Sen Sendjaya *Editor*

Leading for High Performance in Asia

Contemporary Research and Evidence-Based Practices

Springer

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Preface

As nearly 60% of the world's population reside in Asia, the region has evolved into the hub of global diversity and innovation. It is no doubt the fastest growing region in the world. The latest data to date show that Asia is the top foreign direct investment (FDI) destination in the world capturing a third of the $1.76 trillion in global FDI share. The implications for leaders of organisations operating in Asia are enormous, particularly in the light of the following strategic challenges and opportunities.

First, the digital disruption of business models and practices is continuing to rewrite rules and rearrange boundaries of business. While it has helped create strong and steady economic growth in the region, it forces businesses to operate in a novel and ambiguous context. As such, organisational leaders are expected to engage in strategic sensemaking in order to provide meaning and direction, lest the organisational inertia sets in. Leaders are charged with directing creative people and efforts which require influential processes distinct from traditional leadership operating in normal organisational functioning.

The second challenge is leadership talent shortage at the global scale but primarily in Asia. The ever-growing multi-billion dollars leadership development programmes (an estimated $16 billion in the USA alone) continue to fail to create steady leadership pipelines which produce real and significant impacts. Recent global leadership surveys done by consulting firms such as PwC, Deloitte, and Korn Ferry invariably suggest that there is severe lack of confidence in the ability of our leaders to deliver on strategic priorities. And given the accelerating rate of change, Asian companies need to accelerate the development of leadership talents through the contextually fitting portfolio of developmental experiences.

Finally, the scholarly work on contextualised theories and constructs of leadership that accurately reflects the rich heritage, philosophy, traditions, and cultures of Asia is quite scarce. Rigorous efforts to study leadership approaches indigenous to this region would bolster leadership effectiveness in Asian organisations and in turn accelerate further the contributions of Asia to the global economy.

In the light of the above challenges and opportunities, this edited monograph presents strategic insights on leading and managing for high performance in Asia. Each chapter presents findings from cutting-edge theoretical or empirical investigations from various countries in Asia, including China, Indonesia, Singapore, and Australia. These include strategies to foster citizenship and prosocial behaviours in high-performing firms, the roles of culture-specific values such as paternalism and collectivism, the construction of leader identity, the effects of leadership on team satisfaction, the development of female leaders, and key lessons in strategic leadership development. The studies were conducted by experts on various fields employing a range of methodologies from in-depth interviews, field survey, and computer simulation.

This monograph will help readers to get an overview of current leadership challenges in Asia, and more importantly the relevant insights necessary to develop a set of strategic and actionable decisions to tackle those challenges. Every chapter will have a section around managerial implications where evidence-based practical and contextual recommendations can be readily applied. As such, it is a valuable tool for leadership scholars and practitioners with an interest in Asia. Scholars and students who want to have access to the latest research to inform their current or future research agenda would also benefit from the chapters.

Melbourne, Australia Sen Sendjaya

Contents

Chapter 1
Fostering Organisational Citizenship Behaviour in Asia: The Mediating Roles of Trust and Job Satisfaction

Sen Sendjaya, Andre A. Pekerti, Brian K. Cooper and Cherrie Jiuhua Zhu

Abstract This study examines the relationships between servant leadership (SL) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) as mediated by trust and job satisfaction in the context of China and Indonesia. Structural equation modeling analyses show that trust mediates the relationship between SL and OCB in the Chinese and Indonesian samples, whereas job satisfaction mediates only in Indonesia. Findings are discussed in relation to the national contexts found in China and Indonesia, as well as, implications for managerial practice.

Keywords Organizational citizenship behavior · Servant leadership · Trust · Job satisfaction · China · Indonesia

1.1 Introduction

Following a series of mass suicides and suicide attempts by employees of Foxconn, the world's largest electronic manufacturer in mainland China, the importance of addressing managerial issues such as the pervasive lack of trust and job satisfaction among organizational members took a new level of urgency (Chan & Pun, 2010; Wei, Qin, & Qin, 2011; Xu, 2011; Yuan, 2010). Trust and job satisfaction are paramount in interpersonal relationships especially in the relationship between the leader and his/her subordinates in general and especially in both China and Indonesia (Lau, Liu,

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& Fu, 2007; Bai, Li, & Xi, 2012; Hsu, Hsu, Huang, Leong, & Li, 2003; Rifai, 2005; Westwood, Chan, & Linstead, 2004). The absence of trust and satisfaction will erode employees' citizenship behaviors and propel them to behave in a deviant manner. Despite a number of works investigating the practice of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in various national cultures however (Chen, Aryee, & Lee, 2005; Chen & Chiu, 2008; Cohen, 2006; Kwantes, Karam, Kuo, & Towson, 2008; Lam, Chun, & Law, 1999; Lin & Ho, 2010; Paine & Organ, 2000; Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005), there remains a paucity of research examining the underlying *process of influence* by which OCB is fostered in non-Western cultures. Extant literature shows that leadership is a key predictor of OCB (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Wang et al., 2005) but little is known about its generalizability into other cultural settings since an overwhelming majority of leadership-OCB studies were conducted using only Western samples. The current study examines how leadership fosters OCB in two significant Asian economies i.e., China and Indonesia.

We employ servant leadership in this study because it predicts more variance in leadership outcomes beyond that of transformational leadership (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Ehrhart, 2004; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008; Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012). Given the follower-centric behaviors of servant leadership, followers' trust in leaders and subsequent satisfaction with their job are likely to be positive. Extant research indicates that OCB mediates between high-performance human resource practices and firm performance in the Chinese context (Sun, Aryee, & Law, 2007). However, little is known about the role of servant leadership in fostering OCB in the context of both China and Indonesia.

We build and expand on Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, and Fetter's (1990) study examining the role of trust and job satisfaction in mediating the effects of transformational leadership on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) with two notable differences. Their study used samples from Western countries (i.e., U.S., Canada and Europe), the current study used two Asian samples (i.e., China and Indonesia). Second, this study employed the servant leadership approach which arguably fits the Asian context better than the transformational leadership approach. In summary, the present study examined the mediating effects of trust and satisfaction on the relationship between servant leadership and OCB in China and Indonesia.

1.2 Theory and Hypothesis Development

1.2.1 Servant Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

OCB is commonly defined as discretionary behaviours which positively affects organizational functioning yet does not involve formal rewards bestowed to individuals (Organ, 1997) and has been attributed to charismatic leadership (Babcock-Roberson & Strickland, 2010), transformational leadership (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Bommer, 1996), authentic leadership (Luthans & Avolio, 2003), and servant leadership (Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010). In contrast to other leadership approaches, servant leadership is theoretically more coherent with OCB as the primary focus of the former (i.e., serving others) and of the latter (i.e., helping others) propels one from preoccupation with self to orientation toward others. Servant Leadership (SL) is characterized by an individual's inherent disposition toward serving others, ensuring their highest priority needs are served, thereby fostering ideal followers (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Liden et al., 2008; Neubert, Kacmar, Carlson, Chonko, & Roberts, 2008; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2010). While SL and OCB constructs are conceptually and empirically distinct, they both typify the pro-social behaviors which provide the glue that binds leaders-followers relationships. Several conceptualizations of servant leadership behaviors exist in the literature (see van Dierendonck, 2011 for a review). In this study, we used Sendjaya et al.'s (2008) conceptualization of servant leaders as individuals who volunteer to serve others, display their authentic selves, accept others for who they are, employ moral means to achieve ethically legitimate ends, emphasize spiritual values, and seek to transform people they serve. As such we expect positive relationship between SL and OCB because servant leaders model 'serving' behaviors by actively helping subordinates to grow and develop. This in turn encourages subordinates to emulate SL behaviors, enhancing healthy leader-member interactions and leading to heightened levels of OCB (Ehrhart, 2004). Walumbwa and his colleagues (2010) found a positive relationship between SL and OCB. This finding however was based on supervisor-subordinate dyadic data collected in Kenya, hence follow-up studies in other cultural settings are still warranted. Moreover, supervisor support has also been shown to positively influence employees' OCB (Chen & Chiu, 2008). Hence, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1 There will be a positive relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior.

1.2.2 The Mediating Role of Trust

Trust is generally understood as "a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behavior of another" (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998: 395). Given our particular interest in trust in leaders vis-à-vis trust in organization, in this study we define trust as the willingness of a subordinate to be vulnerable to the leader's decisions and actions beyond the subordinate's control (cf. Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995). Specific antecedents of trust in leaders have been empirically identified in the literature, namely leader's ability, benevolence, integrity (Tan & Tan, 2000), as well as behavioral consistency, behavioral integrity, sharing and delegation of control, communication, and demonstration of concern (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). These behaviors are reflective of servant leadership behaviors. In fact, Joseph and Winston (2005) have demonstrated that servant leadership correlated positively with trust. When servant leaders put followers' needs and interests above those of themselves, maintain consistency between words and deeds, and instill a sense of purpose and meaning in followers, they accumulate the trust of their followers. More recently, Schaubroeck, Lam and Peng (2011) found that SL has significant effects on team performance through the mediating roles of affect-based trust and team psychological safety. On the other side of the equation, Wat and Shaffer (2005) show that trust in the supervisor influences all dimensions of OCB (i.e., conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy, and altruism, civic virtue). This finding extended an earlier study by Podsakoff et al. (1990) who documented the positive effect of trust on all but one dimension of OCB, namely civic virtue. In short, individuals who are willing to trust others tend to perform more citizenship behaviors and commit fewer counterproductive behaviors (Colquitt Scott, & LePine, 2007). Therefore, trust in leaders may reflect an important mechanism through which servant leadership influences OCB, which leads us to the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2 The relationship between servant leadership and OCB will be mediated by trust.

1.2.3 The Mediating Role of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to the extent to which an employee is happy with his or her job (Hackman & Oldham, 1974). Since servant leadership prioritizes the needs and interests of followers over and above those of the organization (Liden et al., 2008; Sendjaya et al., 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2010), we theorize that the leader-follower relationships will engender more satisfaction on the followers' part. In their empirical study examining the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction, Mayer, Bardes, and Piccolo (2008) found a positive relationship between the two constructs as mediated by organizational justice and need satisfaction. Meta-analytic evidence linking job satisfaction and OCBs are also well documented (Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 1996). Foote and Tang (2008) found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and OCB as moderated by team commitment, that is, the relationship was stronger when team commitment was high. More recently, Ilies, Fulmer, Spitzmuller, and Johnson (2009) showed that job satisfaction positively correlated with OCB and mediated the effects of personality traits on OCB. The positive relationship between job satisfaction and OCB can be explained by the tendency for people to reciprocate the helping behaviors that have benefited them. The positive affect they experience triggers the willingness to return the favor in a similar or different form of pro-social behaviors. Moorman and Blakely (1995) in their study distinguished between affective (e.g., positive feelings) and cognitive (e.g., beliefs on the reciprocity of helping behaviors) job satisfaction, and found that OCB was more strongly predicted by cognitive, rather than affective, job satisfaction. Hence, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3 The relationship between servant leadership and OCB will be mediated by job satisfaction.

1.2.4 Contexts of the Study

As intimated above, the hypotheses proposed will be tested consecutively in a Chinese and Indonesian sample. We are interested to explore whether the hypothesized relationships exist in the two countries. While China and Indonesia are often considered very similar in terms of Hofstede's (1991) cultural dimensions of Power distance, Individualism, Masculinity and Uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 1991), a closer look at the two cultures reveals a few notable differences. Compared to Indonesia, China is relatively homogeneous and a communist society which is significantly influenced by Confucian (Cooke, 2009), Tao, Buddhist philosophy (Chen, 2001, 2002; Fletcher & Fang, 2006; Lewis, 2000) and Mao's ideology (Dernberger, 1982). Indonesian society, on the other hand, is complex due to the very large number of ethnic groups, multi-languages, multi-religious communities among its 235-million population that inhabit the archipelago of 6,000 islands (some 12,000 islands remain inhabited). It is the world's largest archipelagic state and the world's largest Muslim population reside in Indonesia. However, a number of studies have found similar findings concerning some of the most salient values held by Indonesians. For example, the society has been found to embrace the concept of *rukun*, which is the idea of harmony as a result of active orientation toward mutual respect and adjustment to each other (Geertz, 1973; Koentjaraningrat, 1985; Magnis-Suseno, 1997; Oerter, Oerter, Agostiani, Kim, & Wibowo, 1996). The following values have also been found to be important in Indonesian society, such as propriety, politeness, conformity to social hierarchy, pursuit of interpersonal and social harmony, as well as paternalism, (Cross, Bacon, & Morris, 2000; Pekerti, 2008).

Despite these differences, recent studies have empirically shown that SL is suitable in both China and Indonesia (Han, Kakabadse, & Kakabadse, 2010; Liden, 2012; Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010). Han et al. (2010) found that SL held parallel meaning in the West and China but Chinese participants had additional views on what is considered servant leadership. That is, servant leadership in China includes being dutiful (being committed and responsible, working hard) and devoted to Party policies and state laws (being compliant and loyal to enforcement of Party policy). This might have an impact on how SL impacts OCB in China.

In a similar manner, Pekerti and Sendjaya (2010) found that, overall servant leadership was perceived to be effective leaders in both Australia and Indonesia despite the egalitarian culture of Australia and the paternalistic culture of Indonesia. The study also suggested that individual self-construal and national context affect their perceptions of SL. For example, Australians were found to have a higher degree of *authentic self* than Indonesians. The difference was attributed to the high view of social order and harmony that Indonesians as part of a collectivistic society hold, which prompt them to be very cautious of the views and opinion of others, hence are likely to be seen as less authentic. In contrast, societies that are individualistic (e.g. Australia) are more candid, straightforward, and consistent in their behaviors.

Broadly speaking, as Asian culture is high on both power distance and collectivism, more often than not it would value leaders who will take charge in ensuring the welfare of their staff (Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009). At face value, this might contradict the philosophical underpinning of SL. However research has shown that self-sacrificial behaviors, of which SL is strongly associated with, are perceived as effective leadership behaviors in both low- and high-power distance cultures (Choi and Yoon, 2005). The study conducted by Choi and Yoon in South Korea is similar to the situation in China (Li, Fu, Chow, & Peng, 2002). The high power distance culture in Asia as a matter of fact helps servant leaders exert stronger influence on the followers who in turn will be likely to emulate these self-sacrificial behaviors (Pekerti and Sendjaya, 2010; Hale & Fields, 2007). Further, the readiness to serve the collective interests of the group over self-serving interests prevalent in Asia is conducive for altruistic behaviors (Resick, Hanges, Dickson and Mitchelson, 2006) and humble, serving orientations (Hale & Fields, 2007) of SL to flourish.

The contribution of our study, therefore, is threefold. By exploring Paine and Organ's (2000) assertion that in collectivist groups (e.g., China and Indonesia) OCB is perceived as an expected part and parcel of work and organizational life, this study advances our understanding of the application of OCB in two non-Western cultures which have not been studied simultaneously. More specifically, our study examines on how servant leadership fosters OCB in Asia, extrapolating Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) study and providing further predictive validity of SL in the Asian culture. Finally, it explores patterns of individual differences in the two countries and how they affect our hypothesized model. Our study shed lights on the differences between China and Indonesia in terms of the hypothesized relationships.

1.3 Method

1.3.1 Samples

Sample 1—Indonesia. The Indonesia sample was collected from the teaching faculty and administration staff of two educational institutions in Indonesia. In both cases, assurance of anonymity and confidentiality were given, along with a letter of support from top management. We received 555 responses to the survey, representing a response rate of 58.4%. Sixty-three percent of the sample was female and the average age was 42.1 years.

Sample 2—China. The Chinese sample was collected from the technical, admin, and management staff of manufacturing firms in Shanghai. A total 616 employees completed the survey out of 1200 copies distributed, accounting for a response rate of 51%. About half of the sample (49%) was female and the average age was 39.6 years.

1.3.2 Measures

Servant Leadership. The 35-item Servant Leadership Behavior Scale (SLBS) was used to assess employees' perception of their leaders' behavior (Sendjaya et al, 2008). The items are rated on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Sample items include "My leader considers others' needs and interests above his or her own", "My leader is not defensive when confronted", "My leader takes a resolute stand on moral principles". The SLBS has been employed in both Western and Eastern contexts (e.g., Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior. OCB was measured using Podsakoff et al.'s. (1990) 24-item scale. The items are rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = 'Strongly Disagree' to 7 = 'Strongly Agree'.

Trust. Trust in leader was measured using the six-item, scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990). The six items are as follows: (1) I feel quite confident that my leader will always try to treat me fairly; (2) My leader would never try to gain an advantage by deceiving workers; (3) I have complete faith in the integrity of my leader/supervisor; (4) I feel a strong loyalty to my leader; (5) I would support my leader in almost any emergency; and (6) I have a divided sense of loyalty toward my leader. The six items are rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = 'Strongly Disagree' to 7 = 'Strongly Agree'.

Job satisfaction. Satisfaction was measured using Hackman and Oldham's (1974) general satisfaction measure, which indicates the extent employees are satisfied with their jobs. The five items were (1) Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job; (2) I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job; (3) I frequently think of quitting this job; (4) Most people in this job are very satisfied with the job; and (5) People on this job often think of quitting. The items are rated on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = 'Strongly Disagree' to 7 = 'Strongly Agree'.

All measures were translated from English to Mandarin and Bahasa Indonesia following Brislin's (1980) back-translation procedure.

1.3.3 Method of Analysis

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was used to estimate the parameters of our hypothesized models. We chose SEM as it is the most powerful technique for testing models involving both direct and indirect effects and is effective in removing the biasing effects of measurement error (Kline, 2011). SEM analyses were performed using a covariance matrix as input to the AMOS (Analysis of Moment Structure) software package, using full information maximum likelihood estimation (FIML) in the presence of missing data. FIML is a superior technique for handling missing data and generally outperforms conventional methods such as listwise deletion, yielding parameter estimates with less bias in large samples (Graham, 2009). Prior to estimating our models, we examined the statistical assumptions of SEM. Results of evaluation of assumptions of normality, linearity, absence of multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity were satisfactory.

1.4 Results

We first estimated the measurement model for the substantive constructs. In our measurement model, scale items were used as indicators for trust and job satisfaction. In the case of SL and OCB, the scores for each dimension of SL and OCB were used as indicators of their respective constructs (see Podsakoff et al., 1990; Sendjaya & Cooper, 2011 for further details on the dimensions of each construct). This decision was supported by empirical research that has found that SL and OCB are best examined at the overall-construct level due to highly correlated dimensions (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007; Sendjaya & Cooper, 2011).

Our initial confirmatory factor analysis showed that the *Sportsmanship* dimension had a weak factor loading on the OCB factor in both the Chinese and Indonesian samples. This might be attributable to a liberal use of negatively worded items (all Sportsmanship five items are negatively worded), which provide inconsistent responses. Negatively-worded items, while may be useful to guard against acquiescent behaviours and participants' tendency to pay minimal attention to the content of the items, have been notoriously known to undermine internal consistency and factor structures (Barnette, 2000).

With removal of the Sportsmanship dimension, a confirmatory factor analysis in the Chinese sample (including all the four hypothesized factors) yielded an acceptable fit to the data χ^2 ($df = 164$) $= 784$; RMSEA $= 0.08$, CFI $= 0.93$. A confirmatory factor analysis in the Indonesian sample also yielded an acceptable fit χ^2 ($df = 164$) $= 756$; RMSEA $= 0.08$, CFI $= 0.92$. We also tested a one-factor model (where all indicators on to a single factor) in each sample. This single-factor model resulted in a poor fit (RMSEA > 0.10, CFI < 0.90) in both samples. If common method variance is largely responsible for inflating the relationships among the variables, the one-factor model should provide a good fit to the data in both samples. Hence, the one-factor model (a SEM variant of Harman's single-factor test for CMV) provides a conservative test for common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

1.4.1 Hypotheses Testing

Table 1.1 displays means, standard deviations, correlations, and internal consistency reliabilities of the studied variables. All Cronbach alpha coefficients were acceptable (although the alpha for job satisfaction in the Indonesian sample was slightly smaller than the conventional threshold of 0.70) and similar to those reported in other studies

Table 1.1 Mean, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations

Variables	Mean		SD		Alpha					
	China	Indo	China	Indo	China	Indo	1	2	3	4
1. Servant leadership	3.64	3.54	0.60	0.75	0.97	0.97	–	0.79	0.32	0.96
2. Trust	5.19	5.24	1.02	1.06	0.83	0.82	0.74	–	0.46	0.52
3. Job satisfaction	4.7	4.75	1.01	0.93	0.78	0.64	0.5	0.64	–	0.29
4. OCB	5.15	5.43	0.71	0.63	0.85	0.89	0.62	0.73	0.45	–

Note All correlations are statistically significant at $p < 0.05$. Correlations for China are below the diagonal; those for Indonesia are above the diagonal

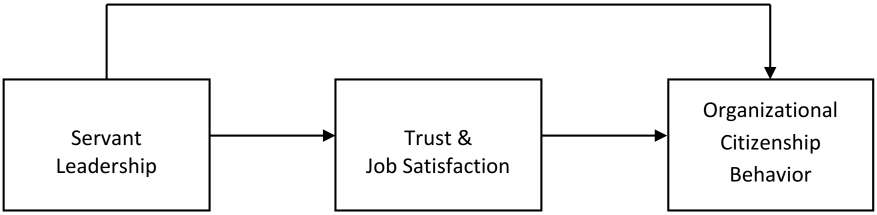
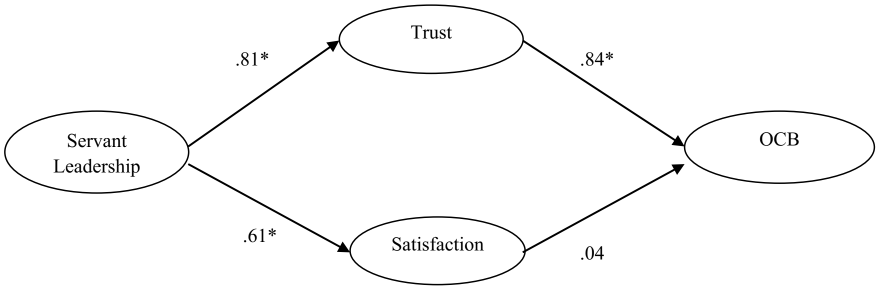


Fig. 1.1 The mediating effect of trust and satisfaction on servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior

for these measures (Liden et al., 2008; Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010). In support of Hypothesis 1, there were statistically significant positive correlations between servant leadership and OCB in both countries (note that the correlation was larger in the Chinese sample).

We then examined the hypothesized mediated relationships among the study variables (see Fig. 1.1). As the fit of a model with both direct and indirect effects was almost identical to that without the direct effects, we report the full mediation model on grounds of parsimony (cf., James, Mulaik, & Brett, 2006). Figures 1.2 and 1.3 present the results for our hypothesized mediation model for the Chinese and Indonesian samples, respectively. As can be seen from Figs. 1.2 and 1.3, the model had acceptable fit to the data in both samples, with CFI values >0.90 and RMSEA values of 0.08.

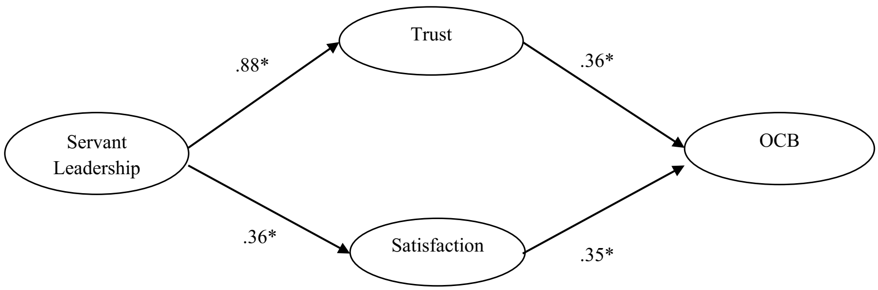
Hypothesis 2 predicted the mediating effect of trust between servant leadership and OCB. We tested the statistical significance of the indirect effect using software known as PRODCLIN, an acronym for Product Confidence Limits for the Indirect Effect (MacKinnon, Fritz, Williams, & Lockwood, 2007). PRODCLIN has been found to have accurate Type I error rates and more power than other, more commonly used tests including the Sobel test (Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007). Using PRODCLIN we found that the standardized indirect effect for trust in the Chinese sample was statistically significant (standardized indirect effect = 0.68, $p < 0.05$), as well in the Indonesian sample (standardized indirect effect = 0.32, $p < 0.05$. These results sup-



χ^2 (df = 166) = 931, RMSEA = .08 CFI = .92.

*$p < 0.05$. Standardized path coefficients reported.

