servant leadership and self-reported other orientation and only one participant scored high in controlled causality orientation.

H6: There will be an interaction effect between self-reported other orientation and autonomous causality orientation with respect to followers' ratings of servant leadership, such that the effect of other orientation on servant leadership will be higher for leaders reporting an autonomous causality orientation. This hypothesis could not be tested because no significant relationship was found between self-reported other orientation and servant leadership.

H7: There will be no interaction effect between self-reported other orientation and controlled causality orientation with respect to followers' ratings of servant leadership. This hypothesis could not be tested for lack of sufficient numbers of participants who scored high in controlled causality orientation (n = 1).

Overall, results of data analysis supported the rejection of the positive relationship hypothesized in Hypothesis 1. None of the other hypotheses could be tested because of the rejection of this fundamental hypothesis and lack of sufficient numbers of participants

scoring high in controlled causality orientation.

Analysis of the data collected from the four organizations did not support the hypothesis that individuals who scored high in other orientation would be more likely to be perceived as a servant leader. Other orientation was found to be not significantly related to servant leadership.

Implications & Discussion

The central question driving this study is whether highly valuing other people predicts being perceived as a servant leader. The purpose of this study was to test whether other orientation (Meglino & Korsgaard, 2004) (a work value) explains the desire to serve others presumed to be central to servant leadership, and whether having an autonomous causality orientation (i.e. being self-directed) increases the likelihood that one is perceived as a servant leader.

This study tested the relationships between these variables using a convenience sample of 47 supervisors and their followers from four organizations based in the upper Midwest region of the United States. The supervisors self-rated their work value orientation (Meglino and Korsgaard, 2004) and their level of self-direction (Deci and Ryan, 1985), while their subordinate employees rated these supervisors on their servant leadership behaviors (van Dierendonck and Nuitjen, 2011). The statistical analysis found no significant relationships between other orientation and servant leadership, therefore the null hypotheses of no relationship was accepted. Similarly no significant relationship was found between autonomous causality orientation and servant leadership, and insufficient data were collected to assess the correlation between controlled causality orientation and servant leadership. Therefore, no further hypothesis testing was supported

by the data.

Although these findings were not expected, they are consistent with previous efforts to operationalize the antecedent 'desire to serve' theorized to undergird servant leadership. These results may be useful for future research, by directing researchers to other possible operational definitions of the construct, or bolstering arguments about whether this construct is integral to servant leadership.

Limitations

One limitation of this study was the small sample size. However, the participating organizations varied by industry, with one being for profit and the other three non-profit, providing sufficient variability in the sample of participants. Another limitation is that, while the original study design called for averaging the servant leadership ratings of all employees reporting to each responding supervisor, due to low response rates, only 29 (63%) of the 47 responding supervisors met the criteria of having three responding direct reports. Therefore a design revision was made to include in the analysis all responding supervisors who had at least one responding direct report. Thus more than one third (38%) of SLS scores reflected the ratings of only one subordinate. Since average ratings are generally presumed to reflect greater accuracy in evaluating leadership behavior, this design revision negatively affected the internal validity of the study and reliability of results.

After adjusting the study design for low response rate, the overall average and standard deviation for employees' ratings of supervisors' servant leadership behaviors (SLS), were 4.45, S.D. = .60, which are both similar to SLS metrics reported in other studies (4.16, SD = .99 in Sousa & van Dierendonck 2014; 4.59, SD = 58 in Sousa & van

Dierendonck 2017; and 3.60, SD = 0.63 in Burton, Peachey & Wells, 2017). There is no reason to believe the sample in this study was not representative of the population on servant leadership, or that participants were biased in their responding.

The mean and standard deviation for the predictor variable, other orientation, were lower in this study (5.43, S.D. = 1.75) than reported in other studies (6.71, SD = 2.16 in Korsgaard, Meglino and Lester, 2004; 7.06, SD = 2.55 in McNeely and Meglino, 1994; 6.10, SD = 2.40 in Meglino, Ravlin and Adkins, 1992). This could have in part accounted for the finding of no significant correlation between other orientation and servant leadership, and the rejection of Hypothesis 1. Instructions provided to participants for each of the assessment instruments were adopted without modification from the validated tools.