Fig. 1.2 Mediation Model—Chinese sample



χ^2 (df = 166) = 822, RMSEA = .08 CFI = .92.

*$p < 0.05$. Standardized path coefficients reported.

Fig. 1.3 Mediation Model—Indonesian sample

port Hypothesis 2. We conclude that the relationship between servant leadership and OCB was mediated by trust in both the Chinese and Indonesian samples, respectively.

Hypothesis 3 predicted the mediation effect of satisfaction between servant leadership and OCB. We found that the standardized indirect effect for job satisfaction in the Chinese sample was not significantly different from zero (standardized indirect effect = 0.02, $p > 0.05$), but statistically significant in the Indonesian sample (standardized indirect effect = 0.13, $p < 0.05$). In other words, in the case of the Chinese sample, job satisfaction did not make a *unique* contribution to prediction of OCB after controlling for trust. Hypothesis 3 was therefore supported in the Indonesian sample, but not supported in the Chinese sample.

Correcting for measurement error, our mediation model explained 33% of the variance in OCB in the Indonesian sample. Consistent with the stronger effects identified above, the model explained 74% of the variance in OCB in the Chinese sample. Finally, we tested the sensitivity of our models to the incorporation of a range of demographic variables. Their inclusion did not substantively impact on the results.

1.5 Discussion

Our present study demonstrated the impact of SL on OCB and mediating effects of trust and job satisfaction on OCB in Indonesia. Although there were similar effects in China, job satisfaction did not mediate SL and OCB in China. Overall, our results suggest that SL is an antecedent of OCB in both China and Indonesia, as such it can be concluded that SL can predict variance in discretionary behavior in these two non-Western nations, thus establishing further credibility to SL beyond that built in prior studies (Han et al., 2010; Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010).

In both countries, trust (direct faith and loyalty to the leader) mediated the effect of SL on OCB. This may be explained, at least partly, by the practice of *guanxi* in China and *rukun* in Indonesia. *Guanxi* is the practice utilizing informal social networks/relationships towards influencing social and business interactions (Luo, 2000; Parnell, 2005). A study on the formation of servant leaders in China concluded that relationship building is a key characteristic of a Chinese servant leader (Horn, 2005). Although the origin of *guanxi* stems from Confucius philosophies regarding family and superiors/subordinates and hierarchies, it intertwines duty and obligation with the values of trust and dependence (Luo, 2000; Parnell, 2005). In Indonesia, the ascription to *rukun* (social harmony out of mutual respect) significantly influenced by its collectivistic orientation complements the interdependent self-concept that many Indonesians have (Cross et al., 2000; Geertz, 1973; Magnis-Suseno, 1997; Soemarjan, 1975). In general, Noesjirwan (1978) conceptualized Indonesian identity as being sociable, maintaining friendly relationships with everyone (i.e., individuals are expected to conform to the wishes of the group) and maintaining a steady state, a life style (smooth, graceful and restrained behavior). Corroborated by French, Pidada and Victor (2005) as well as Magnis-Suseno (1997), this tendency may explain the salient mediating effect of trust.

However, the effect of trust on OCB is *stronger* in the Chinese sample. This particular finding provides more insight on how SL predicts OCB given different levels of trust in the organizational context. Colquitt et al.'s (2007) work suggests that relationship between trust and leader-based referents are more salient in relationships with an obvious power differential; this link was also found by Chen et al. (2005) where perceived organizational support was significantly related to trust in the organization. This view was also corroborated by HRM scholars in China who contend that 'to obtain employees' trust is the first important task for the leaders and managers' (Mo & Huang, 2010: 47). Since trust alone can bring trust, it is a foundation for communication and participation. As such, individuals who are prone to be more committed to their organizations are more likely to perform higher levels of OCB. The literature has documented that Chinese nationals are committed to the organization and political party (Han et al., 2010; Lin & Ho, 2010) as well as high in power distance. Therefore, in the Chinese context it is possible that direct faith and loyalty to the leader requires a more personal type of relationship between leaders and members, which makes sense given that its culture and socialist ideology may emphasize the importance of relationships (Mandle, 1993; Warner, 2010). In contrast, even if Indonesia has transitioned itself from the authoritarian heritage of past government regimes and become a much more democratic country, the stigma associated with the manipulation and deceit used in the past political era might deter people from having complete trust in organization and political parties which might also be reflected in followers' attitudes towards their leaders in the workplace setting.

Unexpectedly job satisfaction did not have a statistically significant mediating effect in the Chinese sample. This may be due to the influence of cultural variables, such as *danwei* (i.e., the work unit often perceived to be a miniature of a society, see Helburn & Shearer, 1984; Zamet & Bovarnick, 1986); and *luo-si-ding jingsheng* (i.e., cog spirit, which was popular in Mao's regime) or, to use a more recent term, *jingye jingshen* (i.e., a special form of job dedication in the Chinese workplace, see Farh, 2004). Both of these cultural constructs point to an obligatory sense to devote one's self to the organization like a cog on the machine placing the collective interests over those of the individuals (Zhu, 2005). These concepts in practice may mitigate perceptions of satisfaction in the Chinese context. Therefore, even if individuals are not satisfied and think about quitting, in a highly paternalistic society their loyalty to the organization/work unit (Cooke, 2009; Helburn & Shearer, 1984; Zamet & Bovarnick, 1986) may still motivate them continue OCB even if they perceive inequity (Paine & Organ, 2000).

Taken together our findings provide further insights on how SL directly and indirectly influences OCB in China and Indonesia. In sum, trust mediates the SL-OCB relationship in both samples, but its impact is stronger in China while perception of satisfaction was not predictive of OCB in China.

1.5.1 Managerial Relevance

While countries like China and Indonesia are typically considered identical in terms of their cultural dimensions (cf. Hofstede, 1991), our study findings show that there are cultural-specific differences that affect the underlying process by which leaders in both countries promote OCB. This implies that in order to foster discretionary behaviors in countries in the Asia Pacific region corporate leaders, for example, should not be trapped into applying a one-size-fits-all approach to leadership. Prior study highlights the need to custom design HR practices such as performance evaluation systems even within culturally similar countries within the Southeast Asian region (Paik, Vance, & Stage, 2000). Our study highlights the need for executives to understand not only the cultural make-ups of a country, but also its predominant worldviews and beliefs as well as idiosyncratic patterns of interactions often are not captured on papers.

More specifically, we found that in Indonesia both trust and job satisfaction are important factors in engendering OCB. Since trust is salient in both countries, we surmise that leaders in Indonesia, and particularly, mainland China should focus on fostering trust from their staff. One of the major problems identified in Foxconn's record number of suicides is a lack of trust between managers and employees (Chan & Pun, 2010). Leaders should be able to articulate a shared vision that appeal to the organizational members. A shared vision is different from a leader-defined vision to the extent it embeds the ideal future state that the majority wants to embrace. If leaders can tap into the commonly shared values that people deeply believe in, they are much more likely to trust their leaders. Setting a personal example engaging in the type of discretionary behaviors the leaders want their staff to emulate is another effective trust-fostering behavior.

The absence of the mediating effects of job satisfaction in China in our study highlights the importance of understanding Chinese-specific cultural values and socio-political context to underlying process by which servant leaders foster OCB. This is particularly relevant for expatriate managers in China wishing to serve and empower their staff to perform beyond the call of duty as these cultural influences are likely to remain embedded deep within the minds of the organizational members.

Some useful HRM implications can be drawn from our study findings. First, we recommend the application of servant leadership in the Asian organizational setting to inform assessment, selection, training, promotion, and performance evaluation decisions. In particular, the behavioral dimensions used in the current study are particularly useful for the selection and training of senior management towards the development of more socially responsible and ethical organisations. Second, given the direct moderating role of trust between SL and OCB, how to form such a trust as bridging (external integration, to let people from different groups interact to each other and form close relationships) and bonding (internal integration, to let people within the group establish close relationships) mechanisms (Newell, Tansley, & Huang, 2004) would be quite relevant for HR practices. Given the perception of job satisfaction is less of a factor in facilitating and predicting OCB in China, HR managers need to consider how to improve job satisfaction by identifying current deficiencies in job design, development and management, e.g., employee empowerment (Chen, Chang, & Yeh, 2003), team work (Lee, & Chang, 2008) and encouragement of innovation, (Zhou, Gao, Yang, & Zhou, 2005; Lee, & Chang, 2008).

1.5.2 Limitations and Future Directions

Our study is not without its limitations. The findings of our study were derived from a comparison of two data sets comprising not-for-profit organizations in Indonesia and manufacturing firms in China. We acknowledge the possibility that the comparative results may partially be attributed to the differences observed in the organizational types. Of course, causal inferences must be made with caution, particularly because the data are cross-sectional. The use of a longitudinal or experimental field design would help in future research to strengthen causal inferences. Finally, this study is not immune from the problem of common method variance often associated with self-report measures (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Although the one-factor test reported in this study provides a conservative test for common method variance, future studies may employ advanced causal modeling techniques to control for common method variance (see Williams, Edwards, & Vandenberg, 2003).

In conclusion, the findings of this study demonstrate the need for more rigorous cross-cultural research in leadership. In relation to SL, we foresee the need to conduct multi-nation studies with a larger sample size to enhance the generalizability of the study findings. More specifically, qualitative studies to analyze cultures are needed to unearth the complexity others see as uniformity in cultures, such as cultural values that characterize culture at the individual, group, or organizational levels (Kirkman, Lowe, & Gibson, 2006). Not only will such studies will result in a broader application of SL across cultures, but they will further establish the validity of the relatively new measure of SL used in this study.

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Chapter 2
Transformational Leadership and Follower Citizenship Behavior: The Roles of Paternalism and Institutional Collectivism

Ivan D. Butar Butar, Sen Sendjaya and Andre A. Pekerti

Abstract The current study examines the relationship between transformational leadership and citizenship behavior as mediated by paternalism. In addition, individual-level institutional collectivism orientation is hypothesized to moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and paternalism. Two hundred and forty-six employees (123 managers/supervisors and 123 subordinates) participated in a survey conducted in eight of the top 45 high-performing firms listed on the Indonesia Stock Exchange. The study suggests that transformational leadership is positively related to follower citizenship behavior through a pervasive cultural feature in the region, that is, paternalism. Individual-level institutional collectivism moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and paternalism, such that the relationship is stronger when institutional collectivism is higher rather than lower. Analysis of mediated moderation also indicates that institutional collectivism moderates the mediating effects of paternalism on transformational leadership–citizenship behavior linkage. Implications of the study findings for research and practice as well as future research directions are discussed at the conclusion of the paper.

Keywords Transformational leadership · Citizenship behavior · Paternalism · Institutional collectivism orientation

The salient influence of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) on organizational performance has contributed to its intensive investigation (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007). Among the many studies on antecedents of OCB, leadership

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has been singled out as a key antecedent (Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007), in particular transformational leadership (see Felfe & Heinitz, 2010; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009; Podsakoff, MacKensie, & Bommer, 1996). However, while the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB has been well-documented in the literature, only a few studies have addressed the underlying process by which transformational leaders influence followers' OCB (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006) in non-Western contexts (see the review by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). This omission in the literature is surprising, given that effective leadership is influenced by cultural contexts under which leaders function (House & Aditya, 1997).

In this study, we propose paternalism as a new mechanism that links transformational leadership and follower OCB. As a salient feature in a collectivistic culture, paternalism denotes a cultural pattern of interaction concentrating explicitly on reciprocal exchange found typically in a dyadic relationship (Aycan, 2005; Selvarajah, Meyer, Roostika, & Sukunesan, 2017; Sinha, 1997; Tang & Naumann, 2015; Westwood, 1997). Prior studies examining mediators of transformational leadership have covered various constructs that are follower-related e.g., creative self-efficacy, psychological empowerment (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; Gong, Huang, & Farh, 2009), team-related e.g., team learning, team potency (Schaubroeck, Lam, & Cha, 2007), leader-related e.g., trust, support (Kelloway, Turner, Barling, & Loughlin, 2012; Liaw, Chi, & Chuang, 2009; Wong, Ngo, & Wong, 2006), and working conditions e.g., justice perceptions (Wu, Neubert, & Yi, 2007). None of the studies investigate cultural orientations such as paternalism, which is a pervasive leadership approach in the region. As such, we set out to examine paternalism as a potential mediator and the extent to which it explains the link between transformational leadership and OCB in a collectivistic societal context (Aycan, Schyns, Sun, Felfe, & Saher, 2013; Rawat & Lyndon, 2016; Selvarajah et al., 2017; Tang & Naumann, 2015). In addition, paternalism is fitting the collectivistic culture of Indonesia (i.e., our study sample; cf: *Bapak-ism*—Selvarajah et al., 2017) that is commonly characterized by great emphasis on personal relationships, loyalty, and obligations (Litrico, 2007; Sullivan, Mitchell, & Uhl-Bien, 2003). Earlier research shows paternalism as a dominant and expected emic individual behavior in various Asian contexts characterized by high power distance and collectivism (e.g., Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010; Aycan et al., 2013; Rawat & Lyndon, 2016; Sinha, 1997; Selvarajah et al., 2017; Tang & Naumann, 2015; Westwood, 1997).

We also examine whether individual-level institutional collectivism orientation (hereafter, institutional collectivism) functions as a plausible moderator of the transformational leadership and paternalism linkage. Building on studies on collectivism in OCB research (e.g., Erdogan & Liden, 2006; Van Dyne, Vandewalle, Kostova, Latham, & Cummings, 2000), we broadly define individual-level institutional collectivism orientation as followers' perceptions of organizational practices that foster collectivistic behaviors. As such, this study responds to scholars' recommendations to test the workability of cultural practices at the individual level (see Farh, Hackett, & Liang, 2007; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001). The research model is depicted in Fig. 2.1.

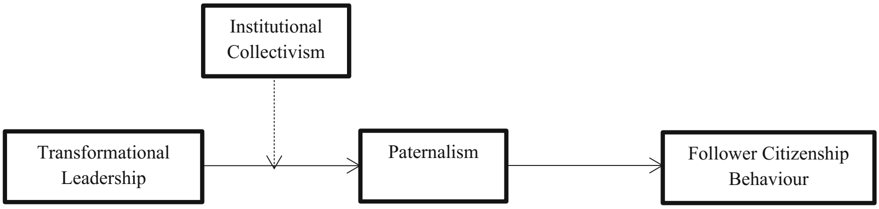

Fig. 2.1 Hypothesize research model

Accordingly, this study makes several contributions. It addresses the gap in the literature pertaining the mechanism by which a cultural-based mediator (i.e., paternalism) explains how transformational leadership affects follower OCB. Second, the study sheds lights into the potential salient effects of followers' perceptions of institutional collectivism which is often taken for granted in typical leadership studies that assume that leadership is a culturally-neutral phenomenon (Hunter, Bedell-Avers, & Mumford, 2007). Third, examining culturally appropriate mediators and moderators pertinent to transformational leadership not only further establishes its boundary condition but also builds its predictive validity relative to OCB in a non-Western context. Our study therefore extends the generalizability of the transformational leadership approach within its nomological network. Finally, as collectivism in Asia has significant influence on followers' expectations of leader behavior, understanding its cascading effects in the form of institutional collectivism in the transformational leadership—follower citizenship behavior relationship will assist practitioners to navigate successfully in a cultural setting of Indonesia or similar cultural contexts.

2.1 Theory and Hypothesis Development

2.1.1 Transformational Leadership and Follower Citizenship Behavior

Transformational leaders influence their followers to perform jobs beyond what is required (Yukl, 1999), which cumulatively leads to significant breakthroughs at the organizational level (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991). These leaders stimulate their followers' self-motivation and higher commitment to achieve the organization's goals, the process of which encompasses OCB (Avolio et al., 1991). OCB is defined as 'individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of organization' (Organ et al., 2006, p. 3). As a number of studies examining the multiple dimensionality of OCB are inconclusive, (e.g., Lee & Allen, 2002; Podsakoff, MacKensie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), and in light of recent investigations which suggest that operationalizing OCB as a single-dimension construct is *the best way* to proceed in this line of research (see Hoffman et al., 2007, for further review), we treat OCB in this study as a global construct.

Social identity theory proponents (Billig & Tajfel, 1973) suggest that an individual's strong sense of pride and belonging to organizations will lead to higher performance. Transformational leaders seek to build this sense within their followers so that followers are empowered to perform beyond expectations. Specifically, when followers individually identify themselves with the transformational leader and internalize their values and beliefs, in their efforts to emulate the leader, they will be likely to engage in OCB that benefits both the organization and others (Picollo & Colquitt, 2006). As followers' goal orientation is transformed from *personal* to *collective* goals (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003) and their self-concept and self-efficacy are enhanced through personal identification with the transformational leader (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993), the ensuing high cohesion between leaders and followers leads to higher ownership of the organization and positive concern towards one another (Farh, Zhong, & Organ, 2004). Research examining the positive effects of transformational leadership on OCB in a collectivistic context has also been confirmed in a limited number of empirical studies (e.g., Kirkman, Chen, Farh, Chen, & Lowe, 2009; Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). We therefore hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 1 Transformational leadership is positively related to follower citizenship behavior.

2.1.2 The Mediating Role of Paternalism

As a cultural value system in Asian countries such as China, India and Indonesia, paternalism has been preserved through social norms and traditions (Aycan, 2005; Aycan et al., 2013; Rawat & Lyndon, 2016; Selvarajah et al., 2017; Tang & Naumann, 2015) and is exemplified when an individual demonstrates support, care, and guidance toward another individual in a close-knit relationship (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006). Specifically, people of higher status would display responsibility by protecting and giving guidance to those lower in their status and in return, they would respond by showing respect and loyalty (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2005). Paternalism emphasizes the importance of two key element, care and control (Aycan, 2005; Aycan et al., 2013; Rawat & Lyndon, 2016; Selvarajah et al., 2017; Sinha, 1997), which is why it is often likened to the relationship between parents and children, the former displaying authority and benevolence and the latter, obedience (Kagitcibasi, 1996). Recent research have demonstrated the prevalence of paternalistic/authoritarian-benevolent styles of leadership in Indonesian society, where leaders are treated as a father figure (*Bapak-ism*; Selvarajah et al., 2017), and leaders are viewed as having a transforming influence (Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010) on followers.

Cultural orientation has been confirmed as key contributor to individual behavior (Adler, 2002; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Offermann &

Hellmann, 1997) and could permeate the way people relate one another in the organization (Kim, 1994). In a context such as Indonesia (high-power distance and collectivistic; Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010; cf: Aycan et al., 2013; Rawat & Lyndon, 2016; Selvarajah et al., 2017; Tang & Naumann, 2015) leaders may act as ‘parents’ to their followers. Leaders establishes a working relationship with followers through protection and guidance, subordinates in turn acquiesce and obey (Aycan et al., 2013; Martinez, 2005; Pellegrini, Scandura, & Jayaraman, 2010; Rawat & Lyndon, 2016; Tang & Naumann, 2015). Based on this line of reasoning, we argue that transformational leadership affects OCB through the mediating effects of paternalism. The mediating role of paternalism in the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB relationship will be supported by links between (a) transformational leadership and paternalism and (b) paternalism and OCB.

In the first link, we argue using the implicit leadership theory (ILT) that transformational leaders will be expected by their followers to behave in ways that fit the salient culture. According to the ILT, contexts shape beliefs and perceptions of effective leadership behavior (House & Aditya, 1997). Since transformational leaders willingly adapt to and are flexible in various contexts (House et al., 2004), we surmise that they can fit well the collectivistic culture by setting a high expectation of follower on the one hand, and demonstrate personal attention to the needs of followers on the other (Schaubroeck et al., 2007; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998). Previous research showed that when transformational leaders lead, they establish their authoritative presence and demonstrate their benevolent care towards the followers (Aycan, Kanungo, & Sinha, 1999; Gelfand et al., 2007).

In the second link, we predict paternalism to have an effect on follower citizenship behavior. Corroborating social exchange theory (SET; Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), followers who receive personal attention and operate in a strong “familial culture” are socially motivated to exemplify citizenship behavior. This mechanism between leaders and followers will be anticipated particularly in a dyadic relationship (Wang et al., 2005). The mechanism may be a process whereby due to the protection and benevolent care leaders provide to their followers, the followers in return show loyalty, deference and citizenship behaviors (Pellegrini et al., 2010; Rawat & Lyndon, 2016; Tang & Naumann, 2015). In short, we pose that the process is akin to the effect of organizational commitment (Rawat & Lyndon, 2016). In other words, when followers sense the family-like environment and perceive that their leaders care for them including in their private lives, they are more mindful of the way they treat their colleagues and more willing to lend a helping hand to other co-workers with heavy workloads. Thus returning the leaders’ protection and care through citizenship behaviors (Tang & Naumann, 2015). We therefore hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 2 Paternalism mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and follower citizenship behavior.

2.1.3 The Moderating Role of Institutional Collectivism

We further argue that transformational leaders in a highly collectivistic context may foster and nurture a higher level of paternalism. Limited studies have been conducted to examine how leadership processes are influenced by cultural dimensions such as collectivism. Generally, collectivism refers to the individual or organizational view on the importance of collaborative work among members of the organization (House et al., 2004). High collectivism drives individuals to support cohesive in-groups, reflecting familial and collegial spirit that they embrace (Hofstede, 2001; Triandis, 2005). Within a work organization such loyalty to the work group develop through positive experiences such as a leader showing the protection and benevolent care, which is also embodied in institutional collectivism.

Research on culture and cultural dimensions have been predominantly investigated at the country level (e.g., Hofstede, 2001). Nevertheless, recent studies have found that cultural dimensions can work at the individual level (e.g., Chen & Aryee, 2007; Kirkman et al., 2009; Krjukova, Schalk, & Soeters, 2009). Corroborating Kirkman et al.'s (2009) work which confirms that power distance can work at the individual level (labelled the *individual power distance orientation*), we examine the moderating roles of followers' perceptions of organizational practices that endorse collectivistic behaviors (i.e., individual-level institutional collectivism) in transformational leadership and paternalism relationship. Institutional collectivism, in particular, promotes and rewards collective actions in the organization (House et al., 2004). Eby and Dobbins (1997) argued that, in a typical collectivistic context, individuals tend to gain more confidence working in collaborative work settings. In addition, Oyserman, Coon, and Kemmelmeier (2002) pointed out that collectivism propels individuals to sacrifice *personal interests* for the sake of *group goals*.

In organizations marked by follower perceived cooperation and teamwork, we argue that leaders have more space to display personal attention and provide clear instructions toward their followers. In contrast, leaders in low institutional collectivism context may be less likely to demonstrate care and control as they are less certain whether mitigating followers' problems, for example, would yield a stronger sense of institutional cooperation. We predict that the degree of institutional collectivism will moderate the strength of the transformational leadership and paternalism relationship. We accordingly hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3 Institutional collectivism moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and paternalism, such that the relationship is stronger for higher, rather than lower, institutional collectivism.

Taken together, Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 imply a mediated effect of transformational leadership and OCB via paternalism, and moderated effects of institutional collectivism on transformational leadership and paternalism relationship. Following other researchers' (Chan & Mak, 2014; Shih & Chuang, 2013) approaches to prospective moderated mediation, we further argue that institutional collectivism may have the potential to accentuate (or reduce) the mediating effect of paternalism on transformational leadership and OCB relationship. As such, we propose the following additional hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4 Institutional collectivism moderates the mediated (in which paternalism serves as the mediator) relationship between transformational leadership and follower citizenship behavior, such that the mediated relationship is stronger when institutional collectivism orientation is high rather than low.

2.2 Methods

2.2.1 Sample and Procedures

The study was conducted using Indonesian public firms listed on the stock exchange as the population of interest with the sample carefully selected to address our proposed hypotheses. In particular, strong financial performance is one of the core objectives of these firms listed on the stock exchange, they have to be agile and adaptive in their operations; thus leaders in these firms are expected to be visionary, inspirational, and performance-oriented, characteristics which are embedded in transformational leaders (Podsakoff et al., 1990). As these firms rely more and more on team-based performance, the level of collaboration and teamwork is reasonably high, which is conducive for the emergence of OCB. Previous cross-cultural studies have confirmed that Indonesian culture is marked by its high collectivism, and loyalty toward groups are valued in this particular context (Hofstede, 2001; ITIM International, 2017). Indonesia's scores on the indexes used by Hofstede (ITIM International, 2017) are as follows: Power distance (78; 5.18 "as is score" in Gupta, Surie, Javidan, & Chhokar, 2002), Individualism (14), Masculinity (46), Uncertainty avoidance (48; 4.14 "as is score" in Gupta et al., 2002), Long-term orientation (62), and Indulgence (38). Dorfman, Hanges & Brodbeck's (2004) findings place Indonesia in the "Southern Asian" cluster along with India, Iran, Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand (Also see Bond et al., 2004). This is pertinent since evidence shows that this region has a pervasive approach to leadership that can be characterised as paternal (Ansari, Ahmad, & Aafaqi, 2004; Low, 2006; Pellegrini et al., 2010; Rawat & Lyndon, 2016; Selvarajah et al., 2017; Westwood, 1997).

Participants in the current study were full-time employees working in eight high-performing state-owned and private organizations from the banking and financial services, gas and mining, telecommunication services, and manufacturing sectors in Indonesia. These firms are members of the *LQ45*, a registry of the top 45 companies listed on the Indonesia Stock Exchange (IDX) as measured by financial performance and corporate governance.

In this study, the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers was the main interest. In completing the surveys, managers/supervisors were asked to evaluate the citizenship behavior of their immediate subordinates, while subordinates rated their managers'/supervisors transformational leadership, and paternalism. Subordinates also evaluated institutional collectivism orientation. The use of the other-report approach in our research design is intended to minimize response bias in behavioral research, and is highly recommended by scholars (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Overall, from 220 leader-follower dyads contacted, this study received matched and valid responses of 123 dyads, which represents approximately 56% of the total dyads invited. Thus, the sample size of this study was 246 employees (i.e., one manager/supervisor and his/her direct follower in each dyad). Among managers/supervisors, 74% of participants were male. The majority of participants were aged 40–49 years old (37%) and 30–39 (33%); 41% reported that they had completed a bachelor's degree and 20% had a postgraduate degree. In the sample of 123 subordinates, overall the sample comprised more males than females (68% versus 32%, respectively). Subordinates were relatively younger: 38% participants were aged 30–39 and 28% were aged below 30; 41% had finished their bachelor education and 8% had a postgraduate degree.

2.2.2 Measures

Because all measures in this study originated in English, a classic back-translation procedure was initially conducted by one of the authors and two academics in Australia and Indonesia (Brislin, 1980). A pilot test among 20 employees (not included in the final data for analysis) was performed to assure the measures' accurate translation. All translations that had minor variations to the original meaning were discussed and appropriate changes were made in the wording to ensure clarity of item questionnaires.

2.2.2.1 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership was measured with 23 items adapted from the Transformational Leadership Index (TLI; Podsakoff et al., 1990). The TLI uses a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). A number of studies have confirmed the scale validity (e.g., Pillai & Williams, 1998; Spreitzer, Perttula, & Xin, 2005). Sample items included (1) "My manager/supervisor develops a team attitude and spirit among employees", (2) "My manager/supervisor inspires others with his/her plans for the future", and (3) "My manager/supervisor shows us that he/she expects a lot from us". Following earlier studies using this scale, we used a composite score for transformational leadership (e.g., Wang et al., 2005). The internal reliability of transformational leadership in this study was 0.96.

2.2.2.2 Paternalism

This measure was adapted from Pellegrini and Scandura's (2006) paternalism measure. This scale uses a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Sample items were (1) "My manager/supervisor is interested in every aspect of his/her employees' lives", (2) "My manager/supervisor knows each of his/her employees intimately (e.g., personal problems, family life, etc.)", and (3) "My supervisor creates a family environment in the workplace". The internal reliability of paternalism was satisfactory ($\alpha = 0.81$).

2.2.2.3 Individual-Level Institutional Collectivism Orientation

A five-item institutional collectivism scale developed by the GLOBE Team (House et al., 2004) was adapted to measure individual-level institutional collectivism orientation following previous (e.g., Kirkman et al., 2009). Modified survey items used in this study included "In most situations, employees show loyalty" (1 = strongly agree, 7 = strongly disagree, reverse scored). The internal reliability of individual-level institutional collectivism orientation in this study was 0.77.

2.2.2.4 Citizenship Behavior

Citizenship behavior was measured by Podsakoff et al.'s (1990) OCB scale, which comprises 24 items. The scale uses a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). This scale has been widely used for evaluating OCB, and has displayed consistent statistical validity (e.g., Hoffman et al., 2007; Podsakoff et al., 2000). Sample items were (1) "This employee helps his/her co-workers who have heavy workloads", (2) "This employee is mindful how his/her behavior affects other people's jobs", and (3) "This employee is always ready to lend a helping hand to those around him/her". We followed scholars' recommendation suggesting OCB as a single-dimension scale (see Hoffman et al., 2007). The internal reliability for a composite OCB scale was 0.87.

2.2.2.5 Control Variables

Participants' gender, age, level of education, and organizational tenure were controlled, in accordance with earlier OCB studies and suggestions provided by researchers in this field in order to reduce potential confounding effects (cf. Kirkman et al., 2009; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). In the analysis, we coded participants' gender (0 = female, 1 = male) and education level (ranging from 1 = high school to 5 = doctorate), and tenure with the organization (ranging from 1 = less than a year to 5 = over ten years).

2.2.3 Analytical Strategy

Preacher and Hayes' (2008) asymptotic and re-sampling strategy was used to test direct and mediating effects (i.e., Hypothesis 1 and Hypothesis 2). Specifically, the *bias corrected* method (Williams & MacKinnon, 2008) was used, because it is a powerful test to obtain confidence limits for indirect effects (see MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004). Testing Hypothesis 3, this study employed Hayes and Matthes' (2009) procedures on testing interactions, which primarily use moderated ordinary least square (OLS) regression. These procedures identify conditional effects, represented by mean, one standard deviation above mean (high-level), and one below mean (low-level) in accordance with Aiken and West's (1991) suggestions. This study further examined potential *moderated mediation* of the conditional indirect effects of institutional collectivism on the link between transformational leadership and follower citizenship behavior through paternalism (i.e., Hypothesis 4).

Bootstrapping is one of the most robust methods for handling the sampling distribution when samples are not large (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). We used Bootstrap estimation with a sample size of 10,000 to test hypotheses. PROCESS estimation developed by Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007) was used to estimate.

2.3 Results

Before hypothesis tests, we tested whether there was collinearity among predictors that may affect accurate estimation of regression results. We found that transformational leadership and paternalism were highly correlated, which might indicate collinearity. To further verify this, we performed Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and Tolerance tests. Collinearity or multicollinearity would be verified when the largest VIF is greater than 10.00 (Stevens, 1992). In addition, Tolerance below 0.20 indicates a potential problem (Menard, 1995). The average VIF value of all predictors in this study was 2.31, while the average Tolerance value was 0.46. Therefore, the tests confirmed that collinearity was not an issue for our research model.

Table 2.1 shows the means, standard deviations, zero-order correlations, and reliabilities of main variables. Correlation results were as expected and thus provided preliminary support for our proposed hypotheses. As shown, transformational leadership was positively related to follower citizenship behavior ($r = 0.36$, $p < 0.01$), while paternalism was also positively related to follower citizenship behavior ($r = 0.38$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 2.1 Descriptive statistics, reliability, and correlations matrix

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age	2.40	0.93	–							
2. Gender	0.74	0.44	–	–						
3. Education level	2.56	1.06	−0.20*	−0.11	–					
4. Tenure	2.72	1.08	0.09	−0.02	−0.21*	–				
5. Transformational leadership	5.10	1.02	0.08	0.05	−0.20*	0.06	(0.96)			
6. Paternalism	3.61	0.57	0.08	0.01	−0.08	0.10	0.75**	(0.84)		
7. Citizenship behaviour	5.65	0.63	0.06	0.13	−0.04	0.07	0.36**	0.38**	(0.90)	
8. Institutional collectivism	5.31	1.04	0.15	−0.02	−0.27**	0.12	0.63**	0.45**	0.19*	(0.77)

Notes $n = 123$ matched manager/supervisor—subordinate dyads. Measures' reliability coefficients are in parentheses along the diagonal. *SD* Standard deviation
$^{*}p < 0.05$
$^{**}p < 0.01$

2.3.1 Hypothesis Tests

We controlled for gender, age, education, and organizational tenure for hypothesis testing. Hypothesis 1 proposes that transformational leadership is positively related to follower citizenship behavior. The results show support, indicated by the significant regression coefficient of the link between transformational leadership to follower citizenship behavior ($b = 0.22$, $p < 0.01$).

Hypothesis 2 proposes that paternalism mediates the relationship transformational leadership and follower citizenship behavior. As shown in Table 2.2, transformational leadership related to paternalism ($b = 0.43$, $p < 0.01$). When we included both transformational leadership and paternalism as predictors, paternalism had a statistically significant effect on follower citizenship behavior ($b = 0.27$, $p < 0.10$). The 90% confidence intervals did not contain zero (90% CI [0.03, 0.50]). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Hypothesis 3 proposes that institutional collectivism moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and paternalism, such that the relationship is stronger for a higher, rather than lower, level of institutional collectivism. Table 2.3 presents the results of the moderated regression analysis examining the moderating effects of institutional collectivism on the relationship between transformational leadership and paternalism. The moderating effects of institutional collectivism on the relationship between transformational leadership and paternalism received support ($p < 0.10$).

To further verify this moderated effect, the study performed tests of simple slope and the slope differences for significance (Aiken & West, 1991), which picked points of high- (i.e., one standard deviation above the mean) and low-levels (i.e., one standard deviation below the mean) of institutional collectivism. Transformational leadership related to paternalism when institutional collectivism was low ($b = 0.40$, $SE = 0.06$, $t = 7.16$, $p < 0.01$) with the 90% confidence intervals did not contain zero (90% CI [0.31, 0.50]), and when it was high ($b = 0.52$, $SE = 0.06$,

Table 2.2 Regression results for testing indirect effect

Variable	Coefficient	se	t	*p*	LLCI	ULCI
Outcome: Paternalism						
Constant	1.19	0.26	4.61	$p < 0.01$	0.76	1.62
Transformational leadership	0.43	0.03	12.38	$p < 0.01$	0.37	0.49
Outcome: Citizenship behaviour						
Constant	3.90	0.43	9.08	$p < 0.01$	3.19	4.61
Paternalism	0.27	0.14	1.88	0.06	0.03	0.50
Transformational leadership	0.11	0.08	1.34	0.18	– 0.03	0.24

Notes Controlling for age, gender, educational level, and work tenure. *SE* Standard error; *LLCI* Lower limit confidence interval; *ULCI* Upper limit confidence interval. 10,000 Bootstrapping resamples. 90% LLCI and ULCI applied. Bias corrected method used

Table 2.3 Regression results for testing moderating effect

	Outcome variable: Paternalism				
	b	se	t	p	90% CI
Constant	3.37	0.19	17.87	$p < 0.01$	[3.06, 3.68]
Institutional collectivism (centred)	−0.24	0.04	−0.56	0.58	[−0.10, 0.05]
Transformational leadership (centred)	0.46	0.05	9.92	$p < 0.01$	[0.38, 0.54]
Institutional collectivism x Transformational leadership	0.06	0.03	1.81	0.07	[0.004, 0.11]
Conditional effect of Institutional collectivism:	Effect	se	t	p	90% CI
Low	0.40	0.06	7.16	$p < 0.01$	[0.31, 0.50]
Mean	0.46	0.05	9.92	$p < 0.01$	[0.38, 0.54]
High	0.52	0.06	9.13	$p < 0.01$	[0.42, 0.61]

Notes Controlling for age, gender, educational level, and work tenure. *SE* Standard error; *CI* Confidence interval; 90% CI applied

$t = 9.13$, $p < 0.01$) with the 90% confidence intervals also not containing zero (90% CI [0.42, 0.61]). In sum, these results suggested that the relationship between transformational leadership and paternalism was stronger when institutional collectivism orientation was high rather than when it was low. Examination of the plots of a two-way graphical interaction (see Fig. 2.2) also revealed that, as hypothesized, high institutional collectivism, rather than low, was a more favourable condition for the influence of transformational leadership on paternalism. Taken together, these results provided support for Hypothesis 3.

Finally, our moderated mediation model examined whether the extent to which paternalism mediated the effect of transformational leadership on follower citizenship behavior varies at different levels (high- and low-level) of institutional collectivism orientation (i.e., Hypothesis 4). The interaction was significant at low ($b = 0.11$, 90% CI [0.02, 0.19]) and high ($b = 0.14$, 90% CI [0.03, 0.27]) levels, indicating that the relationship between transformational leadership and paternalism is moderated by institutional collectivism. The positive b indicated that, as institutional collectivism increased, the relationship between transformational leadership and paternalism became stronger. Therefore, Hypothesis 4 received support (Table 2.4).

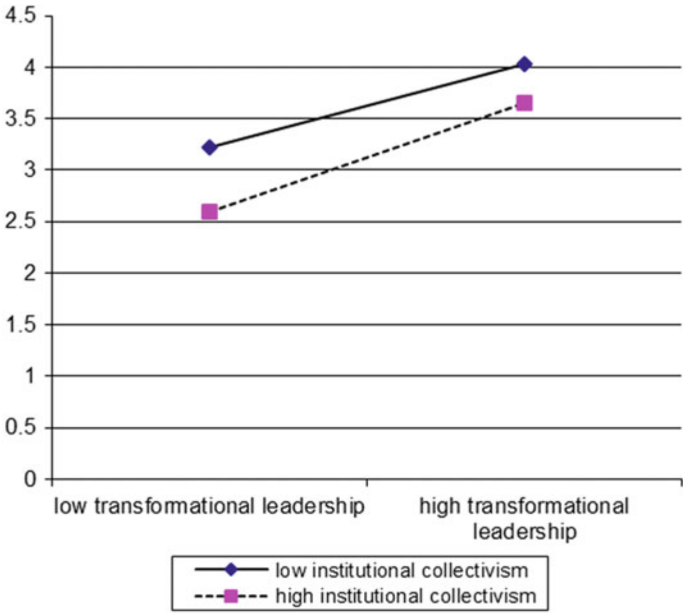

Fig. 2.2 Effects of the interaction of transformational leadership and institutional collectivism orientation on paternalism

Table 2.4 Conditional indirect effect of transformational leadership on follower citizenship behaviour through paternalism at different values of institutional collectivism

Institutional collectivism orientation	Effect	Boot SE	Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI
Low	0.11	0.06	0.02	0.19
Mean	0.12	0.07	0.02	0.23
High	0.14	0.08	0.03	0.27

Notes Controlling for age, gender, educational level, and work tenure. *SE* Standard error; *LLCI* Lower limit confidence interval; *ULCI* Upper limit confidence interval. 10,000 Bootstrapping resamples. 90% LLCI and ULCI applied. Bias corrected method used

2.4 Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to examine the relationships among transformational leadership, paternalism, institutional collectivism, and follower citizenship behavior. We found support that paternalism mediates the indirect influence of transformational leadership on follower citizenship behavior. Furthermore, in response to the call for research to examine the potential influence cultural orientation on organizational outcomes (see Schaubroeck et al., 2007), we found evidence that institutional collectivism positively moderates the link between transformational leadership and paternalism. The study further revealed the role of institutional collectivism in moderating the mechanism that links transformational leadership and employee citizenship behavior through paternalism.

2.4.1 Theoretical Contributions

Our study findings provide evidence for paternalism as a contextual mechanism through which transformational leadership fosters citizenship behavior. In line with the oft-quoted cultural dimension research of Hofstede (2001), and following prior research using paternalism as a culturally-endorsed climate (e.g., Low, 2006; Selvarajah et al., 2017; Sinha, 1997; Westwood, 1997), our study highlights the importance of context which is often ignored in leadership studies. To assume that leadership is a culturally-universal phenomenon is a grave mistake that may jeopardize an otherwise effective leadership approach.

The second major contribution of the study is in providing further evidence in support of transformational leadership in its predicting ability to mobilize followers to be good organizational citizens. What is unique to our study, however, is that such effect is achieved through paternalism. By focusing on a cultural-based mediator, we extend prior studies examining mediators of transformational leadership which focus primarily on mediators which are based on processes at the individual, team, or organization levels that are psychological, structural, or contextual. Our findings suggest that transformational leaders can leverage a strong familiar environment to nurture follower citizenship behavior through a fine balance of authoritative guidance and benevolent care; especially within societies where paternalism are pervasive (Ansari et al., 2004; Low, 2006; Pellegrini et al., 2010; Rawat & Lyndon, 2016; Selvarajah et al., 2017; Westwood, 1997).

Third, our study also extends the generalizability of transformational leadership in a non-Western context like Indonesia and by extensions other countries of similar cultural make up in Asia. The moderating role of institutional collectivism in accentuating the aforementioned relationship highlights the importance for leaders to build a good rapport with followers (Teagarden, Butler, & Von Glinow, 1992). In such a context, followers expect leaders to provide authoritative directions and show a genuine interest in their personal lives. This expectation is contextually aligned with the prominent relational model of authority that emphasizes employee evaluation toward the way that leaders treat them (Tyler, Lind, & Huo, 2000). While no doubt it is important for researchers to develop leadership theories and constructs that accurately reflect the rich heritage and cultures of Asia, we surmise that, rather than contradicting this research agenda, our findings show that transformational leadership does have currency in Asia.

2.4.2 Managerial Implications

Effective leadership behavior can be trained (Howell & Frost, 1989). Accordingly, a key managerial implication of our study is the need for a systematic and measured development program for leaders around the transformational leadership framework, particularly in view of its effects on followers' citizenship behavior. Of particular importance here is the ability to display *individualized support* (one of the core elements of transformational leadership) toward followers to empower them to carry out their work effectively, encourage harmonious collaboration, and minimize tensions that may hinder the completion of work (Avolio et al., 1991). Western expatriates who will be posted in any country in Asia, for example, will especially benefit from this type of program. More generally, however, the increasingly multicultural context of workplaces in major cities around the globe requires leaders to understand the cultural nuances that may motivate or demotivate employees to be willing to walk the extra mile.

Earlier empirical studies and conceptual analyses have revealed the variations of cultural orientations within a single country or specific context (see Tsui, Nifadkar, & Ou, 2007; Tung, Worm, & Fang, 2008). For instance, a study in Hong Kong, Taiwan and China (notably collectivist communities) found that some people are more individualist than others (Xie, Chen, & Roy, 2006). This means that leaders need to stimulate higher individual perceptions of institutional collectivism among followers, for instance, through personal modelling. Leaders can also instill cooperative behavior among members and tie them to the reward system in the organization (DeMatteo, Eby, & Sundstom, 1998), internalize socialization practices that underline the importance of collective work within the organization (LePine, Hanson, Borman, & Motowidlo, 2000), and recruit organizational members with high team-oriented motives.

2.4.3 Strengths, Limitations, and Future Research

A number of limitations and strengths in relation to the study sample, methods and conceptual clarity are worth mentioning. The study sample was generated from a specific cluster of firms (i.e., highly-performing firms), and hence this may hinder the generalizability of the findings. Nevertheless, it is also important to note that the study sample included multiple organizations from diverse sectors. In addition, results for this study were drawn from 123 matched supervisor–follower dyads. Needless to say, a larger sample size is highly recommended in future research.

Because the study relies on cross-sectional surveys in its design, it does not draw any definitive causal relationship. For future research, following Podsakoff et al.'s (2003) recommendations, collecting data at different times and aggregating transformational leadership constructs from three or more subordinates could yield more accurate ratings. Furthermore, comparing results based on self- and other-reported evaluations (e.g., Atwater, Wang, Smither, & Fleenor, 2009), gender (i.e., male versus female) (e.g., Kacmar, Bachrach, Harris, & Zivnuska, 2011), and different cultural contexts (e.g., individualistic versus collectivistic cultural settings) (e.g., Wang, Hinrichs, Prieto, & Howell, 2013) could be also taken into consideration to capture potential variations on leadership and citizenship behavior perceptions. Furthermore, the present study used the dyadic relationship between leader and follower as the unit of analysis. While dyadic emphasis is used in many leadership and citizenship behavior-related studies, the literature has also reported the workability of group-level ratings for addressing the leadership behavior and citizenship behavior relationship (Kirkman et al., 2009). The use of different units of analysis may yield different results, and thus using a multi-level approach in the future is strongly recommended in order to understand factors that influence individual citizenship behavior. Comparing the emergence of citizenship behavior among different groups in the organization e.g., permanent versus temporary employees, could also reflect a better understanding of employee citizenship behavior in a different context (cf. George, Levenson, Finegold, & Chattopadhyay, 2010).

The current study acknowledges that there remains a possibility that some concepts are not completely equivalent, since it uses Western-originated constructs in another context. For instance, certain behavior that might be identified as citizenship behavior (e.g., helping co-workers who have heavy workloads) could be perceived, conceptually and practically, as a part of employees' formal job descriptions in some organizations. This argument in fact is in line with Morrison's (1994) view that people in different cultures may perceive citizenship behavior differently. Drawing a crystal-clear demarcation between formal job responsibilities and citizenship behavior (e.g., Farh et al., 2004) in the first place could help future researchers to obtain more accurate conclusions, especially when research is undertaken in collectivistic contexts.

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Chapter 3
Contact Employees' Prosocial Behaviors: The Role of Leader-Member Exchange and Perceived Organizational Support

Rofikoh Rokhim and Monica Devina

Abstract Prosocial behaviors of contact employees are considered as a crucial key to deliver excellent service to consumers. This study investigates the mediating role of perceived organizational support in the relationship between leader-member exchange and prosocial behaviors. We examined four types of such behaviors, namely role-prescribed behavior, extra-role behavior, cooperation, and internal influence. Research data were obtained from 1,353 Account officers who worked at microfinance state-owned company in Indonesia. The data were analyzed through Lisrel 8.51 and all hypotheses were tested through confirmatory factor analysis. Results indicate that when leader-member exchange increases, the level of organizational support perceived by employees also escalates. In the same way, as perceived organizational support increases, employees might perform prosocial behaviors. Specifically, perceived organizational support fully mediates the relationship between LMX and extra-role behavior, and acts as a partial mediator with the other behaviors. Therefore, it might be argued that in order to encourage prosocial behaviors of boundary spanners, human resource practices may focus on increasing the level of leader-member exchanges and improving organizational support facilities for employees.

Keywords Extra-role behavior · Prosocial behavior · Leader-member exchange · Perceived organizational support · Role-prescribed behavior · Micro-finance sector

3.1 Introduction

Contact employees refer to the workforce of an organization which has the liability for delivering excellent services to customers. Specifically, contact employees lead to competitive advantage and differentiation in many service companies (Pfeffer,

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1994). Contact employees create a favorable image for the firm, deliver promises to the customers, promote the firm's products and services, go beyond their call of duty, and, in general, provide better services than their competitors (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). Moreover, they also play a focal part in securing and retaining the satisfied customers by providing a continuously better service quality.

They are not only required in the private company which has the main objective to maximize profit, but also in the state-owned companies which responsibility includes improving social well-being. One of Indonesian state-owned companies in the micro-finance sector called PT Permodalan Nasional Madani (Persero) has a vision to become a leading financial institution in increasing sustainable value-added for Micro, Small, Medium Enterprises and Cooperatives (MSMEC) based on Good Corporate Governance (GCG) principles. Thus, the company determined some mission statements, such as (1) undertake various efforts to improve the business feasibility and entrepreneurial capability of MSMEC business actors; (2) assist MSMEC actors in obtaining and improving MSMEC financing access to financial institutions, both banks and non-banks which will ultimately increase their contribution in the expansion of employment and the improvement of the welfare of the community; (3) increase employee creativity and productivity to achieve the best performance in the effort of developing MSMEC sector.

From the third mission of the company, it asserts that human resources are the essential pillars of competitive gains at the service-oriented businesses. Husin, Chelladurai, and Musa (2012) stated customers' perspective about the organization are developed by committing the interactions with those staff members who convey services. Thus, the employees are obliged to encourage positive customers' viewpoint, as they are eventually responsible to bring the level of service quality which attains the customers' predictions (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996).

PT Permodalan Nasional Madani (Persero) established Mekaar, which is a financing program targeting the pre-prosperous or poor productive women with a credit amount of only 2 million Rupiah (in average) per person who has or want to develop their micro home-industry. Hence, the phrase of ultra-microcredit is used to address Mekaar microcredit. Mekaar is granted small loans to low-income groups of women who are unreachable by the formal banking system by providing a unique peer-lending model, and successfully reach more than 1,300,000 customers within 2 years. The concept was originated from microcredit practice in Bangladesh; however, Mekaar has been successful in adjusting it with Indonesian culture. The uniqueness of this program is the loans are based on groups of customers consist of 10–15 members who live in the same area. They appoint a team leader who is responsible with an Account Officer to arrange the weekly meetings.