The recruitment strategies employed by the principle investigator could have created some bias in the selection of participating organizations. Although over 20 organizations were recruited and many of those expressed an interest in participating, only four organizations ultimately agreed to partner with the PI. The reasons for declining ranged from being in the midst of an organizational change effort, or concern about opening themselves to repeated requests for partnering on research projects that would impede their business processes. One company CEO called months later to report they were in the middle of selling the company and could not have this project going on during the sale process. The result was a group of organizations that may share some similar mindsets or values that make them more alike than would be found in the general population. However, because of the amount of investment required to participate (allocating a liaison to facilitate data collection), this would have been more likely to

create a bias toward finding the hypothesized relationships than refuting them.

Future Directions

Results of this study only permitted testing one of the stated hypotheses related to the research question. That hypothesis was rejected on the basis of the study's findings. The fact that the foundational relationship between other orientation and servant leadership was found to not be significant is nevertheless important. It suggests researchers may want to redirect their efforts to operationalize "the desire to serve first" to other variables. Departures from the standard research practice of averaging at least three subordinates' ratings of supervisors' of servant leadership, as well as discrepancies observed in supervisor's self-ratings of other orientation in this study compared to other reported findings, raise questions about the generalizability of study results. Any replication of this study recruiting a larger sample would need to address these design limitations.

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Appendixes

Appendix A - Letter of permission from the organizations

Appendix B – Servant Leadership Scale (subordinates)

Appendix C – Comparative Emphasis Scale & General Causality Orientation Instrument (supervisors)

Appendix D - Solicitation Email for Managers

Appendix E – Managers Informed Consent

Appendix F – Solicitation Email for Direct Reports

Appendix G – Direct Reports Informed consent

Appendix A

Letter of Permission from Organizations

My name is Mary Beth Bamber. I am a doctoral student in Leadership Studies at Xavier University, conducting my dissertation in collaboration with Dr. Gail F. Latta, Associate Professor and Director of the Leadership Studies Doctoral Program. Our study focuses on understanding how managers' motivations influence subordinates' perceptions of them as leaders. We will be collecting data in multiple organizations and are seeking permission to disseminate anonymous surveys to select personnel in your company.

If permission is granted, we will work with a designated representative in your organization to disseminate an invitation to voluntarily participate in this study to eligible employees via email. The message will be disseminated by your company representative so we will not be asking you to share names or contact information of your employees. Employees who choose to participate may respond to the survey anonymously. Survey responses will be collected using a secure survey administration utility, Qualtrics. Only the co-investigators will have access to the survey response. No personally identifying data will be collected. Responses will be coded to allow data from managers and subordinates to be collated for analysis.

Each employee contacted will be provided with a detailed Informed Consent disclosure prior to responding to the survey and will make his or her own independent decision whether to participant in the study. Neither the survey responses, nor employees' decisions whether to participate in this study, will be disclosed to company representatives.

The data collected in your organization will be combined with data from other organizations for analysis, and results will only be reported in the aggregate. Institutional confidentiality will be maintained throughout the study, and the identity of companies that agree to permit data collection in their organizations will not be disclosed in presenting study results.

If you agree to permit data collection for this study in your organization, the co-investigators will work with your designated company representative to identify an acceptable window of time to disseminate the survey sometime between February-April 2019. Instructions will be provided for creating the participant codes needed to collate managers' and subordinates' responses. If requested, the Informed Consent and survey instruments may be reviewed by a company representative prior to dissemination.

Results of this study will be reported in a dissertation to be submitted for approval by a three-member faculty committee. After approval, the dissertation will be publicly available through the Xavier University library. Results may also be reported by the co-investigators at professional conferences and publications. The identity of participating institutions will not be disclosed in any presentation or publication of study results.