Account Officers act as facilitators between the lender and the borrowers in Mekaar's case who coordinate member groups in certain areas, and everyday they have to conduct approximately three weekly meeting sessions and lead the rituals. As frontliners of Mekaar Program, Account Officers have a big role in carrying out its operational activities, including looking for prospective groups who want to participate in Mekaar Program and maintaining the members' commitment to pay the loan. As a state-owned enterprise that has the role to be an agent of development, PNM also instills the concept of Pancasila (five national principles of Indonesia) as Indonesia ideology to Mekaar's customers, also praying together according to client's religion, and reading customer's promise. Mekaar Program also implements values regarding honesty, discipline, and hard work for every customer. Account Officers also indoctrinate customers with some concepts based on the relevant working areas. Furthermore, the main activity is collecting the members' installment and ensuring that the installment is sufficient regarding the number of members. Therefore, they have to maintain good relationships with members (Rokhim, 2017).

In order to ensure that account officers engage in favorable behaviors when delivering the service, they need supports from their immediate supervisor and organization. The theory as a basis of the relationship is social exchange theory which refers to open-ended role expectations that rely on reciprocity and norms of justice (Blau, 1964, 1968; Organ, 1990). This social exchange process is noticeable and meaningful to employees in an organization so it tends to affect their behaviors. Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986) found that leader-member exchange affected perceived organizational support, and both of them potentially contribute to enhancing the behaviors. Some empirical studies in different contexts also indicated that organizational support generally has a positive effect on employee performance (Kurtessis et al., 2015). However, most research on boundary-spanning service employees has only examined prosocial behaviors such as traditional organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) that are commonly appropriate across jobs and contexts (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). This study focuses on prosocial behaviors which could be defined as helpful behaviors of employees directed toward the organization or other individuals. These behaviors are carrying out as employee's organizational role and are purposed to enhance individuals or organizations' welfare at which they are directed (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Organ, 1988). Prosocial behaviors engaged by boundary spanning employees including role-prescribed behavior, extra-role behavior, cooperation, and internal influence.

The importance of maintaining the gratified customers and great employees for the organizations in the microfinance sector is compelling to be discussed among practitioners and researchers. AO perspectives on relationships with superordinate and institutional support are needed to maintain AO motivation and loyalty to execute the expected behaviors to customers. The prosocial behaviors of contact employees are crucial since they act as frontline service employees (FSEs) which describe the spillover effects of employee attitudes on customer outcomes (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). Thus, based upon the preceding discussion, the objective of this paper is to address these important concerns of examining the links between these two forms of social exchange (LMX and POS) and employees' prosocial behaviors. In specific term, this research investigates the extent to which the relationships of LMX and four categories of prosocial behavior (role-prescribed behavior, extra-role behavior, cooperation, and internal influence) are mediated by POS as social exchange theory would predict.

3.2 Theoretical Background

Social exchange theory portrayed that employees develop exchange relationships both with direct superiors and organizations, as confirmed by research on leader-member exchange (LMX) and perceived organizational support (POS), respectively (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). LMX refers to exchanges between the employee and his/her supervisor (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Meanwhile, POS refers to exchanges between an employee and employing organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

The principle of LMX is dyadic relationships and roles in work negotiated and developed over time through exchanges between members and their leaders (Bauer & Green, 1996). The main difference between LMX and other leadership theories is it combines the relationship between the leader and follower. Leaders behave toward their subordinates differently, and this relationship evolves into a high-quality exchange (familiar, more informal) between leader and some subordinates, while others are based on a more formal, traditional relationship (Burton, Sablynski, & Sekiguchi, 2008). LMX relationship reflects various amounts of information, support, and material resources exchanged between the two parties. The relationship is important for various individual and organizational outcomes. For instance, LMX is positively related to performance of individual with low LMX and performance of groups with high interdependent task (Liden, Erdogan, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2006).

LMX plays a key role in affecting employees' perceptions of organizational support, and it was shown by a prior study that the quality of LMX has a strong effect on POS. Aligned with the concept stated by Eisenberger and colleagues (1986), the exchange between the leader and subordinate may influence POS because the leader is often the source of discretionary rewards provided by an organization. In hierarchically structured organizations, immediate superiors may act as channels of organizational resources, and they also contribute in increasing salary and bonuses as well as in providing information, task and training opportunities, career advice, and emotional support. Furthermore, in high-quality LMX, superiors may introduce subordinates to key individuals in other divisions or units so it enables subordinates to broaden their social network, and eventually lead to additional dividends such as greater information, visibility, and other forms of support (Wayne et al., 1997). To conclude, the nature of the LMX relationship may influence subordinate perceptions of organizational support. Therefore, we propose the hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1 Leader-Member Exchange is positively related to Perceived Organizational Support.

Prior research demonstrated that LMX and subordinate job performance are positively related, and recently other research suggest that there are a number of relevant mediating variables that impact on this relationship (Cogliser, Schriesheim, Scandura, & Gardner, 2009). Tyler and Lind (1992) argued that individual willingness to comply with organizational policies and directives (i.e., perform role-prescribed behaviors) is primarily a function of individual attitudes regarding the legitimacy of rules and authority in the firm. In this study, role-prescribed customer service is one of the job outcomes that is influenced by POS. The legitimacy of managerial authority is reflected in interactional justice, because legitimate authorities are non-arbitrary, consistent, unambiguous, reasonable, and moral. Thus, the direct path from interactional justice to service delivery may reflect the importance of legitimate managerial authority in motivating these behaviors (Bettencourt, Brown, & MacKenzie, 2005).

The important role of being frontline employees are their capability to maintain an appropriate communication with them, treat customers with respect, and deal with customer requests and problems. The person–fit theory argued the person's abilities should match with the requirements or demands of a specific job (Donavan, Brown, & Mowen, 2004). Thus, they could display high-quality performance in service encounters (Karatepe, 2012). Role-prescribed behavior emphasizes the service delivery to customers, and the behaviors including greeting and saying "thank you" to customers, addressing customers by name, showing common courtesy, as well as exhibiting knowledge of policies and products. Studies in marketing fields asserted the importance of those behaviors for service quality perceptions, customer satisfaction, loyalty and sales performance (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988). Those behaviors belong to role-prescribed behavior since it was already established in internal documents such as job descriptions, training materials, and performance evaluation forms (Bettencourt et al., 2005).

Service delivery consists of some positive behaviors such as courtesy, personal attentiveness, responsiveness, and keeping promises. The behaviors potentially lead to service quality perceptions and customer satisfaction (Parasuraman et al., 1988). According to the person-job fit theory, frontline employees should have the abilities to fulfil the demands of their jobs, and they are expected to deal with customer requests and problems promptly, treat customers with politeness and kindness and maintain a consistent level of emotionality during their interactions with customers (Babakus, Yavas, & Ashill, 2009). Such behaviors would be engaged when they perceived support from the organization (Wayne et al., 1997) and leaders. Thus, we propose a hypothesis below:

Hypothesis 2 Leader-Member Exchange is positively related to Role-Prescribed Behavior mediated by Perceived Organizational Support.

Employees' ability to perform the prescribed tasks in their job description is always a good thing for organizations. Nonetheless, their efforts may not suffice in conditions where customer needs are constantly changing and the workplace is becoming more decentralized. Hence, employees need to engage better behaviors in high-contact services industry to meet the unexpected demand of service level (Hamzah, Othman, & Hassan, 2016). The framework of Gouldner (1960) suggested that when a leader or employee provides benefits to the other party which is not mandatory, it would occur reciprocity among them. In a high-quality exchange relationship, the employee would feel committed not only to perform the job regarding the work standard, but also to engage in behaviors that are beyond the scope of usual job expectations and directly benefit the leader. On the other hand, the leader would feel obligated to reciprocate those actions by offering rewards and privileges to employees (Wayne et al., 1997).

Social exchange refers to voluntary actions of an unspecified nature between parties that suggest a personal investment in the other party (Blau, 1964; Organ, 1990). The highlight of voluntary actions makes it the most common theoretical framework for explaining extra-role performance or behaviors (Organ, 1990). Extra-role behaviors is similar to citizenship performance, which refers to discretionary employee behaviors above role requirements, so it benefits the organization (Organ, 1988). Regarding the social exchange theory, Wayne and colleagues (1997) stated that perceived organizational support would contribute to organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) because those behaviors are beneficial to organizations. Specifically, front-line employees play an important part in representing the organization to outsiders and improving the firm's image and legitimacy through their advocacy for the firm (Bettencourt et al., 2005), so they need support from the organization.

POS may influence the quality of the exchange that develops between a leader and his/her employees. Employees who feel well-supported by their organizations are more likely to reciprocate by showing better performance and engaging more in citizenship behavior than those reporting lower level support. It is aligned with the idea of self-fulfilling prophecy that leaders may promote higher quality exchanges and expectations with employees (Wayne et al., 1997). The empirical previous study at hotel industry in India found that unfavorable working conditions (such as elongated working hours, absence of training opportunities, inadequate compensation) viewed that employees do not perceive strong support from their organization, which may hamper the excellent quality of service delivered (Garg & Dhar, 2014), including extra-role behaviors.

Hypothesis 3 Leader-Member Exchange is positively related to Extra-Role Behavior mediated by Perceived Organizational Support.

As discussed earlier, the social exchange process as a basis of LMX captures the relationship between an employee and his/her supervisor (Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002). This norm of reciprocity occurs during the exchange process, and it indicates different aspects between the leader and the members of each group in high and low-quality LMX relationship. Leaders provide privileges to in-group members, such as special information to help them complete tasks, more authority to make decisions, and special mentoring opportunities (Burton et al., 2008). Therefore, it stimulates subordinates to help and being cooperative with other members in the workplace.

Cooperation refers to the helpful behaviors of contact employees to other members of their workgroup. Conceptual and empirical research suggested that the contact employees would deliver exceptional service to external customers when they conduct a good cooperation with other employees of the firm (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997), thus the cooperation becomes important to be considered in the daily work. Cooperation is likely related to altruism, which is a discretionary behavior that helps other persons with respect to organizationally relevant tasks or problems (e.g., voluntarily helping less skilled or new employees and assisting coworkers who are overloaded or absent; Organ, 1988). These cooperative behaviors are not evaluated based upon formal job description, so it may be considered as extra-role behaviors (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994).

Organizational support theory is derived from the social exchange theory to capture connections of employees and the organization. Perceived organizational support (POS), which emphasizes the reciprocations between employees and the organization, consists of beliefs focusing the extent to which the organization cares about their well-being and values their contributions (Eisenberger et al., 1986). POS implies to trust which develops long-term reciprocal obligations (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In addition, workers will exchange effort and dedication to the organization for financial benefits and meet socio-emotional needs such as approval and self-esteem (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). POS also usually generates a responsibility on employees to have a concern for the organization's prosperity and assist the organization to achieve the objectives (Garg & Dhar, 2014). Individuals who perceive of getting support from their organization would feel honored, protected, and acknowledged, and eventually they exhibit assistance, identification, gratitude, and persistent work (Chiang & Hsie, 2012), as well as more cooperative to fulfill the work expectation. Thus, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 4 Leader-Member Exchange is positively related to Cooperation mediated by Perceived Organizational Support.

High-quality LMX relationships encourage the leader to provide favored treatment to employees, such as large support, more growth opportunities, and greater freedom in taking decisions (Liden & Graen, 1980). Hence, the employees tend to contribute internally to their workgroup. Internal influence refers to taking individual initiative in communications to the firm and co-workers to improve service delivery (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1988). Internal influence behaviors are likely to be relatively more discretionary and expand the list of extra-role behaviors (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000). Such behavior is a fundamental concern for contact employees in offering extra effort and conscientiousness in serving customers (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). Furthermore, the concept of POS is describing the development of employee commitment to an organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). POS encourages feelings of obligation from employees, but it is not only obligation to show commitment to their employers, but also feel an obligation to return the employers' commitment or support by engaging in behaviors that enhance organizational goals (Wayne et al., 1997).

In other words, the perception of support from organization implies individuals to feel obligated for making contributions to their organization (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008). Employees seek a balance in their exchange relationships with organizations by engaging attitudes and behaviors consistent with the level of employer support to them as individuals (Wayne et al., 1997). For instance, prior research has shown that POS is positively related to conscientiousness in performing job responsibilities and innovation (Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990), including their contribution through internal influence. They are more likely to contribute by giving opinions and suggestions. For a boundary-spanning position of contact employees, it is critical to share information internally about evolving customer needs and possible advancement in service delivery (Zeithaml et al., 1988).

Hypothesis 5 Leader-Member Exchange is positively related to Internal Influence mediated by Perceived Organizational Support.

3.3 Methodology

3.3.1 Procedures

Participants for this study were recruited from a PT Permodalan Nasional Madani, a state-owned company located in Indonesia. The lead author approached the organization and received permission to approach the supervisors and account officers in all regions within the organization. The employees (Account Officers) were given a packet of information that explained the study via e-mail and asked for them to rate all variables via a URL (online questionnaire). The completed online questionnaires were sent back directly to the researcher.

3.3.2 Participants

Survey questionnaires were administered to as many employees as possible. The Account Officers reported their perceptions of LMX, POS, and behaviors, and neither was able to see the other's responses. Participants were informed about the study prior to survey administration by a letter from a top-level management, and were told that the investigation involved perceptions about immediate leader, organization's support, and their activities during work. Respondents were informed that only the average or summary information across regions would be reported back to the organization for feedback (the data would not be used for individual performance evaluation purposes), and no information would be traceable to an individual employee.

There are 1,153 responses were collected. The majority of respondents were female (98%) and worked in East Java (29%) and West Java (29%) regions. The employees' age were 19–21 years old (70%). Half of the respondents have been working for 6–12 months with their employer and their respective supervisors. They had a short tenure since they worked for a new program created by the state-owned company, and recently the company expand the program throughout Indonesia.

3.3.3 Measures

All employee scales used in the present study were measured on 6-point Likert scales from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). A review of the related literature and focus group discussion with employees prior to the actual surveys confirmed the relevance and clarity of the questions. We conducted a confirmatory factor analysis with all of our scales entered to establish convergent and discriminant validity (NFI = 0.97, RFI = 0.96, TU = 0.98, RMSEA = 0.06). An examination of the individual item factor loadings indicates that the majority of variables are significant.

Leader-Member Exchange. Participants rated the perceived quality of their relationship with their immediate supervisor using the seven-item LMX scale (1 = strongly disagree; 6 = strongly agree) modified from Scandura, Graen, and Novak (1986). Sample items included, "My supervisor and I get along well together" and "I have a successful working relationship with my supervisor". The internal consistency of the measure of this test was 0.87.

Perceived Organizational Support. The statements refer to evaluative judgments attributed to the organization, including support to employees' performance (1, 15), replacement of employee with a lower paid new employees (2), appreciation of the employee's extra effort (3), support towards employees' goals and opinions (4, 14), responses to the employee's possible complaints (5), employee's well-being (6, 8, 12, 13), help from the employer (7, 10), improvement in performance (9), satisfaction at work (11). The items were developed by Eisenberger and colleagues (1986) with 6-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 6 = strongly agree). The internal consistency of the measure of this test was 0.87.

Prosocial Service Behaviors. Unlike most previous research, the behaviors measures were acquired from contact employees rather than from their supervisors. According to Netemeyer, Boles, McKee, and McMurrian (1997), self-report measures in sales performance context have been consistent with manager's assessments and also could suggest a richer perspective of various behaviors of which managers are typically unaware. In this study, contact employees responded to 5 items using six-point Likert scale, ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree".

Extra-Role Customer Service. The measurement scale was developed by Bettencourt and Brown (1997). Items were generated based upon conceptual distinctions between role-prescribed and extra-role behavior provided by Organ (1988), while making specific reference to the customer in each item generated. The extra-role behaviors consisted of five items and the sample items as follows "Voluntarily assists customers even if it means going beyond job requirements" and "Helps customers with problems beyond what is expected or required". The internal consistency of the measure of this test was 0.87.

Role-Prescribed Customer Service. Measurement scales for role-prescribed customer service had to be generated for the study by Bettencourt and Brown (1997). A total of five indicators positively worded were developed to tap the dimensions role-prescribed customer service. The sample items are "Performs all those tasks for customers that are required of him/her" and "Meets formal performance requirements when serving customers". The internal consistency of the measure of this test was 0.87.

Cooperation. Cooperation was measured using a five-item subscale of the Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale, developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990). These items were slightly modified to make them more clearly refer to helping other employees (Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). For instance, "Helps other employees who have heavy workloads" and "Helps orient new employees even though it is not required". The internal consistency of the measure of this test was 0.87.

Internal influence. Internal influence aims to capture the extent to which a person takes individual initiative to communicate with leaders and co-workers to improve service delivery. It was measured by a four-item scale based on conceptual definitions related to prosocial behavior and service quality constructs (e.g., Parasuraman et al., 1988). Furthermore, it was modified by Bettencourt and colleagues (2005). The sample items were "Makes constructive suggestions for service improvement" and "Shares creative solutions to customer problems with other team members".

3.4 Results

3.4.1 Descriptive Statistics

To test our hypotheses, structural equation modeling (SEM) is performed with the five constructs measured in this study using LISREL 8.51 through maximum likelihood estimation. LISREL method used because the model includes latent variables, such as LMX, POS, and prosocial behaviors. The results of the descriptive statistics of the indicators are presented in Table 3.1. From the table below, cooperation has the highest mean (4.99), it is reasonable since Indonesia has a collectivism culture. Meanwhile, extra-role behavior has the lowest mean (3.66) because Account Officers have to follow a rigid procedures given by the organization, and they have a tight schedule to attend every weekly meeting. This condition hampers them to engage with high extra-role behaviors.

Table 3.1 Statistical summary: descriptive statistics with N = 1,153

Construct	Mean	Std deviation
Leader-member exchange	4.5386	0.98634
Perceived organizational support	4.3317	0.81872
Role-prescribed behavior	5.0430	0.79194
Extra-role behavior	3.6552	1.13331
Cooperation	4.9938	0.89863
Internal influence	4.7218	0.94864

3.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

According to the first stage of Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) approach, the measurement of variables ought to be assessed by systemically representing constructs in the theoretical model. The adequacy of CFA is evaluated using two criteria, namely an assessment of the goodness of model fit and an assessment of research constructs by exploring validity and reliability.

Results of the confirmatory measurement model showed one indicator of LMX in CFA model that did not meet the cut-off factor loadings value of 0.5, namely LMX7 (0.44). Furthermore, eight indicators of POS also did not meet the cut-off loading value since the statements were reversed so respondents might not sufficiently understand with the statements. The items were POS2 (0.27), POS3 (0.31), POS5 (0.44), POS6 (0.41), POS8 (0.40), POS9 (0.41), POS12 (0.26), and POS13 (−0.25). Meanwhile, there is one indicator of Role-Prescribed Behavior and Extra-Role Behavior which has loading values of less than 0.5, namely RP2 and ER3, with 0.31 and 0.11 respectively. Thus, we conducted respecification for the measurement model by eliminating these indicators for further analysis. After respecification, the confirmatory measurement model shows the data are almost Good Fit (χ^2 [df = 394] = 2,164.34, p = 0.0; Goodness of Fit Index [GFI] = 0.89; Comparative Fit Index [CFI] = 0.91; Non-normed Fit Index [NFI] = 0.90; Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.91; Normed Chi-square = 2.30; and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation [RMSEA] = 0.062).

The measurement instrument reliability can be confirmed as Cronbach's alpha exceeds the minimum value of 0.6 (Malhotra et al., 2012). In addition, average variance extracted (AVE) for LMX, POS, RPB, ERB, CO, and II are 0.55, 0.47, 0.61, 0.57, 0.63, 0.68, respectively. All the constructs' AVE exceed the minimum threshold of 0.50 (Hair et al., 2006), except for POS. According to Hatcher (1994), AVE that does not meet the minimum value requirement of 0.50 is not a problem because AVE is often found to have a value below 0.50 in several previous studies, even though the value of CR is above the threshold. Finally, based on Table 3.2, the construct reliability (CR) values for constructs are 0.86, 0.64, 0.86, 0.84, 0.89, 0.89, respectively, thus meeting the minimum value of 0.60. Moreover, factor loadings for all constructs are ranging from 0.61 to 0.86, which exceed the minimum criterion of

Table 3.2 Discriminant validity assessment

Construct	AVE	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
(1) Perceived organizational support	0.47	1.00					
(2) Role-prescribed behavior	0.61	0.53	1.00				
(3) Extra-role behavior	0.57	0.17	0.10	1.00			
(4) Cooperation	0.63	0.47	0.31	0.09	1.00		
(5) Internal influence	0.68	0.55	0.34	0.10	0.30	1.0	
(6) Leader-member exchange	0.55	0.67	0.55	0.15	0.50	0.50	1.00

0.50 (Hair et al., 2006). Thus, our CFA results show signs of reliability and convergent validity for all research constructs.

To assess discriminant validity, we compared the correlation matrix and the square root of AVE (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). As shown in Table 3.2, the square root of AVE—diagonal elements in the table—are larger than the correlation matrix—the off-diagonal elements (this condition was fulfilled except for LMX-POS). Thus, although it is suggested to globally evaluate the results for all the inter-correlation between items; it confirms the measurement model's discriminant validity.

3.6 Structural Analysis and Hypotheses Testing

To test the hypotheses, we used structural equation modeling with LISREL 8.51. The assessment of the proposed model has been performed using the following criteria: the assessment of overall model goodness of fit and the statistical significance of the model hypotheses parameters (Akamavi, Mohamed, Pellmann, & Xu, 2015). From the assessment of the goodness of fit index, we find that the structural model provides a somewhat Good Fit to the data (χ^2 [df = 394] = 2,379.39, p = 0.0; Goodness of Fit index [GFI] = 0.88; Comparative Fit Index [CFI] = 0.91; Non-normed Fit Index [NFI] = 0.90; Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.91; and root mean square error of approximation [RMSEA] = 0.066). Therefore, it is feasible to test the proposed hypotheses.

Results of the structural model are presented in Diagram 3.1. We resort to these results to test the hypotheses. First, LMX is positively related to POS (H1; β = 19.27); these results indicate that leader-member exchange leads to the organizational support perceived by employees. Second, the results show that LMX has significant, positive relations with all of the prosocial behaviors, except extra-role behavior (H3; β = 1.43). The relationships with prosocial behaviors are as follow: role-prescribed behavior (H2; β = 8.24), cooperation (H4; β = 7.38), and internal influence (H5; β = 5.67). The result also shows that POS has significant, positive relations with all prosocial behaviors—role-prescribed behavior, extra-role behavior, cooperation, and internal influence (H6; β = 6.90, H7; β = 2.28, H8; β = 5.92, H9; β = 9.01, respectively).

Third, the result of the structural model shows that Hypotheses 6, 7, 8, and 9 are supported. It means POS mediates the relationship between LMX and all prosocial behaviors. The LMX affects POS, in turn enhances role-prescribed behavior (H6; total effect = 0.54), extra-role behavior (H7; total effect = 0.15), cooperation (H8; total effect = 0.49), and internal influence (H9; total effect = 0.50).

Moreover, Table 3.3 depicts the total effects among variables. From these data, the strongest total effect is among leader-member exchange, perceived organizational support and role-prescribed behavior (0.5443). Meanwhile, the weakest total effect is among leader-member exchange, perceived organizational support and extra-role behavior (0.1537).

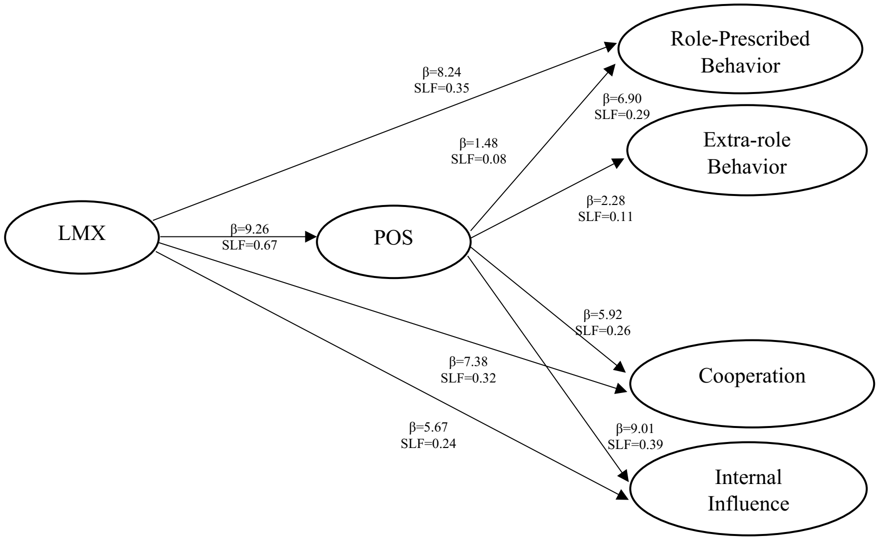

Diagram 3.1 Structural equation model results

Table 3.3 Direct effect, indirect effect, total effect

Path	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
LMX → POS → Role-prescribed behavior	0.35	0.1943	0.5443
LMX → POS → Extra-role behavior	0.08	0.0737	0.1537
LMX → POS → Cooperation	0.32	0.1742	0.4942
LMX → POS → Internal influence	0.24	0.2613	0.5013

3.7 Discussion

In general, we found that Account Officers (AOs) who are contact employees of PNM have good and somewhat close relationships with their supervisors (4.54) and organization (4.33). This study reveals that LMX between supervisors and AOs indicates that AOs respect and admire their supervisors, and they can get along with those supervisors. Regarding POS, PNM appreciates the contribution of AOs to the welfare of the company and really cares about AO's wellbeing. However, PNM is lack of focus in recognizing the purpose and value of AOs, providing help when AOs have problems, paying attention to AOs' satisfaction and achievement, and hearing and following up on AOs' opinions. Furthermore, they are also engaged in prosocial behaviors as reciprocation of supervisors and organization who have benefited them, and this empirically support the norm of reciprocity. Among four types of prosocial behaviors, the role-prescribed behavior has the highest average score (5.04), meanwhile extra-role behavior has the lowest average score (3.66). This means that AOs have performed their role according to the job description.