Questions about this invitation, and requests for additional information about the study, may be directed to the co-investigators at:

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Appendix B

1. My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

2. My manager encourages me to use my talents.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

3. My manager helps me to further develop myself.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

4. My manager encourages his/her staff to come up with new ideas.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

5. My manager keeps himself/herself in the background and gives credits to others.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

6. My manager holds me responsible for the work I carry out.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

7. My manager keeps criticizing people for the mistakes they have made in their work.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

8. My manager takes risks even when he/she is not certain of the support from his/her own manager.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

9. My manager is open about his/her limitations and weaknesses.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

10. My manager learns from criticism.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

11. My manager emphasizes the importance of focusing on the good of the whole.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

12. My manager gives me the authority to make decisions which make work easier for me.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

13. My manager is not chasing recognition or rewards for the things he/she does for others.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

14. I am held accountable for my performance by my manager.

1	2	3	4	5	6

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

15. My manager maintains a hard attitude towards people who have offended him/her at work.

1 2 3 4 5 6
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

16. My manager takes risks and does what needs to be done in his/her view.

1 2 3 4 5 6
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

17. My manager is often touched by the things he/she sees happening around him/her.

1 2 3 4 5 6
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

18. My manager tries to learn from the criticism he/she gets from his/her superior.

1 2 3 4 5 6
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

19. My manager has a long-term vision.

1 2 3 4 5 6
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

20. My manager enables me to solve problems myself instead of just telling me what to do.

1 2 3 4 5 6
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

21. My manager appears to enjoy his/her colleagues' success more than his/her own.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

22. My manager holds me and my colleagues responsible for the way we handle a job.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

23. My manager finds it difficult to forget things that went wrong in the past.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

24. My manager is prepared to express his/her feelings even if this might have undesirable consequences.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

25. My manager admits his/her mistakes to his/her superior.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

26. My manager emphasizes the societal responsibility of our work.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

27. My manager offers me abundant opportunities to learn new skills.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

28. My manager shows his/her true feelings to his/her staff.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

29. My manager learns from the different views and opinions of others.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

30. If people express criticism, my manager tries to learn from it.

1	2	3	4	5	6
very unlikely			moderately likely		very likely

Demographic Questions:

1. Please mark the box next to the age range that best fits you:

_18 - 25 _25 - 30 _31 – 40 _41 – 50 _51 – 60 _61 -70 _71 – 80

2. How long have you worked for your current supervisor?

_0 – 6 months _7 months – 1 year _1 – 2 years _2 – 4 years _4 – 6 years _over 6 years

3. How long have you worked for this company?

_0 – 6 months _7 months – 1 year _1 – 2 years _2 – 4 years _4 – 6 years _over 6 years

4. What is your gender identity?

____ male _____ female _____ neither/other _____ prefer not to answer

Appendix C

Part I

INSTRUCTIONS: Sometimes people must choose between two things they feel they should do. In these choice situations they must place more emphasis on one activity over another. Below are pairs of statements which describe activities which people feel they should do. Read each statement carefully, and then place a check next to the statement which you feel you should emphasize more in your behavior at work.

Example:

___ Always being in control of your emotions while under stress

___ Looking forward to the future with a positive outlook

Both of the above statements represent activities many people feel are important and should be done. Imagine you're in a situation in which you can only do one of them. Your task is to select the one statement of the pair that you feel should be emphasized in your behavior, or what you think that you would do.

Please read the following 24 pairs of statements and indicate which one in each pair you feel should receive more emphasis. Some choices will probably be difficult for you, but please do the best you can. Do not leave any questions blank.

1. __ Taking care of all loose ends on a job or project
   __ Being impartial in dealing with others

2. __ Taking actions which represent your true feelings
   __ Trying to avoid hurting other people

3. __ Encouraging someone who is having a difficult day
   __ Considering different points of view before taking action

4. __ Speaking your mind even when your views may not be popular
   __ Working to meet job requirements even when your personal schedule must be rearranged
5. __ Making decisions which are fair to all concerned
   __ Expressing your true opinions when asked

6. __ Continuing to work on a problem until it is resolved
   __ Trying to help a fellow worker through a difficult time

7. __ Trying to help reduce a friend's burden
   __ Admitting an error and accepting the consequences

8. __ Being impartial in judging disagreements
__ Helping others on difficult jobs