However, AOs are somewhat reluctant to do things outside of job descriptions, and this can be due to unawareness of the importance of extra-role, fear of being wrong, lack of time, or lack of initiative. The remaining two prosocial behaviors, namely cooperation and internal influence, show the somewhat high scores by 4.99 and 4.72, respectively. It implies that AOs are willing to help each other and this may relate to Indonesian culture (collectivism), so they emphasize teamwork rather than focusing on individual interest. Moreover, they also participate in developing PNM by providing input and suggestions. They usually convey their opinions during daily briefing in the morning or evaluation sessions in the evening, which are attended by all AOs in the certain area and supervisor.

Specifically, as shown in Diagram 3.1, the proposed model is reasonable, and the majority of hypothetical relationships are supported. An essential implication of this study is the significance of high-quality leader-member relations promotes organizational support perceived by AOs. Subsequently, it was found that a high level of POS is more associated with prosocial behaviors. Our results also demonstrate that social exchange theory does indeed provide a solid theoretical foundation for understanding the influence of LMX and POS on prosocial behaviors, especially role-prescribed behaviors, extra-role behavior, cooperation, and internal influence. It also offers complementary findings to prior marketing studies of OCBs that indicate that these exchanges among organization, leaders, and contact employees who have the main job description to conduct activities with customers lead to a variety of important prosocial behaviors.

Specifically, the results revealed that LMX has a positive relationship with POS (H1 is supported). Consistently, POS was dominated by LMX when tested with structural equation modeling, a multivariate technique (Wayne et al., 1997). It shows that employees' point of view that organization is valuable, considers their values, helps to solve their problems, concerns with their satisfaction, are affected by perceptions about their relationships with supervisors. On the other hand, if they experience a low quality of LMX, they are less likely to perceive support from the organization.

As expected, LMX is positively related to role-prescribed behaviors, cooperation, and internal influence that directly benefit leaders (H2, H4, and H5 are supported). These results support a social exchange perspective, whereby an employee may help a leader by performing required job activities well, have a willingness to help other coworkers, and contribute through giving opinions or suggestions in exchange for benefits provided by the leader through LMX. It is aligned with previous research, which explained that LMX theory suggests that an interpersonal relationship evolves between supervisors and subordinates (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Both parties must provide something between each other, and the exchange should be valuable and fair (Graen & Scandura, 1987).

Among other behaviors, role-prescribed behavior has the strongest relationship with LMX. The reason is contact employees who have an exchange and good relation with their immediate supervisor exhibit good in-role performance by taking positive attitudes and avoiding unnecessary complaints during their service delivery. The AOs are recruited from those areas who love fieldwork. With support from leaders, they enjoy providing financial assistance to pre-prosperous women groups to attain work targets, and to improve their knowledge about local areas and culture. They also perceive that their supervisors enhance their public speaking and leadership skills. However, when employees are low in LMX, they may lack the capability for delivering quality services.

LMX can also enhance the cooperation both directly and indirectly. It can be said that when employees believe that their managers are trustworthy, they tend to have a willingness to work together with their coworkers and have energy to help other contact employees (e.g., unskilled or new employees or temporarily overburdened ones). High LMX behavior creates a positive, cooperative organizational climate that can indirectly spill over onto the customers (Yoon & Suh, 2003). LMX also strongly affect cooperation since Indonesian culture values collectivism, so they tend to help others. However, if employees often focus on the negative side of their organizations or jobs and tend to find fault with supervisors and trivial things, it may undermine teamwork that may impair services for customers. Bettencourt (1997) stated that scholars have increasingly recognized the importance of behaviors such as cooperation among coworkers.

Furthermore, employees' good relations with managers are positively related to internal influence. They are very active in showing concern for their organization and giving recommendations for the improvement of service operations. The supports from leaders also promote their intention to share creative solutions and ideas. These supports enable AOs to broaden the experience and to improve PNM to be be accepted by the community. If they have a low LMX, they would spend their time and energy on complaining about trivial issues, rather than contribute through conveying their opinions to improve the organization.

Our study supported the majority of the hypotheses. However, we also found an unexpected discrepancy between our findings and the hypothetical relationships. Our model failed to present evidence for direct positive relationship between LMX and extra-role behavior (H3 is not supported). LMX reveals an unexpected non-significant correlation with the extra-role behavior measure. Thus, in our study, LMX between leader and contact employees does not directly contribute to behavior beyond work standard. Other studies, however, have provided support for a positive relationship between LMX and extra-role behavior (e.g., Wayne et al., 1997; Bettencourt & Brown, 1997). One possible explanation for the lack of relationships has to do with the number of other important variables which also impact extra-role behavior excluded in our study (e.g., job satisfaction, organizational commitment). Otherwise, LMX cannot have an immediate effect on extra-role behavior since it will take considerable time to convert their LMX into behaviors which are beyond the standards. The non-significant relationship between the measure of contact employee LMX and extra-role behavior also indicate the need for further research.

POS has direct, positive relationships with role-prescribed behavior, extra-role behavior, cooperation, and internal influence. Moreover, it mediates the relationship between LMX and those types of prosocial behaviors (H6, H7, H8, and H9 are supported). Specifically, POS acts as a partial mediator in the effect of LMX on role-prescribed behavior, cooperation, and internal influence. The results suggest that they can perceive support from the organization by feeling support from leaders. Such employees, in turn, display elevated levels of those three prosocial behaviors.

The results demonstrated that the total effects of LMX on role-prescribed behavior through POS were generally stronger than the total effects of LMX on cooperation and internal influence. It implies that LMX advances role-prescribed behavior directly and through the POS. We found that employees have more perceived support from the organization when they have a strong relationship with their managers and have more belief about them in relational exchange, then employees behave more in ways regarding regulation or work standard by their supervisors. Contact employees' POS appear to be powerful mediating variables between LMX and employees' behavior to engage established job tasks. Consistently, research has shown that POS is positively related to conscientiousness in performing responsibilities (Eisenberger et al., 1990). When organizations respect and care about their employees, it would enhance employees' desire to engage with prosocial behavior.

The effect of LMX on cooperation and internal influence through POS is not as strong as the effect on role-prescribed behavior. This study shows that support from leaders will encourage POS that inspires employees to be helpful and cooperative, so it contributes to better services. The cooperation is implemented through participation in informal mentoring of new or less skilled contact employees or assistance for other contact employees that are temporarily overburdened. Furthermore, they are also engaged with internal influence through conveying voluntary suggestions from contact employee as boundary spanner to improve service quality. Thus, it is important to attain the effectiveness of organizations and, in turn, maximize service excellence (Yoon & Suh, 2003).

Nevertheless, POS acts a full mediator between LMX and extra-role behavior. Even if the empirical results were not so strong, it can be suggested that contact employees engaging in LMX, such as able to get along with leaders, greatly contribute to effective perceive support from organization, which, in turn, leads to extra-role behaviors (e.g., go beyond call of duty to make a customer satisfied) then increases quality service for external customers. This finding empirically supports an important role of POS in social exchange that generates voluntary behaviors. Garg and Dhar (2014) stated that individuals who evaluate leaders' intentions and feel identified with their organization tend to work in a more superior way than individuals who hardly stay because of some liability.

To some extent, the results align with Liden and Graen (1980), in which employees reporting high-quality LMX relationships make them going the extra mile for customers and contributing beyond their formal job duties. However, in this study, the relationship could not occur directly, but mediated by POS instead. This result was important since previous research stated that OCB or extra-role behavior has strong bonding relationships with service quality (Yoon & Suh, 2003). Moreover, researchers explained that extra-role behaviors facilitate effectiveness and efficiency, because OCBs allow managers to devote more time to productive activities, also enable workers to utilize resources efficiently and to perform their jobs effectively (Organ, 1988; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994).

3.8 Strengths, Limitations, and Future Research

To conclude, the main strength of this study is that it reveals the mediating role of perceived organizational support in the relationship between LMX and prosocial behaviors. In addition, the results indicate that LMX directly influence some aspects of prosocial behaviors, except cooperation. This study is also related to contact employees as boundary spanners who have responsibilities to maximize service quality to customers, and we do not only focus on role-prescribed behaviors, but also on extra-role behaviors, cooperation, and internal influence, which could be critical factors that determine the level of service quality. Moreover, the study uses a large sample size in many regions in Indonesia with 1,353 employees. It is expected that this study can stimulate other analysts to further examine the role of LMX and POS in the alignment of prosocial behaviors.

However, the findings also lead to several limitations which suggest avenues for future research. First, our sample included AOs of Mekaar Program, who are predominantly female (98%) and had been with the company for 6–12 months since the program was new and the company was expansive to recruit new employees. Therefore, it may affect the generalizability of our results to the extent that gender may moderate some of the relationships we identified. Thus, the findings of this study may not be relevant to those industries where there is a large number of males, like staffs in the hotel industry or mechanics in the automotive industry. Further replication of the hypothesized relationships in the conceptual model would be fruitful.

Second, this study is established on the data from a state-owned microfinance company which allocates loans to low-economic women in Indonesia. In the future, it is important to test the conceptual model with a larger and more diverse sample other than microfinance settings to obtain more evidence for the sake of generalizability, for instance, the banking or insurance industry, hotel industry, and so on. Moreover, future research could conduct a cross-national study through data collected from account officers in the other similar countries who have a similar program, such as Bangladesh. Thus it would shed further light on the understanding of LMX, POS, and prosocial behaviors.

Third, the data are collected via a survey method with self-reported questionnaires. Previous studies suggested that self-ratings are least biased (Scullen, Mount, & Goff, 2000). However, the self-ratings may suffer the potency of common method bias that should be figured out when examining the results. In addition, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Lee (2003) suggested collecting the predictor and criterion variables from different rating sources. This study uses only employee ratings of all constructs, but using only manager ratings of prosocial behaviors would be ill-advised in this research due to managers have limited knowledge of the extent to which employees engage in these behaviors. Moreover, ratings from manager also subject to their own biases, such as liking, halo, and leniency. Specifically, related to LMX, Schriesheim, Castro, Zhou, and Yammarino (2001) have argued that all research in this field should collect data from both the supervisors and the subordinates, since LMX is by definition dyadic. Thus, it is better to combine the data from two independent rating sources, namely self-ratings and manager-ratings, with the average of these responses. This will improve our ability to accurately capture the constructs.

Fourth, another limitation is that this study uses cross-sectional data. We can only conclude that our model is a feasible explanation of the observed relationships. Future studies should conduct in a longer period of time so it would be useful for making firm causal inferences. We agree that future researcher should embrace longitudinal studies to examine more relevant conclusions on how LMX affects a variety of outcomes at different developmental points in the relationship with other constructs. Future research is needed to examine how LMX and POS develop over time.

For the future studies, researchers can add other variables that can serve as independent, dependent, or mediating variables. Other leadership styles also could be potential predictors, namely transformational leadership and transactional leadership. Another variable that can be included is job resources (e.g., training, co-worker support) which can be mediated by customer orientation on prosocial behaviors. Other variables which could be predictors are organizational justice which can assist organizations to develop increased perceived support (DeConinck, 2010), also burnout and role ambiguity which probably has a relationship with OCB (Bettencourt et al., 2005). Some variables also potentially act as mediators in the relationship of LMX with OCB. POS and LMX are considered as a key predictor of organizational commitment (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994) and trust (DeConinck, 2010). LMX is proved related to goal commitment (Klein & Kim, 1998), career satisfaction and salary progression (Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, & Graf, 1999). On the other hand, OCB is affected by job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983), fairness perceptions (Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990), and organizational commitment (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Ahearne, 1998). Future research could also investigate some variables as criterion of OCB, such as the impact of OCBs on manager's performance evaluation (Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997), role stressors (Yoon & Suh, 2003), turnover intentions (Karatepe & Douri, 2012). Other dependent variables could also be considered, such as customer satisfaction and service quality perceptions (Parasuraman et al., 1988).

3.9 Managerial Implications

Our research encourages managers to develop a better relationship with employees, so it promotes the organizational support perceived by POS. Interestingly, role-prescribed behavior and cooperation are more likely to be affected by LMX, meanwhile, extra-role behavior and internal influence tend to be influenced by POS. Thus, both of these social exchange concepts have to be considered.

Regarding the LMX theory, relationships between leaders and subordinates could be classified as "stranger" (low), "acquaintance" (moderate), or "partner" (high). The objective of organizations is to develop systems that generate high quality "partner" relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991, 1995). The LMX theory implies that there are crucial job consequences from the quality of the relationship between the leaders and group members. Leaders treat in-group and out-group differently, specifically leaders invest more resources towards in-group members who expect to perform well rather than out-group members. Thus, leaders should create high-quality relationships with as many subordinates as possible, and they are suggested to increase the number of in-group members and decrease the number of out-group members (George & Jones, 2008). Moreover, this microfinance state-owned company area managers should aware of the perceptions of support that affect the quality of LMX and provide favorable treatments for employees. It is important for leaders to pay attention to how subordinates perceive the way leaders distinguish between high and low LMX subordinates. If the differentiation is based on objective and fair criteria, subordinates are more likely to continue exchanges (Erdogan, Liden, & Kraimer, 2006).

To increase the relationship between leaders and subordinates, they have to focus on the branch and organization's goal, and believe in their ability to attain the goals. In order to enhance the sense of identification and emotional experience, the organization should conduct leadership development programs which incorporates with coaching (Kark & Van-Dijk, 2007). In the collectivist culture, it is likely to be directive and supportive leaders to stimulate the favorable attitudes and behaviors (Garg & Dhar, 2014). When disagreements arise among employees, leaders also need to show authentic, respectful, and assertive approach to resolve differences and create a culture which promotes high-quality relationships and facilitates development. Moreover, when disagreements occur between leaders and members, HR Department should play the role as a facilitator, so it enables them to solve problems and develop effective relationships.

Generally, to increase perceived organizational support, leaders should build high-quality leaders-subordinate relationships (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). The management should stimulate respect for each other's work potentials, trust of each other's intentions, and mutual obligation to establish a strong organization-member exchange. They also need to focus on improving a frequent and effective communication with subordinates and encouraging the interaction throughout the organization. They also give examples of how to work effectively and efficiently.

Related to human resources system, some areas are crucial to be improved. In the stage of selection and placement, management have to focus on potential relationship in addition to technical factors. Management should also provide training programs that can enable them to provide excellent service and to build networks with potential and existing customers. Management should also have specific criteria related to performance appraisal and reward systems that include components addressing effective relationship development. Training programs for managers are needed to minimize errors in appraising subordinates' performance (Latham & Wexley, 1994). Some facilities which should be provided by this organization are increasing the salary and benefits since they only earn the standard minimum wage, and more flexible working hours or at least additional day-off since they work six days per week. Previous empirical findings also have shown that favorable working conditions, unbiased treatment, rewards, as well as supervisory support are specifically influential for higher POS (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Moreover, AOs are lack of extra-role behavior since they not sufficient time to engage with customers and they might be fear to conduct the behavior because they think it will break the rules. Thus supports to serve beyond call duty also have to be announced to AOs.

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Chapter 4
The Construction of Positive Leader Identity: Acquiring a Leadership Position and Being Accepted by Others

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Abstract One key to effective leadership is possessing positive leader identity that is derived from acquiring a leadership position and being accepted by others. We conducted a research to further the understanding about identity construction. Based on the social identity perspective, we assume that leader group prototypicality, leadership self-efficacy, leader endorsement, and leader group-oriented behavior are likely to form a positive leader identity. To minimize common method bias, we collected data from two different sources (leaders and followers), and analyzed 80 pairs of leaders and followers using multiple moderated regression. Analysis shows: (1) positive leader identity is influenced by leadership self-efficacy and leader group prototypicality; and (2) leader group-oriented behavior powerfully moderates the relationship between leader group prototypicality and positive leader identity. These findings indicate that leaders are able to construct a positive identity even when their characteristics are not group prototypical, as long as they are perceived to be group oriented. Our results suggest a promising future for non-prototypical leaders, and explain how they are able to construct a positive leader identity. Further, although previous research has supported the role of leader endorsement on positive leader identity, our data set does not. We discuss the contribution of this research and related managerial implications, especially in a high power distance country like Indonesia.

Keywords Leadership · Social identity · Positive identity · Group prototypicality · Self efficacy · Group-oriented behavior · Indonesia

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4.1 Introduction

The elected president of the Philippines, Duterte, had a policy with its main agenda being to eliminate the use of illegal drugs in the Philippines through a policy of killing everyone who was involved in the drug industry, which included not only drug traffickers but also users. This policy received attention from all around the world, especially those involved in human rights activities (Almendral, 2016). As a result of his policy, at least 1,400 people died during his presidency (Almendral, 2016). While other nations questioned his leadership and controversial policy in the first three months of his presidency, including then American President Barack Obama, he actually received support from 86% of the Filipino people (McKenzie & Liptak, 2016). Despite the fact that other countries were against his policy, Duterte said he was the *"president of a sovereign country"* and that he was *"not answerable to anyone except the Filipino people"* (McKenzie & Liptak, 2016). It shows that, Duterte retained his identity as a leader after receiving major support from local people who viewed him in high regard.

Leadership is ambiguous, with no clear universally accepted definition (Bass & Bass, 2008). As individual definitions of self depends on their work environments (Dutton, Roberts, & Bednar, 2010), so too does their understanding of leadership. It is not surprising that leaders have different conceptions of who they are, and that different people perceive the characteristics of effective leaders differently. Duterte's response to criticisms over his policies, as well as to how the public reacted to them, show us that the way in which leaders define themselves—and are perceived by others—is very much dependent on the context of their surroundings, suggesting the importance of the social identity perspective to study leader identity.

Leader identity is a form of social identity that can be evaluated either positively or negatively (Ashmore, Deaux, & McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004). The concept of positive leader identity refers to an individual's favorable evaluation of his/her own social identity as a leader (Ashmore et al., 2004; Karelaia & Guillen, 2014; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). As a form of social identity evaluation in organizational settings, positive leader identity is related to desirable leadership qualities. Previous research has demonstrated that leaders who regard their leader identity positively are consequently more motivated to lead (Guillen, Mayo, & Korotov, 2015; Karelaia & Guillen, 2014), and arguably, may also cope better with stress and be better able to learn and adapt to new working environments (Dutton et al., 2010).

While Dutton et al. (2010) in their study have proposed several perspectives through which to explain positive identity construction, DeRue and Ashford (2010) argued that identity as a leader is shaped by the reciprocal act between individuals of claiming and granting. A leader without followers simply cannot be a leader, since leadership requires an interpersonal relationship (Day & Harrison, 2007). Thus, leader identity can be established through reciprocal claiming and granting between leaders and followers (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). *Claiming* is an act in which people assert themselves as holding either a leader or follower identity, whereas *granting* is an act by which people second the leader or follower identity claim made by others (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). When someone claims to be a leader and the claim is granted by his/her followers, leader identity is constructed. Further, having favorable regard for one's work-related identities can serve as a foundation for a positive identity (Dutton et al., 2010).

To test DeRue and Ashford's (2010) theory, Marchiondo, Myers, and Kopelman (2015) in their study conducted two experiments. Using avatar-based video vignettes, they presented to participants several manipulated scenarios, simulating interactions between claiming and granting acts by leaders and followers in a decision-making context. This study shows that the perception of leadership, rated by participants who watched the video, is established when someone displays leader-like behaviors and those behaviors are accepted by others. This justifies the claiming and granting theory proposed by DeRue and Ashford (2010). With the exception of that research, there is still a paucity of empirical research on how positive leader identity is built; thus, we aim to investigate this matter in the present study using these two theories as our basis.

We focus on examining how several factors (i.e., leader group prototypicality, leadership self-efficacy, leader endorsement, and leader group-oriented behavior) may help leaders regard their leader identity positively, using the evaluative perspective (Dutton et al., 2010) and claiming-granting mechanism (DeRue & Ashford, 2010) as ground rules. We will argue that leader group prototypicality, leadership self-efficacy, and leader endorsement can predict positive leader identity, and that the effect of leader group prototypicality on positive leader identity is better understood through its interaction with leader group-oriented behavior. We will also explain how the claiming mechanism is reflected through leadership self-efficacy, while the granting mechanism is revealed through leader endorsement, leader group prototypicality, and leader group-oriented behavior. All factors also stand for materials that leaders can use to positively evaluate their leader identity. Our conceptual model and hypotheses are presented below.

4.2 Positive Leader Identity Construction Through the Claiming and Granting Mechanism

4.2.1 Positive Leader Identity

The concept of positive leader identity is rooted in social identity theory. Identity itself is a collection of meanings attached to the self (Gecas, 1982), and can be acquired by individuals through their identification with a social group (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). A social group can be viewed as an anchor that not only gives individuals a sense of oneness and belonging (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), but also helps them to define themselves and their place in society (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Leader identity is an example of a social identity that may be held by individuals. Other examples include gender identity and ethnic identity. One's social identity can be negatively or positively regarded through evaluation (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). The evaluation itself consists of two components: private regard; and public regard (Ashmore et al., 2004). *Private regard* is an evaluation that represents how individuals view themselves—in this case, the social identity in question—while *public regard* represents their perceptions on how others view them. When a leader holds favorable private and public regard toward his/her own social identity as a leader, a positive leader identity emerges.

Scholars have proposed several propositions regarding how positive leader identity may be built. That is, through the mechanism of claiming and granting (DeRue & Ashford, 2010) and through evaluations of leader identity itself (Dutton et al., 2010). When an individuals' leadership claims is reinforced by others, and leader identity is also looked upon favorably, positive leader identity can be shaped.

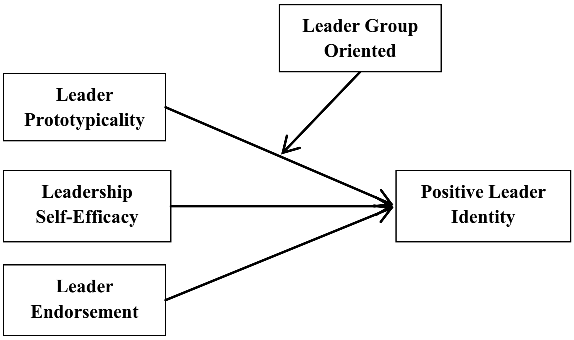
4.2.2 Leadership Self-efficacy

The mechanism of claiming and granting (DeRue & Ashford, 2010) explains that leader identity can be positively evaluated if leaders view themselves as competent and capable leader, and if this view is accepted and valued by others (Dutton et al., 2010). One construct that closely relates to how leaders see themselves is leadership self-efficacy.

Leadership self-efficacy is a specific form of efficacy that is associated with an individual's confidence in his/her knowledge, skills, and abilities in leading others (Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008). It is built through an individual's perception and judgment about his/her own capability to effectively perform leadership roles (Paglis & Green, 2002). This positive evaluation induces positive identity in which people evaluate their personal characteristics favorably–for instance, through seeing themselves as competent, capable, accepted, and valued by others (see Rosenberg, 1979), in this case their identity as a leader. As part of identity development, Stets and Burke (2000) explain that self-verification involves an attempt to justify and maintain one's claimed identity, which then fuels further positive self-evaluation by displaying the expected behaviors of the identity they identify with.

Individuals who possess higher leadership self-efficacy are often rated highly as potential leaders and they display a higher capacity for fulfilling the roles as a leader (Chan & Drasgow, 2004). The confidence shown by a leader on their way of leading may also increase the salience of leader identity which tend to foster the claiming process of a leader identity (Epitropaki, Kark, Mainemelis, & Lord, 2017). Leaders may claim their leadership identity either explicitly *("volunteer to be the leader of a project")* or implicitly *("standing in front of the row when getting in a line")* (Marchiondo et al., 2015). Both are shown as an act to strongly state oneself as a leader within a particular group (Marchiondo et al., 2015). These negotiation processes serve to establish a leadership role for him/herself, as the claiming process is effective in establishing confidence as the central virtue of leadership to the person.