9. __ Taking on additional tasks to get ahead
__ Admitting to making a mistake rather than covering it up

10. __ Offering help to others when they are having a tough time
__ Doing whatever work is required to advance in your career

11. __ Always being truthful in dealing with others
__ Giving everyone an equal opportunity at work

12. __ Judging people fairly based on their abilities rather than only on their personalities
__ Seeking out all opportunities to learn new skills

13. __ Trying to be helpful to a friend at work
__ Being sure that work assignments are fair to everyone

14. __ Refusing to take credit for ideas of others
__ Maintaining the highest standard for your performance

15. __ Being determined to be the best at your work
__ Trying not to hurt a friend's feelings

16. __ Trying to bring about a fair solution to a dispute
__ Admitting responsibility for errors made

17. __ Finishing each job you start even when others do not
__ Making sure that rewards are given in the fairest possible way

18. __ Refusing to tell a lie to make yourself look good
__ Helping those who are worried about things at work

19. __ Trying as hard as you can to learn as much as possible about your job
__ Taking a stand for what you believe in

20. __ Sharing information and ideas which others need to do their job
__ Always setting high performance goals for yourself

21. __ Refusing to do something you think is wrong
__ Providing fair treatment for all employees

22. __ Allowing each employee to have an equal chance to get rewards
__ Taking on more responsibility to get ahead in an organization

23. __ Correcting others' errors without embarrassing them
__ Holding true to your convictions

24. __ Providing fair treatment for each employee
__ Lending a helping hand to someone having difficulty

Part II

These following items pertain to a series of hypothetical scenarios. Each scenario describes an incident and lists three ways of responding to it. Please read each scenario, imagine yourself in that situation, and then consider each of the possible responses. Think of each response option in terms of how likely it is that you would respond that way. (We all respond in a variety of ways to situations, and probably most or all responses are at least slightly likely for you.) If it is very unlikely that you would respond the way described in a given response, you should circle answer 1 or 2. If it is moderately likely, you would select a number in the mid-range, and if it is very likely that you would respond as described, you would circle answer 6 or 7.

1. You have been offered a new position in a company where you have worked for some time. The first question that is likely to come to mind is:

a) What if I can't live up to the new responsibility?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

b) Will I make more at this position?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

c) I wonder if the new work will be interesting.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

2. You have a school-aged daughter. On parents' night the teacher tells you that your daughter is doing poorly and doesn't seem involved in the work. You are likely to:

a) Talk it over with your daughter to understand further what the problem is.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

b) Scold her and hope she does better.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

c) Make sure she does the assignments, because she should be working harder.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

3. You had a job interview several weeks ago. In the mail you received a form letter which states that the position has been filled. It is likely that you might think:

a) It's not what you know, but who you know.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

b) I'm probably not good enough for the job.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

c) Somehow they didn't see my qualifications as matching their needs.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

4. You are a plant supervisor and have been charged with the task of allotting coffee breaks to three workers who cannot all break at once. You would likely handle this by:

a) Telling the three workers the situation and having them work with you on the schedule.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

b) Simply assigning times that each can break to avoid any problems.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

c) Find out from someone in authority what to do or do what was done in the past.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

5. A close friend of yours has been moody lately, and a couple of times has become very angry with you over "nothing." You might:

a) Share your observations with him/her and try to find out what is going on for him/her.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

b) Ignore it because there's not much you can do about it anyway.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

c) Tell him/her that you're willing to spend time together if and only if he/she makes more effort to control him/herself.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

6. You have just received the results of a test you took, and you discovered that you did very poorly. Your initial reaction is likely to be:

a) "I can't do anything right," and feel sad.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

b) "I wonder how it is I did so poorly," and feel disappointed.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

c) "That stupid test doesn't show anything," and feel angry.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

7. You have been invited to a large party where you know very few people. As you look forward to the evening, you would likely expect that:

a) You'll try to fit in with whatever is happening in order to have a good time and not look bad.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

b) You'll find some people with whom you can relate.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

c) You'll probably feel somewhat isolated and unnoticed.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

8. You are asked to plan a picnic for yourself and your fellow employees. Your style for approaching this project could most likely be characterized as:

a) Take charge: that is, you would make most of the major decisions yourself.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

b) Follow precedent: you're not really up to the task so you'd do it the way it's been done before.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

c) Seek participation: get inputs from others who want to make them before you make the final plans.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

9. Recently a position opened up at your place of work that could have meant a promotion for you. However, a person you work with was offered the job rather than you. In evaluating the situation, you're likely to think:

a) You didn't really expect the job; you frequently get passed over.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

b) The other person probably "did the right things" politically to get the job.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

c) You would probably take a look at factors in your own performance that led you to be passed over.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

10. You are embarking on a new career. The most important consideration is likely to be:

a) Whether you can do the work without getting in over your head.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

b) How interested you are in that kind of work.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

c) Whether there are any good possibilities for advancement.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

11. A woman who works for you has generally done an adequate job. However, for the past two weeks her work has not been up to par and she appears to be less actively interested in her work. Your reaction is likely to be:

a) Tell her that her work is below what is expected and that she should start working harder.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

b) Ask her about the problem and let her know you are available to help work it out.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
very unlikely moderately likely very likely

c) It’s hard to know what to do to get her straightened out.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

12. Your company has promoted you to position in a city far from your present location. As you think about the move you would probably:

a) Feel interested in the new challenge and a little nervous at the same time.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

b) Feel excited about the higher status and salary that is involved.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

c) Feel stressed and anxious about the upcoming changes.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

very unlikely moderately likely very likely

Demographic Questions:

5. Please mark the box next to the age range that best fits you:

_18 - 25 _25 - 30 _31 – 40 _41 – 50 _51 – 60 _61 -70 _71 – 80

6. How long have you worked for your current supervisor?

_0 – 6 months _7 months – 1 year _1 – 2 years _2 – 4 years _4 – 6 years _over 6 years

7. How long have you worked for this company?

_0 – 6 months _7 months – 1 year _1 – 2 years _2 – 4 years _4 – 6 years _over 6 years

Appendix D

Solicitation Email for Managers

Supervisors Invitation email for Survey - Template

Subject: Dissertation research study of the factors that influence leaders

Dear Prospective Participant,

My name is Mary Beth Bamber. I am conducting my dissertation research in collaboration with my dissertation advisor, Dr. Gail F. Latta, Ph.D., Associate Professor and Director of the Leadership Studies Doctoral Program at Xavier University in Cincinnati, Ohio. You are being invited to participate in this research study of the factors that influence leaders' behaviors because you are a supervisor with three or more direct reports. The anonymous survey will take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. Participation is completely voluntary and your answers will be anonymous.

If you are willing to participate in this research study, you will be asked to enter the following institutional code prior to completing the survey___#__. This code will permit your anonymous responses to be combined with others from your and other organizations for analysis. Your participation will add valuable data to our study. Please make note of the code provided before clicking on the link below to learn more about the study by reading the full Informed Consent document. You will be able to print a copy of the informed consent for your record. This link will be accessible for two weeks to allow time for you to complete the survey.

If you have any questions at any time during the study, you may contact the coinvestigators: Mary Beth Bamber, at bamberm@xavier.edu or Dr. Gail F. Latta at lattag@xavier.edu, (513) 745-2986.

Sincerely,

Mary Beth Bamber
Doctoral Candidate
Leadership Studies Doctoral Program
Xavier University

bamberm@xavier.edu

Dr. Gail F. Latta, Ph.D.
Program Director & Associate Professor
Leadership Studies Doctoral Program
Xavier University
(513) 745-2986
lattag@xavier.edu

Appendix E – Manager Informed Consent

Informed Consent Form

My name is Mary Beth Bamber. I am conducting my dissertation research under the supervision of Dr. Gail F. Latta, PhD., Associate Professor and Director of the Leadership Studies Doctoral Program at Xavier University. As part of this study, we are contacting you to invite you to voluntarily participate in an anonymous survey. The purpose of our research is to assess factors that influence the perceptions of managers' leadership behaviors. You are being invited to participate in this study because you are an employee in one of several participating organizations, and you supervise at least 3 direct reports. If you choose to participate, you will be asked to respond to an online survey that should take approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. Your responses will be anonymous, so there will be no way for the researchers to link your responses with your identity. There are no known risks to participating in this study, nor are there any direct benefits to you.