Fig. 4.1 Research model



Aside from opening the way to claiming process, having a high leadership self-efficacy strengthens an individual's leadership identity. Thinking that one is capable as a group member (in this case, thinking as a capable leader having a high leadership self-efficacy) signals a positive self-esteem, which may turn one's identity to be more positive (Dutton et al., 2010). Therefore, we argue that:

Hypothesis 1 Leadership self-efficacy is positively related to positive leader identity (Fig. 4.1).

4.2.3 Leader Group Prototypicality

Leadership is a process that develops within a group and is influenced by prototypicality. "Prototype" here refers to a cognitive representation of attributes or features, such as beliefs, attitudes, feelings, and behaviors, which characterizes a group and distinguishes it from other groups (Hogg, 2001). This representation differs from person to person, from one environment to another, and from culture to culture. Quaquebeke, Knippenberg, and Brodbeck's (2011) research on 265 employees in Germany revealed that leaders who are inspirational, future oriented, and confidence builders are considered prototypical of ideal leaders. In another case, 289 middle managers in Turkey reported that those who promote team integration, collaboration, and diplomacy are also regarded as desired leaders (Brodbeck et al., 2000). From these two studies, it can be concluded that different combinations of attributes can be presented as ideal leadership characteristics.

Leader group prototypicality is defined as the extent to which a leader's characteristics are representative of the characteristics of his/her group or organization (Hogg, 2001; Pierro, Cicero, Bonaiuto, van Knippenberg, & Kruglanski, 2005). Leader group prototypicality has been associated with several positive qualities, such as group orientedness, perceived leader effectiveness, leader endorsement, and social attraction from fellow group members (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008; Giessner, van Knippenberg, van Ginkel, & Sleebos, 2013; Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001; van

Knippenberg, 2011). Therefore, prototypical group members have a higher potential to emerge as group leaders (Hogg, 2001). They even tend to be accepted as role models and be supported in promoting group dynamics (Grillel, Schutel, & Kauffeld, 2015). This acceptance and positive evaluation from other group members contributes to the private and public regards that are held by the leaders. Thus, leader group prototypicality can serve as an advantageous positive evaluation for leaders to positively regard their leader identity.

Hypothesis 2 Leader group prototypicality is positively related to positive leader identity (Fig. 4.1).

4.2.4 Leader Endorsement

Leader endorsement is defined as support for leaders, signified by expressions of satisfaction toward the leader's performance in directing the group, willingness to cooperate with the leader and accept his/her influence, and commitment of group members to the incumbency of the leader in his/her role (Julian, Hollander, & Regula, 1969; Michener & Lawler, 1975; Van Vugt & De Cremer, 2002). Endorsing a leader conveys the idea that people desire leadership and that they are willing to collaborate with his/her directives (Van Vugt & De Cremer, 2002). Experiments conducted by Julian et al. (1969) and Michener and Lawler (1975), found that the participating college students were willing to support their leaders when they thought that the leaders were competent, fair, and would able to aid their team to success. The result indicates that leaders are expected to have particular qualities in order to earn support from their followers. This support is not only short term (now) but also long term (future).

We argue that leader endorsement plays a significant role in the construction of leader identity in the form of granting; this is as attitudes of group members toward the leader help leaders to establish and maintain their influence within a group (Michener & Lawler, 1975). Leader endorsement also represents the element of leader identity in which the leader is "*relationally recognized through the adoption of reciprocal role identities as leader and follower*" (DeRue & Ashford, 2010, p. 629). It indicates that followers accept and support their leader's claim to leadership, aiding the construction of positive leader identity. Therefore, we hypothesized that

Hypothesis 3 Leader endorsement is positively associated with positive leader identity (Fig. 4.1).

4.2.5 Leader Group-Oriented Behavior

Irrespective of leaders' characteristics, the source of positive evaluation toward leader identity may also come from displaying group-oriented behavior (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). *Leader group-oriented behavior* can be defined as a leader's focus on the welfare and interests of group members over their own self-interests (Graf, Schuh, van Quaquebeke, & van Dick, 2011). Leaders who demonstrate that they prioritize a group's best interests through displaying grou-oriented attitudes (e.g., loyalty to the group), and group-oriented behavior (e.g., willingness to sacrifice personal interests for group welfare), should therefore be more positively evaluated than other leaders who do not demonstrate such values. The more group-oriented- a leader is, the more he/she will view group interests as synonymous with self-interests, as every event affecting the group is experienced as affecting himself/herself (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Therefore, we assume that, through the merging of self and group, the more a leader exhibits group-oriented behavior the more positively he/she will view his/her social identity as a leader.

Previous research shows that, the influence of leader group prototypicality on positive leader identity can be strengthened or weakened by other variables, such as need for cognitive closure, leader group-oriented behavior, team identification, and role ambiguity (Pierro et al., 2005; Cicero, Pierro, & van Knippenberg, 2010; van Dijke & De Cremer, 2010). In relation to the current research, van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, De Cremer, and Hogg (2004) supported the notion that it is not enough to evaluate a leader based on mere similarities between group prototype and leader characteristics, but that it should also be considered whether or not the leader exhibits group-oriented behavior. Thus, we propose that leader group-oriented behavior moderates the association between leader group prototypicality and positive leader identity.

The interaction of leader group-oriented behavior and leader group prototypicality will be interesting to re-examine, since until now two different studies have published findings about how leader group orientation moderates this relationship. A cross-sectional study involving 95 German employees revealed that leader group-oriented behavior possibly strengthens the association between leader group prototypicality and followers' evaluation toward leader behavior (Graf et al., 2011). The research by Graf et al. (2011) also showed that prototypical leaders with high scores of group-oriented behavior tends to be evaluated more positively. Conversely, other scholars have demonstrated that leader group-oriented behavior might weaken the afore-mentioned association. For example, a study involving 216 Australian college students reported that prototypical leaders with high group-oriented behavior tend to have the highest positive evaluations as compared with more prototypical leaders with low group-oriented behavior (Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005).

Contradictory results from the two studies above stem from differences in defining outgroup dan ingroup leader. Van Knippenberg and van Knippenberg (2005) and Platow and van Knippenberg (2001) in their studies generally operationalized both high and low prototypical leaders as ingroup leaders, whereas Graf et al. (2011) examined the differences between ingroup and outgroup leaders. In relation to ingroup leader, the leader is still perceived as ingroup despite his/her group-oriented behavior may be relatively low, and strong distrust to outgroup leader may not be compensated by displaying group-oriented behavior. Moreover, Graf et al. (2011) in their study suggested that the outgroup leader must become a formal member of the team (e.g., by giving up one's interim manager status and becoming part of the team) and benefit from his/her group-oriented behavior, so that he/she can be regarded more positively.

Leader group-oriented behavior (e.g., leader self-sacrifice, leader fairness) has been suggested by several researchers as an effective act of leadership (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). We propose that leader group-oriented behavior can moderate the relationship between leader group prototypicality and positive leader identity, because leader group-oriented behavior may complement trust from leader group prototypicality and results in a positive evaluation of leader that is not contingent on the extent to which leader represents the group prototype. Specifically, followers tend to make evaluations of non-prototypical leaders more positively when the leader displays group-oriented behavior. van Knippenberg and Hogg (2003) in their study argued that because prototypical group leaders are, in a way, the manifestation of the group, they are trusted to further the group's interests without having to display their group-oriented behavior (or at least display it to a lesser extent than non-prototypical leaders). However, the situation is different for less prototypical group leaders; their group-oriented behavior is not expected as a consequence of their representativeness. Further, by making personal sacrifices for the group, they may significantly enhance their positive evaluation of leader identity. Following van Knippenberg and Hogg's (2003) argument, we hypothesize that

Hypothesis 4 Leader group-oriented behavior weakens the relationship between leader group prototypicality and positive leader identity (Fig. 4.1).

4.3 Methods

4.3.1 Procedure and Sample

The initial data were obtained from 84 pairs of leaders and followers who participated in an offline survey. Data were then reduced by excluding four pairs of data for their incomplete responses. In the end, data from 80 pairs of leaders and followers who had been working for at least one year in their respective positions prior to their participation in this research were analyzed. We administered a set of paper-pencil questionnaires for each pair of participants; leaders rated their positive leader identity and leadership self-efficacy, while their followers were separately asked to fill in surveys for leader group prototypicality, leader endorsement, and leader group-oriented behavior surveys. Collecting data from different sources was a strategy that we applied to reduce common method bias, which is a distortion—usually an inflation—in the observed relationship between variables due to the same measurement method, especially self-report (Conway & Lance, 2010; Doty & Glick, 1998; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012).

All leaders had a minimum of two levels of subordinates and all followers were the direct subordinates of leaders. Leaders were between 23 and 54 years old ($M = 40.53$, $SD = 9.32$) with an average tenure of 102 months, or 8.5 years ($SD = 101.18$); 67.5% of leaders were male, and 81.3% were married. Meanwhile, followers were between 21 and 55 years old ($M = 33.95$, $SD = 10.03$) with an average tenure of five years ($SD = 71.22$); the majority of followers were also male (53.8%) and married (66.3%). Both leaders and followers were employees from four different food and beverage companies in Indonesia. Most of the participants held bachelor degrees and came from several cities in Jawa and Sumatera.

4.3.2 Measures

All self-report measures were in Bahasa Indonesia and were rated using a 6-point Likert-type scale anchored at 1 = strongly disagree and 6 = strongly agree. They were adapted from previous research and had been back-translated from the English language versions. All measures also held relatively good internal consistency, with reliability coefficients ranging from 0.8 to 0.9.

We assessed the outer model of all variables (the relationship of each item to their variables) through convergent and discriminant validity using Smart PLS 3. The result shows that the research model has a Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) of 0.79, signaling that it has reached the model fit criterion since the SRMR score is below 0.8 (Henseler, Horbona, & Ray, 2016). All items of positive leader identity, leader group-oriented behavior, leadership self-efficacy, and leader endorsement have a factor loading of more than 0.5, implying that they are in moderate or good convergent validity (Vinzi, Chin, Henseler, & Wang, 2010). Based on this result, we decided to eliminate one item of leader group prototypicality, as its item loading was below 0.5. A total of five items of leader group prototypicality were included in hypothesis testing. Similar result is also reflected when we analyzed the discriminant validity: each variable's item has a lower relationship with different variables' items as compared with items from similar variable. Furthermore, all variables in this study have an Average Variance Extracted more than 0.5 (as the rule of thumb) (see Appendix).

4.4 Positive Leader Identity

Positive leader identity was measured by the leaders themselves using eight items adapted from Karelaia and Guillen (2014): four items measured private regard; while the other four measured public regard. Sample items include "I am glad being a leader" and "Being a leader is considered good by others", with good internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.82$).

4.5 Leadership Self-efficacy

We measured leadership self-efficacy using eight items derived from the *Leadership Self-Efficacy Perception Scale* (Murphy, 2001) to measure respondents' perceptions of their capability to lead. The leaders themselves rated their leadership self-efficacy. An example of the items is "I know a lot more than most about what it takes to be a good leader" ($\alpha = 0.88$).

4.6 Leader Group Prototypicality

Leader group prototypicality was measured using five items adapted from Platow and van Knippenberg (2001). Participants were asked to rate items concerning their leader's group prototypicality, such as "Overall, I would say that my leader represents the characteristics of (name of company)" ($\alpha = 0.83$).

4.7 Leader Endorsement

Leader endorsement was measured using six items adapted from Michener and Lawler (1975) which were used by respondents to rate their leaders. Sample items included "I'm satisfied with my leader's use of his/her power in arriving at group decisions" and "I'm willing to cooperate with my leader" ($\alpha = 0.92$).

4.8 Leader Group-Oriented Behavior

Leader group-oriented behavior was measured using six items derived from *Portrait Value Questionnaire* (PVQ; Schwartz in Graf et al. 2011). The respondents reported to what extent their leader displayed group-oriented behavior, using phrases such as "It is very important for my leader to be loyal and dedicates himself to the welfare of group members" ($\alpha = 0.84$).

4.8.1 Control Variables

To better define our conception of leader, we controlled for the job position level of our leader participants. Leaders who participated in this research were required to have a minimum two levels of subordinates. We also controlled organizational identification for our follower participants. *Organizational identification* is individuals' perception of oneness with a group in which they experience the success and failure of their group as their own (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Individuals with high organizational identification tend to have higher involvement with their group and a better understanding of their group's defining characteristics (Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Organizational identification has been revealed to influence followers' perception of leader group prototypicality (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008; Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001). Controlling for organizational identification allowed us to obtain a more accurate leader group prototypicality rating from our participants. Six items that were derived from Mael and Ashforth (1992) were used to measure this control variable.

4.9 Results

Means, standard deviations, and correlations are presented in Table 4.1. Moderated multiple regression analysis was used to test our hypotheses, with data being mean-centered beforehand. Considering the results of correlation analysis, we decided to statistically control leader gender and leader marital status in the regression model. As shown in Table 4.2, 67% of the variance of positive leader identity was accounted for in the regression model, $F(1,72) = 6.65$, $p < 0.01$. Consistent with Hypothesis 1, participants with higher leadership self-efficacy ($B_{\text{self-efficacy}} = 0.49$, $SE_{\text{self-efficacy}} = 0.09$) tended to regard their leader identity more positively. However, there were no significant relationships between leader endorsement ($B_{\text{endorsement}} = 0.02$, $SE_{\text{endorsement}} = 0.09$), leader group prototypicality ($B_{\text{prototypicality}} = 0.04$, $SE_{\text{prototypicality}} = 0.08$), and positive leader identity. Thus, Hypotheses 2 and 3 were not supported.

In support of Hypothesis 4, we found a significant interaction effect between leader group prototypicality and leader group orientation ($B_{\text{group-oriented}} = -0.11$, $SE_{\text{group-oriented}} = 0.04$). B-values of the interaction effect showed negative valence, indicating that leader group-oriented behavior weakened the influence of leader group prototypicality. We also found that leader gender influenced positive leader identity in all three hierarchical regression models, with male leaders having significantly higher positive leader identity than female leaders ($\beta = -0.24$, $p < 0.05$).

We then conducted a simple slope analysis to further analyze the interaction effect. From Fig. 4.2, we can conclude that non-prototypical leaders with high leader group-oriented behavior have the highest positive leader identity. Prototypical leaders with low group-oriented behavior were demonstrated to have higher

Table 4.1 Means, standard deviations, and correlations

	M	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Tenure in month (leader)	102.1	101.18	1										
2. Age (leader)	40.53	9.32	0.46**	1									
3. Gender (leader)	–	–	0.13	−0.02	1								
4. Education level (leader)	–	–	−0.23*	−0.14	0.08	1							
5. Marital status (leader)	–	–	−0.33**	−0.52**	0.21	0.1	1						
6. Organizational identification	4.79	0.6	0.21	0.05	−0.22**	−0.1	−0.31**	1					
7. Leader group prototypicality	4.58	0.79	0.21	0.18	−0.14	−0.13	−0.31**	0.41**	1				
8. Leader group-oriented behavior	4.77	0.73	0.11	0.04	−0.22*	0.01	−0.26*	0.43**	0.68**	1			
9. Leader endorsement	4.97	0.74	0.08	0.06	−0.37**	0.01	−0.25*	0.48**	0.62**	0.71**	1		
10. Leadership self-efficacy	4.88	0.53	0.14	0.34**	−0.38**	−0.08	−0.41**	0.27*	0.24*	0.25*	0.35**	1	
11. Positive leader identity	4.89	0.62	0.05	0.28**	−0.45**	−0.19	−0.44**	0.35**	0.49**	0.53**	0.54**	0.67**	1

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$

Table 4.2 Regression analysis

Outcome variable: positive leader identity			
Variable	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Leader gender	0.54**	−0.23*	−0.24*
Leader marital status	−0.15	0.01	0.18
Leadership self efficacy		0.59**	0.49**
Leader endorsement		0.01	0.02
Leader group prototypicality		0.14	0.04
Leader group-oriented behavior		0.20**	0.13
Prototypicality × Group-oriented behavior			−0.11*
R^2	0.22	0.64	0.67
ΔR	0.22	0.42	0.03
F	10.76	21.38	6.65
df1, df2	2.77	2.73	1.72

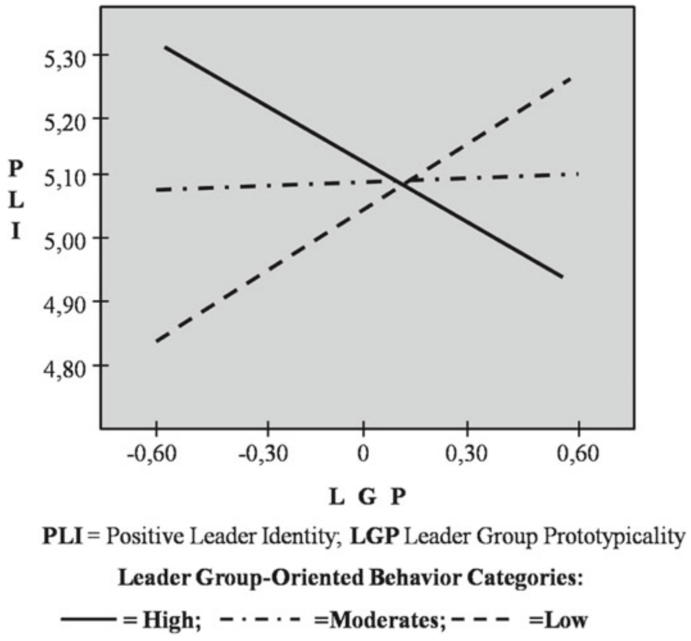


Fig. 4.2 Slope analysis

positive leader identity than prototypical leaders with high group-oriented behavior. Furthermore, we also found empirical evidence that non-prototypical leaders with low leader group-oriented behavior possessed the lowest positive leader identity.

4.10 Discussions

4.10.1 Research Findings

The purpose of this research was to gain a better understanding of the mechanism behind the building process of building positive leader identity. This paper did this through an analysis of leadership self-efficacy, leader endorsement, and the interaction between leader group prototypicality and leader group-oriented behavior, with a grounding in the evaluative perspective and claiming-granting mechanism (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Dutton et al., 2010). Our research advances current understanding about positive leader identity construction in at least three areas.

Firstly, we highlighted the idea that leader identity construction cannot be viewed as a process that only occurs within oneself by relying solely on leaders' self-evaluation, but as one that also requires evaluation, recognition, or identity-granting from others. In other words, the nature of leadership is relational, meaning it requires a potential leader to claim leadership, and potential followers to grant leadership (Marchiondo et al., 2015). Our results show that leadership self-efficacy had indeed a positive significant relationship with positive leader identity, indicating that leaders with higher leadership self-efficacy tend to have a more positive evaluation toward their identity as a leader. This result confirmed that verifying one's identity as a leader is strongly influenced by one's perception of capability in their individual roles (Stets & Burke, 2003). This means that when individuals have faith in their capabilities as a leader, it may strengthen a positive evaluation, or private regard, of their leader identity. Further, our results also confirm that leader group-oriented behavior weakens the relationship between leader group prototypicality and positive leader identity, similar to previous research in the study conducted by Platow and van Knippenberg (2001) as well as the study conducted by van Knippenberg and van Knippenberg (2005). This result implies that leader group-oriented behavior can function as a substitute for leader group prototypicality in generating positive evaluations. This is a fresh and promising result for non-prototypical leaders, in which there is a chance to construct a positive leader identity.

Secondly, the current research raises questions as to what extent the granting mechanism is effective in a collectivistic culture, like Indonesia. Although we hypothesized that leader endorsement (from followers) would be associated with positive leader identity, our analysis did not confirm this. Such a finding might have resulted from the fact that our leader participants worked in an industry in which their leader status was assigned by their organizations (i.e., legitimate position). It seems that in a country like Indonesia, the role of followers is not to grant leadership status but rather to obey those in leadership position. Indonesia is a collectivist country with high power distance, meaning there is an accepted inequality in power distribution between the more and the less powerful members of groups or organizations (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). People in high power-distance countries are more likely to defer or obey and devote themselves to authority or to those of higher status (Chen, Friedman, Yu, & Fang, 2009). Taras, Kirkman, and Steel (2010) demonstrated empirical evidence that power distance was positively related with normative organizational commitment and preference for directive leadership. This means that followers in high-power-distance organizations will fulfill their duties and responsibilities due to a strong sense of respect for their leaders. This upholds the idea that senior positions, such as being superordinate in the workplace, are more valued and respected by people to the extent that subordinates rarely contradict their superordinate's opinion (Hofstede et al., 2010). Since grants of leadership can essentially come from anyone and can be influenced by institutional structure (DeRue & Ashford, 2010), in addition to the fact that Indonesian culture is high in power distance, perhaps the formal position of leader given to our leader participants by their organizations is a strong factor that lessens the value of leader endorsement from followers. We encourage scholars to investigate this matter further in future research.

Future research may also want to explore the granting mechanism in a university setting, in which shared leadership is likely adapted. Regarding shared leadership, leadership is seen not based on ascribed position or authority in which it only belongs to one person, but rather on expertise and collaboration and that it is owned by the entire organization (Kezar & Holcombe, 2017). It maximizes cooperation and interaction between people within the organization, enabling leaders and followers to be perceived as interchangeable (Kezar & Holcombe, 2017). People in university settings tend to demand a more participatory role in decision-making, while at the same time they are also open to inviting others to participate in the decision-making process itself (Sart, 2014). In this kind of ecosystem, granting from followers—in the form of leader endorsement—might still be effective in constructing one's leader identity. This is another potential area for future research.

Thirdly, our results indicate that gender still plays a prominent role in affecting the evaluation of leader identity in Indonesia. Leader gender is shown to be a notable predictor of positive leader identity, as our result indicates that male leaders hold higher positive leader identity than female leaders. Leader sex-stereotype might play a role in producing this outcome, as gender bias in the workplace poses as a barrier for female leaders in claiming their authority as a leader (Bowles & McGinn, 2005), and affects their access to leadership positions (Ayman & Korabik, 2010), especially in a collectivistic and non-egalitarian gender role culture such as Indonesia (Riantoputra & Gatari, 2017). For example, in Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, and Woehr's (2014) research, when leaders were rated by others, female leaders tended to be rated significantly more effectively than male leaders; yet, when leaders were asked to rate themselves, male leaders rated themselves as substantially more effective than did female leaders.

As another form of social identity, gender also contributes to the entire identity evaluation process within individuals. The positivity of one's identity is affected by whether or not multiple identities within oneself are balanced or in harmony (Dutton et al., 2010). Leadership has been strongly associated with *agentic* or masculine attributes (e.g., assertive, aggressive, ambitious, dominant, independent) which are commonly possessed by men, while women's roles have been associated with *communal* characteristics (e.g., nurturing, kind, sympathetic, sensitive, warm) (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011). Previous research revealed that female leaders, particularly in Asia, were inclined to struggle in combining their work and family commitments (Peus, Braun, & Knipfer, 2015). Consequently, female leaders are more prone to perceive their leader and gender identities as incompatible because of conflicting, stereotypical characteristics associated with those identities, resulting in identity conflict (Hirsh & Kang, 2015) and in turn lowering their positive leader identity.

Although there is some support for non-egalitarian gender-role-influencing leader identity, there are some new promising lights. Research conducted by Lemoine, Aggarwal, and Steed (2016) showed that male-female domination in organizations did not necessarily predict leader emergence. Groups with more men did not automatically choose men as their leaders; the same was found for groups with more women. Further, a study involving women leaders in big and multicultural cities in Indonesia (i.e., Jakarta and Bali), also found that the effect of gender on positive leader identity has decreased over time; it is not gender that shapes the positivity of leader identity, but it is the traits (i.e., extraversion and conscientiousness) (Riantoputra, Bastaman, & Duarsa, 2017). Future research may be needed to investigate this matter further.

4.10.2 Limitations

This research is subject to several limitations, such as cross-sectional design (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012) and the relatively small-sized and less diverse sample which threatens the generalization of our research result (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). To improve generalization, future research should not only involve manufacturing-based companies but other types of industries as well.

Regardless of the acknowledged limitations, our research incorporates a strategy to lessen the risk of common method bias, which can inflate the observed relationship between variables by up to 32% (Doty & Glick, 1998). By obtaining the data needed from two different sources, we are able to reduce the risk of inflated relationship in the current research. We also set rather strict characteristics to select our participants (i.e., job position level, organizational identification, working industry), which positively impacts the current research's internal validity (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012).