If you are interested in learning more about this study, please continue to read below.

Nature and Purpose of the Project
The purpose of this study is to examine factors that may predict subordinates' perceptions of their managers' leadership behavior. This study will help organizations appoint managers who possess attributes known to contribute to being an effective leader.

Why You Were Invited to Take Part
As a manager in an organization who supervises at least 3 direct reports, your perspective is relevant to this study. Your participation will be completely voluntary and your responses will be entirely anonymous. Whether or not you participate will have no effect on your future relationship with your employer because they will not know if you chose to participate and will have no access to any of the data. Responses will be entered into a secure, offsite server and assessable only by the independent researchers. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty or explanation. To withdraw, simply close this browser window. Incomplete responses will be deleted prior to data analysis and will not be included in study results.

Study Requirements
If you choose to participate, you will be asked to answer a series of survey questions using scale. The entire survey should take no more than 15-20 minutes to complete. The survey will ask limited demographic information, which will not permit your identity to be known or your responses traced to you. Survey responses will be collected using a secure survey administration utility, Qualtrics. Only the co-investigators will have access to the survey response. No personally identifying data will be collected. Responses will be coded to allow data be collated for analysis.

Anticipated discomforts/risks

There are no known risks or anticipated discomforts related to your participation in the study.

Benefits
There are no benefits to participation other than knowing that you have contributed to our knowledge and understanding of organizational leaders.

Confidentiality/Anonymity
If you choose to respond to the online survey, your responses will be entirely anonymous. The researchers will not be given your email or IP addresses, so we will have no way to associate your responses with your identity. The responses or data will be associated with a random code not assigned by the researchers. No one with access to the data will have a key that would permit codes to be traced to individual participants. The data will be stored in a secure passworded location accessible only by the co-investigators. As prescribed by international standards, data will be stored in a secure location for three years following analysis and then destroyed. The analyzed results of this study will be reported only in the aggregate, and presented in a dissertation to be made available through the Xavier University library and submitted for presentation or publication to professional audiences.

Compensation
There will be no compensation for your participation in this study.

If you have any questions at any time during the study, you may contact the co-investigators, Mary Beth Bamber, bamberm@xavier.edu and Dr. Gail F. Latta, lattag@xavier.edu, (513) 745-2986. Questions about your rights as a research subject should be directed to Xavier University's Institutional Review Board at (513) 745-2870.

You may print a copy of this form for your records before advancing to the next screen.

****

I have been given information about this research study and its risks and benefits and have had the opportunity to contact the researcher with any questions, and have those questions answered to my satisfaction. By completing the elements of the study as previously described to me, I understand that I am giving my informed consent to participate in this research study.

By checking the agreement box below, you are giving your consent for your data to be used in this research study.

___ I agree to participate in this research study and consent to my data being used as part of the research.

Appendix F

Solicitation Email Direct Reports

Direct Reports' Invitation email for Survey

Subject: Dissertation research study of perceptions of leader behaviors

Dear Prospective Participant,

My name is Mary Beth Bamber. I am conducting my dissertation research in collaboration with my dissertation advisor, Dr. Gail F. Latta, Ph.D., Associate Professor and Director of the Leadership Studies Doctoral Program at Xavier University in Cincinnati, Ohio. You are being invited to participate in this research study of the factors that influence how employees perceive their leader's behavior because your supervisor has three or more employees reporting directly to them. The anonymous survey will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. Participation is completely voluntary and your answers will be anonymous.

If you are willing to participate in this research study, you will be asked to enter the following institutional code prior to completing the survey___#__. This code will permit your anonymous responses to be combined with others from your organization for analysis. Your participation will add valuable data to our study. Please make note of the code provided before clicking on the link below to learn more about the study by reading the full Informed Consent document. You will be able to print a copy of the informed consent for your record. This link will be accessible for two weeks to allow time for you to complete the survey.