4.11 Managerial Implication

Our empirical study suggests that positive leader identity construction can be explained by using the claiming and granting mechanism between leader and followers. It is an iterative process of asserting oneself as a leader and of receiving affirmation from others. We provide a number of managerial recommendations that any leader can put into practice to exercise leadership claiming and to gain recognition of followers, which in turn will help build his/her positive leader identity.

4.11.1 Enhancing Leader Identity Claim

Having high leadership self-efficacy enables someone to claim leader identity, because in believing that one possesses leadership abilities, he/she will more likely perform leader-like behavior. A means to increase leadership self-efficacy is a successful self-verification process (Stets & Burke, 2000). This process involves self-assessment of whether or not one has met the expected standard or conception of what a leader should be or not. As Gosling and Mintzberg (2003) highlight that one of the critical minds needed by a leader is the reflective mind-set.

In order to fulfill the certain standard that has been set for the role, leaders need to identify the gap between their performance and the expected performance. Any kind of performance review, role model, or benchmarking may help leaders undergo this process. Performance review acts as a medium through which leaders can receive information about their leadership performance, thus verifying their own conception of themselves and consequently lowering or strengthening their leadership self-efficacy.

Discussions that involve subordinates, peers, and those higher up may increase the point of view variance in judging oneself as a leader; hence, including these parties in the cycle as performance reviewers is recommended. When leaders perceive a match between their standard of leadership and their own enacted performance results, the result will more likely be an increase in their leadership self-efficacy and a positive claim of their identity as a leader (Epitropaki et al., 2017). Performance reviews may serve as a first step in engaging discussion with surroundings, and can be done by directly asking feedback from the boss and the team, as they have unique perspectives on both the strengths and weaknesses of leaders (*Harvard Business Review*, 2017). The feedback can be focused on two things: the first is to gain constructive criticism and use it for the leader's self-development; while the second is to enlighten leaders about their own strengths. Using this method, the leader will be able to assess his/her own capabilities based on the objective opinion from their surroundings.

Assessing one's capabilities must also be balanced by setting standards for an ideal leader to identify the gap between the leader's desired state and their current state. Role model and benchmarking serve as ideal standards for leaders as they construct their perception of their efficacy as leaders. Leaders may be encouraged to do more self-reflection to identify the gap between expected behaviors and their actual enacted behaviors as leaders, thereby enabling them to assess and adjust their inner standards according to the review result. Direct mentoring or coaching sessions by their role model or ideal leaders can be served as powerful techniques for leaders in gaining new perspectives on leader behaviors and ways of leading. When leaders perceive themselves as being different from expectations, results from the discussion may help them to modify their own beliefs and values about leadership with the shared beliefs and values from their surroundings. Finding those factors and adapting oneself to the socially accepted consensus may act as a stepping stone in enhancing the claiming process of a positive leader identity.

4.11.2 Displaying Group-Oriented Behavior

Our study demonstrated that leader group prototypicality may be an important source of positive leader granting by followers, but it is not the only source, especially for non-prototypical leaders. Displaying group-orientated behavior can also improve one's positive leader identity. Distributive and procedural fairness is a group-oriented behavior that we recommend be done by leaders, as these two types of fairness are closely associated with the concept of leader group-oriented itself. Distributive fairness concerns how leaders equally distribute group resources or rights, while procedural fairness focuses on how decision-making processes related to resource distribution are valued as transparent and fair (Platow, Reid, & Andrew, 1998).

One means to ensure that resource distribution is valued as fair and transparent is through using 360-degree performance review, where subordinates, peers, and leaders have an equal opportunity to evaluate each other. Such a process would minimize negative perceptions, especially from subordinates, that decision-making processes are limited to only a few, higher stakeholders and not all. Platow et al. (1998) argue that employees are more willing to give positive evaluations when leaders are valued as fair rather than them being unfair.

Self-sacrificing is another key behavior that can strongly represent leader group orientation, thus we also recommend leaders to exhibit this behavior. Choi and Mai-Dalton (1999) divide leader self-sacrifices in organization settings into three categories: *division of labor*; *distribution of rewards*; and *exercise of power*. They represent three usual interdependent organization processes in profit organizations: production; distribution; and consumption. Self-sacrificing behavior in the *division of labor* involves the leader participating in risky action or turning to difficult segments of work. This form of self-sacrificing behavior can be seen in leaders who take full responsibility for group actions or in those who assume the blame for failure. Self-sacrificing behavior can also be seen, to the extreme level, either through the *distribution of reward* or *exercise of power*—although both have a similar concept, they are applied in different context. While *distribution of reward* involves the leader giving up privileges or benefits that are rewarded, *exercise of power* involves giving up privileges which one has already earned.

The Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of Tesla Automotive Company, Elon Musk, is an example of a leader who displays group-oriented behavior. Before Tesla became one of the most innovative companies specialized in green and electric vehicles, Elon sacrificed many things, especially money, time, and his personal life. When Tesla faced a financial crisis, Elon told his employees that he would be available 24/7 to help them solve problems (*Risk Taker*, 2011). Elon believes that someone who works 100 h per week will see results that are twice as impressive over someone who works 50 h per week. It was common place for Elon's employees to find him asleep on the factory floor (*Risk Taker*, 2011). Without the willingness to sacrifice his money and personal life, there would not be much trust and support from Tesla employees to make some unrealistic dreams of Elon (e.g., making an efficient and reusable rocket and his obsession about environment friendly vehicles) become reality.

4.11.3 *Cultivating an Open and Employee-Empowering Culture*

The primary benefit of leaders exhibiting group-oriented behavior is receiving positive evaluations or identity granting from followers. There are other possible means of achieving the same objective, that of being open and transparent.

Based on an empirical study in China about openness and group prototypicality (Guo, 2016), cultivating openness within a working group can complement a less prototypical leader. This strategy has been implemented by one of the best CEOs in Asia, Ma Huateng or "Ponny Ma", the CEO of Tencent. Ponny Ma invented an open source software within organizations to encourage his employees to share insights and the entire body of code from other parts of the business. Ponny Ma often asks his employees to try new things without fear or hesitation (Birkinshaw, de Diego, & Liang-Hong Ke, 2018). In 2018, Kantar Millward Brown declared Tencent as the most valuable global brand in Asia, and number five in the world (Kantar Millward Brown, 2018).

Openness can also be formed through a leader's behavior in providing transparent information about the company's performance both in production and financial aspects, just like what Elon Musk has done. Elon often shares information to his employee when the company makes a large profit or faces financial crisis (*Risk Taker*, 2011). Leaders can also exhibit several alternative behaviors that are related to openness, such as creating an up-to-date data platform with the company's performance information accessible to all employees, and giving them equal opportunities to provide solutions or innovations based on the performance data in that platform.

Further, leaders can build a culture of empowerment by giving freedom to their followers to choose and implement the most effective practices, pace, or resources. This involves providing employees with enough direction or end-goals but with minimum guidance on how to achieve those targets. This may allow employees to fulfill one of their basic human needs, which is the need for autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 2000). When followers think and feel that they are empowered by distributive and fair behaviors or practices displayed by leaders, they then perceive leaders more positively.

4.12 Conclusions

Our research contributes to the current understanding of positive leader identity construction by pointing to the importance of evaluation and leader identity recognition from both leaders and followers. Leadership self-efficacy, which symbolizes the act of claiming leadership, was found to be significantly associated with positive leader identity. Leaders' orientation to group welfare plays an important role in the emergence of positive leader identity, regardless of whether the leader is group prototypical or not. Last but not least, ascribed characteristics, such as leader gender, were also shown to influence how leaders evaluate their own leader identity. These results are expected to fill the gap in leader identity literature, which still lack empirical studies, and to help practitioners in companies or organizations to better understand how good interaction between leaders and followers can be formed as a means to develop leaders' positive leader identity.

For practice, we suggest that any leaders can exercise to build their positive leader identity includes coaching and mentoring to close the gap between their ideal leader-like behavior and current enacted behavior incorporating fairness in their initiatives, displaying self-sacrificing behavior and creating an open, transparent, and empowering culture at work. Through these means, leaders may gain better evaluation from their followers that eventually can open the door for any leadership granting from followers. These results are expected to fill the gap in leader identity literature, which still lacks empirical studies, and help practitioners in companies or organizations better understand how good interaction between leaders and followers can be formed as a means to develop leaders' positive leader identity.

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Chapter 5
Career Sponsorship: An Effective Way for Developing Women Leaders

Jovina Ang

Abstract Other than an effective career progression strategy, this research, which comprised of an autoethnography and an in-depth qualitative case study research showed that career sponsorship could be an effective strategy for developing women leaders. In the sponsor relationship, sponsors invest considerable time, effort and resources in developing sponsees, thus, preparing them for the top jobs. In addition to developing the skills on the leadership strataplex, career sponsorship has been shown to be an enabler for developing confidence, which is one of the necessary ingredients for developing executive presence. Career sponsorship also fills the gap and addresses the shortcomings that arise from traditional and women leadership development programs.

Keywords Women · Leadership · Leadership development · Career sponsorship · Sponsor

5.1 Introduction

The representation of women at the higher levels of management remains low despite concerted focus from governments and companies driving advancements in education, health and employment for women in the past 30 years (Tuminez, Duell, & Majid, 2012). Globally, women represent 33% of senior managers and 20% of C-suite executives (Thomas et al., 2017). If we were to continue at this rate of progression, it is estimated by the World Economic Forum that it will take 217 years to achieve gender parity in terms of wage equality, seniority and labour force participation in the workplace.[1] Unless there is a pipeline of qualified women, the road to achieving

[1] World Economic Forum. (2018). Closing the Gender Gap. https://www.weforum.org/projects/closing-the-gender-gap-gender-parity-task-forces.

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gender parity and having greater female representation in senior leadership will be a very long and arduous one—which is why there needs to be a renewed focus and an alternative way for how organizations develop women leaders.

It is without a doubt that leadership development programs are a critical component for changing gender parity and the female representation equation. Leadership development programs typically aim to build the skills, knowledge and capability for senior leadership. Some programs even go one step further—to inculcate a mind-set shift and build a leadership identity (Ibarra, Snook, & Guillen Ramo, 2010b) for emerging leaders to rise to the top.

Despite recognizing how leadership development programs could accelerate their learning, many women hold themselves back from participating in these programs. They hold themselves back for several reasons. One of these is time constraint because in general, women have a lot more personal and family commitments when compared to men. Women also need to prove themselves more in their roles (Edison Stevenson & Orr, 2017) and attending a leadership development program would present as another tax on their time. These are some of the reasons why women need a lot more encouragement to participate in career and leadership development programs (Tharenou, Latimer, & Conroy, 1994).

Huge amounts of money are invested annually in leadership programs. It has been reported that US companies invest upwards of $14 billion annually.[2] In spite of this, it has been concluded that many leadership programs fail because of two reasons. One, most leadership development programs focus on building current competencies. While focusing on competencies increases the leadership capability of the individual for solving existing business problems, it might not be enough for these future leaders to navigate the constantly changing work environment that is characterized as volatile, uncertain, complex and ambiguous (VUCA). Two, many leadership programs are stand-alone programs, hence, are not integrated into the work itself. Even though most leadership programs are anchored on research or are designed to simulate work e.g., computer simulations or project based, behavioral change might not be sustained as the lessons learned in the classroom are not translated to the workplace as typically there’s no follow up or personal commitment to change.

As constant and disruptive change is becoming the norm in the work environment, Fernandez-Araoz, Roscoe, and Aramaki (2017) argued for an alternative approach to leadership development—that is, to focus on developing leadership potential. Unlike focusing on competencies, focusing on leadership potential not only addresses the skills, competencies and capabilities for leaders to solve current problems but also, future problems—which is why leadership potential development is a necessary step towards building the necessary leadership capability for driving future growth of organizations. In this VUCA world of work, it is likely that future leaders would be faced with a myriad of challenges ranging from innovating new business models to motivating a diverse, global and extended workforce comprising employees, partners, contractors and even ‘machines’.

[2]Loew, L. & O’Leonard, K. (2012). Leadership Development Factbook 2012: Benchmarks and Trends in U.S. Leadership Development, Bersin by Deloitte, July 2012.

There is another advantage why focusing on leadership potential matters. When individuals exercise their leadership potential, they not only continue to develop their leadership capability, they are able to continually learn to acquire new tools, skills and knowledge that are necessary for driving continued growth for their organizations. Interestingly, studies have shown that men tend to be evaluated based on leadership potential whereas women tend to be evaluated based on experience and past performance for promotions (Carter & Silva, 2011).

It is also recognized that leadership programs need to address the development of a leadership identity and a leadership mindset. In general, women need more help in developing their leadership identities and leadership mindsets. This is because women tend to engage in 'protective' self-preservation. Hence, women are less likely to stretch themselves and position themselves as leaders for the fear of disapproval from others (Ibarra & Petriglieri, 2016). In so doing, women create an internal barrier that hinders them from taking on the big bold leadership roles to move upward on the corporate hierarchy. The concept of developing a leadership identity and a leadership mindset has led some scholars to put forward a case for women-only leadership programs. Women-only leadership development programs can create a safe and secure platform for women to discuss issues faced only by women in the workplace and learn and share from each other and female role models. In other words, these programs provide a platform for women to step outside their comfort zones and stretch themselves to fully immerse themselves in their learning and development. Thus, these programs can help women to build a leadership identity and a leadership mindset (Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011; Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013). While there are advantages of these women-only programs, there are also disadvantages. Many organizations shun away from women-only development programs due to the political inappropriateness for differentiating women from men. In promoting such programs, essentially, these organizations are positively discriminating against men as inadvertently, these organizations are giving women preferential treatment for training and leadership development. Also, some women avoid these programs for fear of being stigmatized by their male colleagues.

5.2 Career Sponsorship as a Leadership Development Strategy?

There are many elements that make up a successful leadership development program. Leadership development programs especially those that are designed to develop women leaders need to incorporate elements of developing leadership potential, a leadership identity, and a leadership mindset. Given that many leadership development programs do not fulfill all of these criteria, I wanted to investigate whether career sponsorship could be put forward as an alternative leadership development strategy.

Career sponsorship is still a relatively new construct. We were not even talking about sponsorship until a few years ago. That said, the construct of career sponsorship has been gaining prominence in the corporate world. Many organizations including Deutsche Bank,[3] Women in Communications and Technology[4] have introduced career sponsorship programs because it has been shown an effective strategy for advancing women to senior and executive leadership (Hewlett, 2013; Ibarra, Carter, & Silva, 2010a).

What is career sponsorship? Career sponsorship is defined as a dyadic relationship between a senior and more experienced leader (sponsor) and a junior and less experienced employee (sponsee) (Hewlett, 2013; Ibarra et al., 2010a, b) that is focused on accelerating the career progression for the sponsee. Career sponsorship is an effective career progression strategy because there is a senior champion who believes in the sponsee's leadership potential and who is willing to advocate for the sponsee's career advancement whether this is access to stretch assignments, new roles, or promotions. It has also been shown that career sponsorship can accelerate the careers of both men and women (Ibarra et al., 2010a, b). It also explains why women with sponsors are twice more likely to reach the C-Suite compared to those without sponsors or more precisely, 61% compared to 32%.[5] My study of 100 global senior leaders also confirmed the effectiveness of sponsorship of progressing on the organizational hierarchy by an average of 1–2 levels (Ang & Reb, 2017).

Other than helping their sponsees progress, sponsors invest a lot of time focusing on one-on-one coaching and providing guidance for women to overcome their career barriers (Foust-Cummings, Dinolfo, & Kohler, 2011). Sponsors also spend considerable time nurturing and teaching their sponsees (those who are being sponsored) to be leaders (Ang, 2019) before positioning them for the senior roles.

5.3 Research Methodology

The research methodology to examine whether career sponsorship could be an effective leadership development strategy is anchored on two studies—an autoethnography (Study 1) and an in-depth case study research (Study 2).

[3]Deutsche Bank. (2015). The Women Global Leaders programme: the story of a successful partnership between INSEAD and Deutsche Bank, June 25. https://www.db.com/cr/en/concrete-the-women-global-leaders-programme-the-story-of-a-successful-partnership.htm.

[4]Women in Communications and Technology. (2018). The Protégé Project. https://www.wct-fct.com/en/programs/prot%C3%A9g%C3%A9-project.

[5]Titleman Colla, N. (2018). Sponsorship is an important key to unlocking women's career potential. The Globe and Mail, March 8. https://www.theglobeandmail.com/report-on-business/careers/management/sponsorship-is-an-important-key-to-unlocking-womens-career-potential/article38204533/.

5.3.1 Autoethnography

Autoethnography is not a traditional research method that is used in Organizational Behavior. However, this research method is starting to gain prominence in the disciplines of Anthropology, Communication, Education and Sociology as scholars start to recognize the value of learning and uncovering insights from personal experiences. It is a form of personal reflexive research that comes with deep insights and critical thinking. It involves taking the readers through an experiential journey from the lens of the writer. Autoethnography is a research method that allows the researcher to "enact the worlds we study" (Denzin, 2006, p. 422). It provides a bridge for how the inner personal world could interact with the outer societal world. Unique insights and perspectives could emerge otherwise not available from the positivist approach to research (Wall, 2008) because the process of thinking, reflection and reflexivity could yield new insights that could not be observed or recorded. In the process of thinking, reflection and reflexivity, the researcher could systematically analyze personal experience to understand the cultural phenomenon. As such the researcher could reflect upon the new insights that are different from what is learned or experienced (Wall, 2008). A well-written autoethnography demonstrates "struggle, passion, embodied life, and the collaborative creation of sense making" (Ellis & Bochner, 2006, p. 433). It also requires the researcher to be vulnerable and intimate. It is a research method that is described as "methodology of the heart, a form that listens to the heart" (Denzin, 2006, p. 423). Some researchers use storytelling or multi-way conversations to let "people to feel the story in their guts, not just know the 'facts' in their heads." (Ellis & Bochner, 2006, p. 435).

Like any qualitative research, conducting an autoethnography requires the separation of the researcher and the subject (Lofland, Snow, Anderson, & Lofland, 2005). This separation enables the researcher to "objectively" observe and describe the phenomenon, view the interactions between the subject and the phenomenon while giving him or her a systematic approach to analyze the subject's immersion in the phenomenon. Thinking and reflection help with the theorizing process because they bring together inputs, processes and outputs (Moon, 2001), as well as help researchers to synthesize, analyze, and articulate a picture of interlinked and integrated ideas.

It certainly was not easy for me to write my autoethnography because as a researcher, my intent of writing was to connect my personal experience with theory. So, at the back of my mind, I constantly reminded myself of the validity and reliability of my autoethnography. While I relied primarily on memories of my lived experience as I do not have archival notes or journal entries going back over a period of more than 20 years, I am certain that these memories are accurate even though I cannot corroborate them with written data. As Wall (2006) says, "an individual is best situated to describe his or her own experience more accurately than anyone else" (p. 3). I used these data to identify recurring themes, important anomalies or one-time occurrences. To add validity to my autoethnography, I triangulated the data by checking the data with my previous sponsors.

5.3.2 *Case Study Research*

I also conducted a case study research because I wanted to examine a phenomenon in the real-life context (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 1981, 2014). The case study method of inquiry is a form of constructing theories-in-use, a method that was first developed by Zaltman, LeMasters, and Heffring (1982). As a research method, case study allows the researcher to examine a phenomenon in the real-life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context are unclear (Yin, 1981).

I adopted a theoretical and purposeful sampling approach; leveraging my professional network in Singapore, Asia and globally to recruit interviewees for the study. The goals of this approach were to ensure accurate representation of empirical evidence in the data collected, and to sharpen external validity of my findings. While there is no ideal number of cases, according to Eisenhardt (1989), the examination of four to ten cases should be sufficient to generalize the findings for a typical case study research. In this study, I examined 29 cases, of which there was a sample size of 35; 19 sponsors and 16 sponsees. All of the sponsors in the study had at least 20 years of corporate experience. They included the C-Suite, partners, general managers, vice presidents, and directors. The sponsee sample comprised of people who had been sponsored. The sponsees were younger (from ages 27 to 52) than the sponsors (from ages 43 to 69). There was a good representation of both genders in the sponsor (11 males, 8 females) and sponsee (7 males, 9 females) samples. I personally interviewed all my participants.

An important feature of case study research is the frequent overlap of data analysis and data collection (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2014). Bearing this mind, I pursued the following steps in coding and analyzing my data. As a first step, I compiled and categorized my handwritten notes into themes and topics that caught my attention either during or just after the interviews. Before I started the "formal" coding process, I read and reread the transcriptions multiple times, and highlighted key themes from each interview. I then proceeded to code the data using a hybrid coding framework consisting of the questions that I wanted to answer, and codes and themes that had caught my attention. In so doing, I was able to search for patterns, insights, and emerging concepts from my data.

The coding scheme was constructed based on carefully selected words, synonyms, and phrases that the interviewees used to describe and characterize the codes. I also spent a lot of time "juxtaposing" data from two or more cases. The process of conducting within and cross-case analyzes gave me multiple vantage points to strengthen my analysis through the process of triangulation, while at the same time, minimized information processing biases which could arise from analyzing data from a limited perspective (Kahneman & Tversky, 1973).

Instead of using singular words, the unit of analysis that I employed was phrases because phrases in any language form the basis of knowledge, and provide richer insights to the phenomenon studied. It is also a form of "in vivo" coding to capture the exact words, narratives, quotes, and metaphors that my interviewees used to describe a phenomenon. With quotes, I could "show" rather than "tell" the raw data (Pratt,

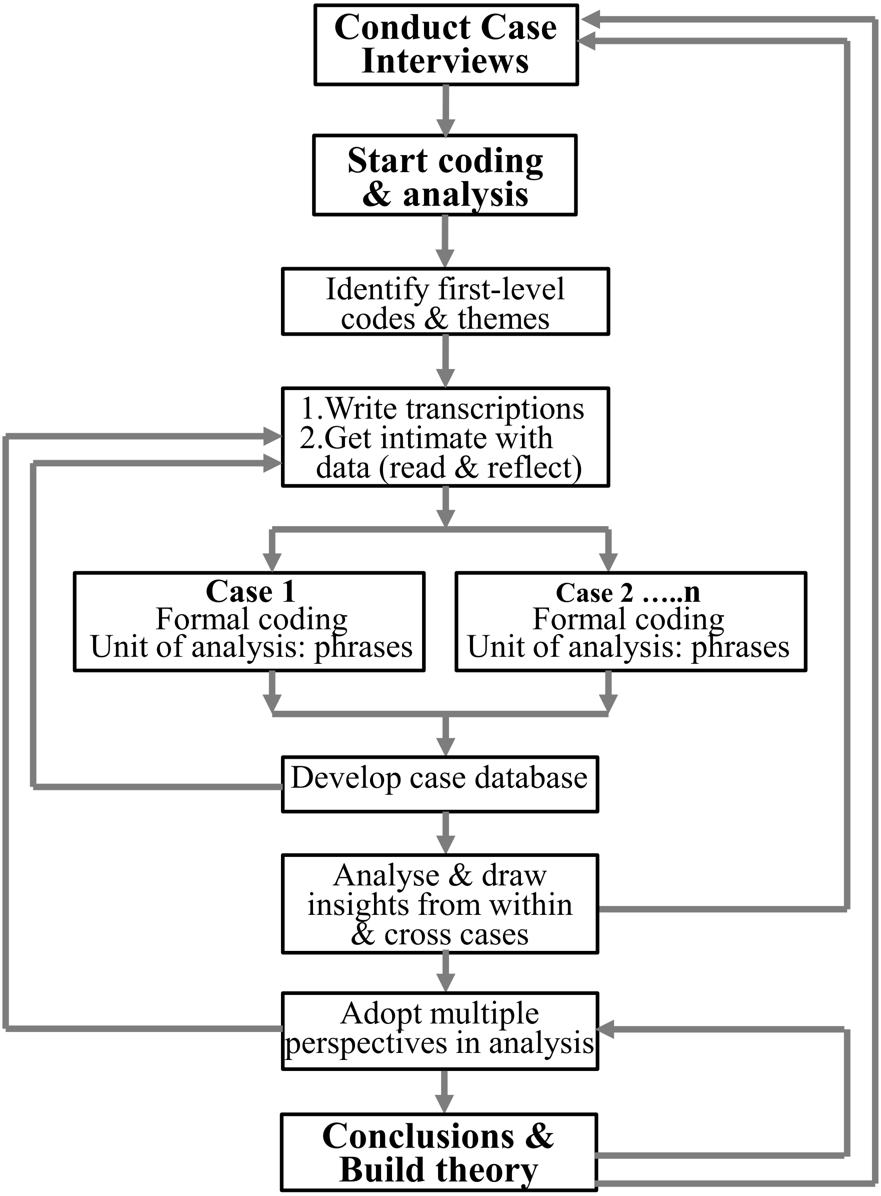

Fig. 1 The analysis process used for theory building

2008; Tracy, 2010). I started the coding process manually using Microsoft Excel, before I migrated the whole process to Atlas TI qualitative research software,[6] when it became too complex to handle.