If you have any questions at any time during the study, you may contact the coinvestigators: Mary Beth Bamber, at bamberm@xavier.edu or Dr. Gail F. Latta at lattag@xavier.edu, (513) 745-2986.

Sincerely,

Mary Beth Bamber
Doctoral Candidate
Leadership Studies Doctoral Program
Xavier University
Phone
Email

Dr. Gail F. Latta, Ph.D.
Program Director & Associate Professor
Leadership Studies Doctoral Program
Xavier University
(513) 745-2986 or (513) 718-7166
lattag@xavier.edu

Appendix G – Direct Reports Informed Consent

Informed Consent Form

My name is Mary Beth Bamber. I am a doctoral candidate conducting my dissertation research in collaboration with Dr. Gail F. Latta, PhD., Associate Professor and Director of the Leadership Studies Doctoral Program at Xavier University. We are contacting you to invite your voluntarily participation in an anonymous survey. The purpose of our research is to assess factors that influence perceptions of managers' leadership behaviors. You are being invited to participate in this study because you are an employee in one of several participating organizations, and you report to a supervisor who has at least 3 direct reports. If you choose to participate, you will be asked to respond to an online survey that should take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. Your responses will be anonymous, so there will be no way for the researchers to link your responses with your identity. There are no known risks to participating in this study, nor are there any direct benefits to you.

If you are interested in learning more about this study, please continue to read below.

Nature and Purpose of the Project
The purpose of this study is to examine factors that may predict subordinates' perceptions of their managers' leadership behavior. This study will help organizations appoint managers who possess attributes known to contribute to being an effective leader.

Why You Were Invited to Take Part
As an employee of an organization, you work under the supervision of a manager. This makes your perspective relevant to this study. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary and your responses will be entirely anonymous. Whether or not you participate will have no effect on your future relationship with your employer because they will not know if you chose to participate and will have no access to any of the data. Responses will entered into a secure, offsite server and assessable only by the co-investigators. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty or explanation. To withdraw, simply close this window in your web browser. Incomplete responses will be deleted prior to data analysis and will not be included in study results.

Study Requirements
If you choose to participate, you will be asked to answer a series of survey questions using scale. The entire survey should take no more than 20-30 minutes to complete. The survey will ask limited demographic information, which will not permit your identity to be known or your responses traced to you. Survey responses will be collected using a secure survey administration utility, Qualtics. Only the co-investigators will have access to the survey response. No personally identifying data will be collected. Responses will be coded to allow data to be collated for analysis.

Anticipated discomforts/risks

There are no known risks or anticipated discomforts related to your participation in the study.

Benefits
There are no benefits to participation other than knowing that you have contributed to our knowledge and understanding of organizational leaders.

Confidentiality/Anonymity
If you choose to respond to the online survey, your responses will be entirely anonymous. The researchers will not be given your email or IP addresses, so we will have no way to associate your responses with your identity. The responses or data will be associated with a random code not assigned by the researchers to be used only to collate anonymous responses for analysis. No one with access to the data will have a key that would permit codes to be traced to individual participants. The data will be stored in a secure passworded location, accessible only by the co-investigators. As prescribed by international standards, data will be stored in a secure location for three years following analysis and then destroyed. The analyzed results of this study will be reported only in the aggregate, and presented in a dissertation to be made available through the Xavier University library and submitted for presentation or publication to professional audiences.

Compensation
There will be no compensation for your participation in this study.

If you have any questions at any time during the study, you may contact the co-investigators, Mary Beth Bamber, bamberm@xavier.edu and Dr. Gail F. Latta, lattag@xavier.edu, (513) 745-2986. Questions about your rights as a research subject should be directed to Xavier University's Institutional Review Board at (513) 745-2870.

You may print a copy of this form for your records before advancing to the next screen .

****

I have been given information about this research study and its risks and benefits and have had the opportunity to contact the researcher with any questions, and have those questions answered to my satisfaction. By completing the elements of the study as previously described to me, I understand that I am giving my informed consent to participate in this research study.

By checking the agreement box below, you are giving your consent for your data to be used in this research study.

___ I agree to participate in this research study and consent to my data being used as part of the research.