As part of the reiterative and overlapping process of coding and analyzing, I commenced my first detailed analysis and completed a draft write-up following the tenth interview, repeating the cycle after the eighteenth interview, twenty-fourth interview, and finally, after the thirty-fifth interview. This process of going back and forth of coding, analyzing and writing was essential in ensuring that the salient points were coded and captured in the analysis, and the key concepts and ideas were strengthened in the analysis (Davidson & di Gregorio, 2011; Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2014) (Fig. 1).

5.4 Results

5.4.1 Results from the Autoethnography

In writing my autoethnography, I found that throughout my experience as a sponsee, my sponsors played two critical roles in my development. My sponsors not only gave me a critical break at every career juncture by giving me visible stretch assignments, they also spent considerable time developing me as a leader, a general manager, and a person. My sponsors invested a lot of their time and effort in my leadership development. In paying it forward for other people, when I became a sponsor, I saw myself reciprocating similar leadership developmental behaviors for my sponsee.

> I had a "ball" working for my sponsor. Not only was he a great boss and a sponsor in helping me get things done around Telstra, such as dealing with multiple stakeholders and leaders; he spent a lot of time coaching and showing me the ropes of success. He took time every week to teach me the basics of telephony engineering and operations, international relations, marketing and P&L (profit and loss) management. In other words, my sponsor taught me the basics of running a successful and complex billion-dollar telephony business.

As shown above, in addition to giving me a stretch assignment managing a A$1 billion business at Telstra, my sponsor spent a lot of time coaching me on how to manage the business. Failure was not an option as this business was the third largest revenue stream of the company. My sponsor also helped me to develop my leadership capability including developing the necessary relational skills that are required to deal and communicate with the senior leaders of the organization. Giving me such a huge stretch assignment helped me to develop my leadership identity and a leadership mindset for my future roles. Being relatively young at that time (I was in my twenties), my sponsor showed me that with the right attitude and a leadership mindset, I was able to reach my leadership potential.

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[6]Go to http://atlasti.com/ to obtain an overview of this qualitative analysis and research software.

Other than my first sponsor at Telstra, I also have many other sponsors including a sponsor who was my boss at Motorola. Like my previous sponsor, this sponsor also helped me to develop as a successful and effective leader.

> My working under her supervision gave me a lot of clarity on how to progress up the corporate ladder. She taught me essential leadership skills and gave me an accelerated course in general management, particularly, how to run a successful business by bringing together diverse teams and functions while motivating and bringing the best out of people. Additionally, she taught me the fundamental communication skills, the power of focus, and the significance of having a voice, especially to ask and negotiate for what I want. My sponsor clearly helped me grow as an effective leader, a competent general manager and a person. One important technical skill that she imparted to me was the use of scenario planning to assess the business and create new opportunities by challenging conventional ways of thinking. This led to the creation of new business opportunities in new market segments, such as the use of two-way radio as a productivity and customer service tool on the factory floor, restaurants and other new industries.

The leadership development I gained in my sponsor relationships gave me a robust foundation on how to be a leader. The leadership competencies did not include only the foundational technical skills. There were many leadership skills and competencies I learned from my sponsors. Some of the other important leadership lessons I learned included stakeholder management, team motivation, and strategic skills and visioning. I also learned how to inspire people and manage a virtual and cross-border team.

My autoethnography showed that sponsors can play a key role in helping their sponsees develop skills on the leadership strataplex—skills that comprise of cognitive, interpersonal, business acumen and strategic skills (Mumford, Campion, & Morgeson, 2007). I would not have been able to get to where I was on the corporate ladder if not for my sponsors who took time in investing in my leadership development. This autoethnography gave me the realization that even though the leadership development was specific to my roles at that time, the competencies that I acquired gave me a head start for my other roles. Having access to experienced leaders, I was also able to accelerate my development as a leader. To this end, it can be argued that sponsorship can be seen as a dedicated form of leadership development program for the sponsee.

5.4.2 Results from the Case Study Research

The results from the case study research showed that a sponsor is capable of exhibiting 14 different behaviors (see Appendix 1 for the complete list of sponsor behaviors) to help their sponsee develop themselves and advance their careers.

Out of these different behaviors, there are five specific behaviors that are related to leadership development. These behaviors include: nurture and teach, stretch assignments, building political acumen, building confidence, and providing image advice. The results also showed that building confidence is a developmental behavior that was most commonly called out for the women sponsees in the sample (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1 List of development behaviors exhibited by the sponsor (Ang, 2019)

Sponsor behavior	Evidence from data	Skills
Professional developmental behaviors		
1. Nurture and teach	It usually is about how to deal with issues that would basically shorten the time that people would take to learn about specific things. It can be how to learn something or how to do something or how to behave in a different way or how to act behavior. Different people, different things	Business acumen
	You have to learn how to deal with people. You would probably spend half the time managing people rather than managing events	Interpersonal
	…. It's being very thorough in the way of execution and being strategic	Strategic skills
	Frank said to me; "I am going to guide you all the way. I will work with you." He was very honest with me. He gave me regular feedback. And we did a lot of projects together	Cognitive skills, Business acumen and Strategic skills
2. Provide stretch assignments	So I had to challenge him on it, and it took him awhile to start bringing the results, examples or ideas that met my criteria, at least, for success and defining longer term strategy for the organization	Cognitive skills, Business acumen and Strategic skills
3. Build political acumen	I respected the most; in terms of his sheer intellectual ability, his ability to understand the politics and not get embedded in it. I appreciated a lot about him, and I've always tried to do this for myself	Business acumen and Relational skills
Personal developmental behaviors		
4. Build confidence	Mostly instilling that belief in myself; the self-confidence about the potential of perceived challenges. 'You are going to be successful. You are going to do this. You have the capability. You will be successful in whatever you want to do'	Executive presence
5. Provide image advice	I gave her feedback down to the level of her dressing because if you want to be successful, image is important. The way you speak, the way you write, and the way you carry yourself. To me, these are all important, right? I come to work in a full suit. Not everybody likes to get this kind of feedback	Executive presence

The first behavior, 'nurture and teach', is the all-encompassing professional development behavior that helps the sponsee to acquire the four critical skills on the leadership strataplex as defined by Mumford et al. (2007)—the cognitive, interpersonal, business acumen, and strategic skills. Cognitive skills are the foundation of all leadership skills. They are comprised of basic cognitive capacities including synthesizing, processing, and analysis of information. Inter- personal skills include social skills that are necessary for connecting, interacting, and influencing other people.

These skills help to enhance the emotional intelligence of the sponsee. Business acumen includes skills that are necessary for managing a business or an organization. Strategic skills are highly conceptual. They include big picture skills to drive the organization forward and achieve continuous growth. When sponsors nurture and teach their sponsees, they are essentially imparting their experiences and lessons to their sponsees. They can nurture and teach by providing an immersive training experience such as coaching their sponsees on how to run the business or solve a problem. In so doing, they not only provide a structured professional development process, but also a learning process that is relevant and customized to the needs of the organization and sponsee.

The second behavior that the sponsor provides is 'provide stretch assignments'. It is a behavior that accelerates the learning of the sponsee. Stretch assignments serve two objectives: (1) they are opportunities for the sponsee to learn and enhance their capability, and (2) they can potentially increase the visibility of the sponsee because stretch assignments typically involve important assignments to solve strategic business problems. Because sponsees learn by doing, this learning experience is immersive. Immersive learning experience is more effective than classroom learning because it combines a learning cycle of experiencing, reflecting, thinking and doing (Kolb, 2014).

Building political acumen is a critical skill for any leader operating in an organization because politics is a part and parcel of organizational life, and is essentially about power bases, power sources, power shifts and power dynamics (Pfeffer & Drummond, 2010). The degree of organizational politics varies from one organization to another and politics typically intensifies at the senior levels of the organization. Political skills such as the art or science of persuasion, selling ideas, influence, and building coalitions are needed to get things done in the organization. Recognizing this, sponsors also provide this development behavior to their sponsees.

Other than these professional behaviors, sponsors help their sponsees in developing on the personal front. The first personal development behavior is developing confidence. In my study, I found that a lack of confidence was more pronounced in women compared to men. Kay and Shipman (2014) also confirmed this finding. As success correlates closely with confidence as it does with competence, a lack of confidence becomes a barrier to success. A lack of confidence can lead women to underestimate their capabilities, thus, hindering women from taking an active role in putting themselves forward for career advancement. A lack of confidence can diminish the executive presence of a leader. Executive presence is more than acting like a leader. It is how a leader is perceived as competent, reliable and capable and it accounts for 26% of the promotion criteria (Hewlett, Leader-Chivée, Sherbin, Gordon, & Dieudonne, 2012).

Having the right image adds to a leader's executive presence. It is one of the three pillars of executive presence; the others are gravitas and communication (Hewlett et al., 2012). My study showed that this is another development behavior provided by the sponsor.

5.5 Discussion

As shown in the results above, career sponsorship can be a robust and effective way for developing leaders. It can also be argued that sponsorship is a customized leadership development program that is flexible and is aligned to the needs of the organization and sponsee. The learning that is gained in this relationship is experiential and is work-based, and is centered on solving business problems. To this end, the development that the sponsor provides to the sponsee meets the needs of the business in a timely manner, and is flexible to address the strategic needs of the organization (Seibert, Hall, & Kram, 1995).

While the leadership development that is gained from the sponsor relationship can benefit both men and women, women can gain more from this type of development because women in general, lack some of these skills on the leadership strataplex because many of them pursue functional roles rather than P&L roles (Silva & Ibarra, 2012). Having the full spectrum of skills on the leadership strataplex—skills that include cognitive, interpersonal, business and strategic skills (Mumford et al., 2007) are needed for successful leadership. While cognitive and interpersonal skills are needed at every organizational hierarchy—the other skills that are business acumen and strategic skills, are skills that leaders need to manage a business. Said in another way, a leader needs to possess the 'what', 'why', and 'how' aspects of leadership. The 'what' aspects of leadership include having technical and business acumen, the 'why'—strategic acumen, and the 'how'—which encompasses cognitive ability, interpersonal acumen, and executive presence. Sponsorship provides a dedicated approach for aspiring women leaders otherwise not available through traditional leadership training programs as these programs tend to focus on the 'what' and not on the 'why' and 'how' of leadership.

Additionally, the sponsor is able to enhance the leadership potential of the sponsee by immersing the sponsee in stretch assignments. Stretch assignments are necessary because they stretch the employees beyond their current knowledge or skills as this learning and development comes with thinking and doing. Using the analogy of an acorn seed, the acorn seed is able to develop its potential as a tree with nourishment—water, sunlight and soil. Similarly, stretch assignments help sponsees developmentally beyond what they think that they are capable of. It is another way for how women can reach their potential without having to attend a formal development course.

There's another advantage that comes from learning from the sponsor—that is, learning about political acumen. In general, compared to men, women are not as proficient in navigating politics. Women are judged more harshly than men when they are seen as participating in office politics, which is why many women say they dislike office politics even though they want to assert themselves at work (Heath, 2017). Given that all organizations are political, acquiring political acumen is critical for success, and is a part of getting ahead as to get things done whether this is getting buy-in or influencing other people to support an idea etc. Acquiring political skills is not something that is easily learned in a classroom setting. By participating in sponsorship, women can learn these skills first hand from their sponsors.

Given that career sponsorship is available to men and women, putting sponsorship forward as a leadership development program will not invite the 'negative perceptions' that women-only leadership development programs garner. There is also no political inappropriateness for women in engaging in this type of development. This is another reason for why career sponsorship can be an effective leadership development strategy for organizations to consider.

Another benefit from career sponsorship is—sponsors are able to work closely with sponsees, especially the female sponsees to develop their unique leadership identities. Leadership identity is paramount for career success because without an internal sense of purpose, it would be difficult for people to see themselves as leaders and for others to see themselves as leaders (Ely et al., 2011; Ibarra et al., 2013). The development of a leadership identity can lead to the cultivation of a leadership mindset. A leadership mindset is needed in this VUCA environment as leaders need to constantly learn and unlearn how they lead and solve problems. Sponsorship provides the cultivation of a leadership mindset as sponsees are exposed to problems to be solved through the stretch assignments that sponsors provide.

The absence of a leadership identity (Ely et al., 2011; Ibarra et al., 2013) can also be attributed to a lack of confidence. Confidence matters as much as competence. If an individual is competent but lacks confidence, the competence of the individual would be under-estimated. By participating in career sponsorship, women can gain confidence through imitation and personal learning from her sponsor. In so doing, the female sponsee would be likely to develop her executive presence (Hewlett, 2013); to develop an ability to look, talk, and project leadership, while at the same time, develop a sense of leadership identity.

In a one-on-one sponsorship arrangement, sponsees get to learn first-hand on how to handle important business decisions. In a way, the sponsors become the 'de facto' role models for the sponsees. As there is a lack of female role models in the workplace due to the low numbers of women in higher management, sponsorship fills this gap by providing not only female role models, but also male role models. Learning from women and men role models is essential for corporate success because the top of the corporate ladder includes both genders. Another outcome from role modeling is the acquisition of executive presence (Hewlett, 2013) and learning the ability to project leadership material while speaking like a leader, as well as looking like a leader. Thus, it increases the female sponsee's perception as a leader.

Female employees have different development needs depending on their career and life stages. They also tend to follow an indirect career trajectory due to priorities at home whether they entail caring for their children or their elderly parents. Because different sponsees have different needs and job demands depending on their work and life stages, sponsorship would be more suited to provide the customized leadership and development program that is needed for women.

5.6 Contribution to Theory

The main contribution to theory is—career sponsorship is not only a strategy for career progression, it equally can be a robust leadership development strategy that organizations can adopt for developing leaders, particularly their up and coming women leaders. Unlike women-only development programs that might invite perceptions of political inappropriateness, it can serve as an effective alternative leadership development strategy for women especially to develop the skills on the leadership strataplex, as well as confidence and executive presence. Furthermore, this type of development can help women to develop their leadership identities and a leadership mindset.

5.7 Implications to Practice

If sponsorship is to be considered as a rich and extensive leadership development program, it presents an alternate strategy for organizations to build its leadership pipeline. Sponsorship, unlike any leadership development programs, is a program that can be customized for the sponsee. It is also a program that is experiential, and focuses on learning by doing and is centered on real work lessons and solving business problems.

5.8 Limitations

This study is not without limitations. The first limitation refers to the methodology of autoethnography. Unlike the positivist approach to theory building, autoethnography is a reflexive method that is centered on 'dwelling in' the theory (Burawoy, 1998). Even though there is an artificial separation that exists between the researcher and the subject, there still exists an element of engagement between the researcher and subject. It is through this engagement as the 'subjective self' (Wall, 2006) that the researcher is able make sense of the phenomenon (Weick, 1995). Hence, it is a research method that accommodates subjectivity and emotionality, and acknowledges the influence of the researcher on the phenomenon (Ellis, Adams, & Bochner, 2011). To this end, it is a methodological risk that autoethnography allows for.

Even though the case method of inquiry has been proven to be a robust and tested method for qualitative research, the limited number of cases; 29 cases, might limit broad generalizability of these findings, especially across geographies and cultures despite careful selection of cases to meet the requirements of a theoretical sample. Furthermore, the sample used in this study was biased in the sense that, it involved people in sponsorship relationships, and probably principally included people with generally a positive view on sponsorship.

5.9 Conclusion

In addition to a strategy for career advancement, sponsorship can be considered as a rich and extensive leadership development program. It presents an alternate strategy for organizations to not only build any leadership pipeline, but a female leadership pipeline. It also will help organizations to address the gender disparity at the top of the corporate ladder.

Appendix 1—List of all the Behaviors of the Sponsor

Category	Behavior of the sponsor	Count (n = 35)	Percentage (%)
Professional development	Provide advocacy	30	86
	Provide visibility and exposure	24	69
	Ensure sponsee's candidacy for roles	23	66
	Nurture and teach	23	66
	Fight for promotion	16	46
	Access to senior networks	13	37
	Provide stretch assignments	10	29
	Give career advice	10	29
	Access to external networks	7	20
	Provide protection	6	17
	Build political acumen	1	3
Personal development	Provide personal advice	3	9
	Develop confidence	2	6
	Provide image advice	1	3

Source: Own research

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Chapter 6
Examining Servant Leadership Effects on Team Satisfaction: An Agent-Based Approach

Kaivalya Prasad and Ly Fie Sugianto

Abstract Servant leadership is a fairly recent concept in the gamut of leadership styles. It has received wide acceptance, lending itself well in public serving organizations and bringing positive impact on organization wide development. Existing literature has put forth evidences from the past where social and spiritual leaders have given importance to others' needs, aspirations and interests above their own. Such leaders have been driven by the goal to serve others. Yet, research till date has not portrayed a concrete idea of what would be the impact of servant leadership in different teams and scenarios. Since researchers in the past have claimed that servant leadership offers the potential to improve organizational leadership in many settings, this chapter attempts to discover the finer details of the effects of servant leadership in team context through agent-based model.

Keywords Leadership · Servant leadership · Agent-based modeling · Team work

6.1 Introduction

Research in the field of leadership has spanned over more than six decades with most researchers proposing many different theories, propositions and observations on the subject (Uhl-Bien, Marion, & McKelvey, 2007). While the importance of a leader's role in complex social interactions is no doubt well established in the literature, many organizational leadership studies ignore the fundamental processes involved in leadership (Hunter, Bedell-Avers, & Mumford, 2007), especially in work groups. Leadership, as defined by Dubrin (2007), is the ability to inspire confidence and support among people who are needed to achieve organizational goals. There exist different leadership styles which are suitable for various situations and organizations.

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These leadership styles have different impacts on followers, may it be productivity aspects, work behaviour or emotional and attitude responses. A leadership style that has emerged in the recent decade is servant leadership. In servant leadership, the role of a leader can be perceived as the steward in charge of the resources available in an organization.

Servant leadership is a fairly recent and increasingly popular concept in the repertoire of leadership styles. Leadership literature (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002) reported that servant leadership has been practiced and advocated in some of the best companies in America and other parts of the world. These organizations prove that servant leadership has had positive impacts on the organization wide development in the past and is being successfully implemented in many organizations today. Although servant leadership is an attractive concept, its impact on job satisfaction in team context has not yet been studied and explained. Since past research exerted that servant leadership offered the potential to improve organizational leadership in many settings (Joseph & Winston, 2005), it is imperative to observe the finer details of these effects, particularly its effect in team context.

In the recent past, numerous computational techniques have evolved to model and study leadership more effectively and agent-based modeling is one among them (Hazy, 2007). In this study, agent-based modelling has been used to explore the process of how a servant leader can bring the desired positive outcome when leading in team context. In particular, we seek to identify the enabling factors and conditions allowing servant leadership to positively influence team members. With the advancement of computer simulation, it has become feasible to perform experiments on artificial social arrangements which otherwise would be complicated and ethically impossible when performed on actual group of human beings (Gilbert, 2005). In this study, we propose to simulate the team dynamics using agent-based modelling framework and observe the complex interplays among leadership, team characteristics as well as internal and external work environments leading to a trajectory of team satisfaction. Using agent-based approach, it would be possible to model leader and followers, organizational, environmental and personal factors promoting or inhibiting the achievement of the common goal, the servant leader's influence on the followers and finally the outcome which is the team performance and the degree to which the chartered goals are achieved.

6.2 Team Work, Interdependence and Team Effectiveness

Today has seen the prevalence of work groups in many organizations. Team-based work has been proven to be an effective working arrangement offering autonomy, responsibility and job enrichment, as well as enhancing performance outcomes such as productivity and quality, on both the team and the organizational level (Dooreward, Hootgem, & Huys, 2002).

Interdependence is often the reason teams are formed (Mintzberg, 1979) and is a defining characteristic of teams (Salas, Dickinson, Converse, & Tannenbaum, 1992;

Wall, Kemp, Jackson, & Clegg, 1986). Task interdependence is the degree to which completing tasks requires the interaction of group members and has been identified as an important factor in determining group effectiveness (Saavedra, Earley, & Van Dyne, 1993; Wageman, 1995). The members of a work group depend on each other for not only the successful completion of their jobs but also the achievement of superordinate goals and desired outcomes (Guzzo & Shea, 1992).

Task interdependence has been defined as a characteristic of the team as a whole (Campion, Medsker, & Higgs, 1993; Campion, Papper, & Medsker, 1996; Guzzo & Shea, 1992; Molleman, 2009; Saavedra et al., 1993). It is considered to be structural feature of the instrumental relations that exist between team members. Team members are task interdependent when they must share materials, information, or expertise in order to achieve the desired performance or output (Cummings, 1978), i.e., members interact and depend on one another to accomplish their work. Task Interdependence reflects the fact that the processing and outcome of one task affects the processing and outcome of other tasks (Molleman, 1998). If task interdependence is low, team members can do their job independently of other members and rarely have to share resources. If task interdependence is high, team members need input from other members in terms of materials or information to fulfil their own tasks successfully (Van Der Vegt, Emans, & Van De Vliert, 2001). The degree of task interdependence typically increases as the work becomes more difficult and the personnel require greater assistance from others to perform their jobs. Interdependence varies across teams, depending on whether the work flow in a team is pooled, sequential, or reciprocal (Thompson, 1967). For example, members of a sales department clearly operate relatively independent from one another, whereas most members of surgical teams occupy jobs with considerable task interdependence.

When task interdependence in a work unit is higher, there are larger number of interpersonal interactions and also greater complexity in coordinating these interactions (Thompson, 1967). Highly interdependent jobs provide increased contact and more opportunities to communicate what each worker requires (Salas, Rozell, Mullen, & Driskell, 1999), what is expected in return (Seers, Petty, & Cashman, 1995), and what each worker is doing (Humphrey, Hollenbeck, Meyer, & Ilgen, 2007a). This enhances a sense of responsibility for other's work (Kiggundu, 1983) and enhances the reward value of a team's accomplishments (Shea & Guzzo, 1987).

Interdependence has been shown to influence work groups and worker outcomes in many empirical studies (e.g., Saavedra et al., 1993; Thompson, 1967; Van Der Vegt et al., 2001; Wageman, 1995) and interdependence as an important group design parameter has been examined in connection with both performance-related issues (Campion et al., 1993, 1996; Guzzo & Shea, 1992; Saavedra et al., 1993) and job and team satisfaction (Van Der Vegt et al., 2001) although its primary impact is upon the attitudinal outcomes of satisfaction and organizational commitment (Campion et al., 1993; Humphrey, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007b). Moreover, because interdependence often implies competition with out-group members, motivation is generally increased in high interdependence situations (Tauer & Harackiewicz, 2004). In summary, at the group level, studies have shown a positive relation to exist between the degree of group task interdependence and job satisfaction (Campion et al., 1996; Mohr, 1971; Van Der Vegt et al., 2001).

When examining the interaction between leadership and team dynamics, it should be noted that team can influence each member just as how an individual leader can influence his or her followers. Leadership, viewed as a social influence process, goes beyond a single leader when observed at multiple levels and can be vested in an individual or a group (Avolio & Bass, 1995). The construct of Team-Member exchange (TMX) has been proposed as a way to capture the mutuality in the relationships between a team member and the group (Seers, 1989). High-quality TMX implies that a focal member and his or her group have an excellent social as well as task relationship and individuals engage in behaviours not out of self-interest but to benefit co-workers. Evidently, in some work settings, the quality of lateral (within-group) relationships is more important than vertical relationships (with supervisor) in predicting work group outcomes (Seers, 1989).

Highly effective teams have been characterized as having a clear central focus or vision and members willing to make sacrifices for the good of the team's mission or vision (Katzenbach & Smith, 1993). They actively build each member's potential; they are cohesive and have members that fully identify with the team's central purpose and values (Cohen, Ledford, & Spreitzer, 1996; Kozlowski, Gully, McHugh, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1996a).

The many models of team effectiveness discussed in prior literature share several common characteristics. All models of team effectiveness use the systems perspective of input-process-output to conceptualize the pattern of relationships among the variables of interest (Sivasubramaniam, Murry, Avolio, & Jung, 2002). On the input side, prior models have identified member-team characteristics (Campion et al., 1993; Gladstein, 1984; Kozlowski et al., 1996a), task structure (Cohen et al., 1996; Gladstein, 1984), team capacity (Klimoski & Mohammed, 1994), leadership (Avolio, Jung, Murry, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Kozlowski, Gully, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1996b; Stewart & Manz, 1994), and organizational structure-culture (Lawler, 1992). Several models also include a set of (mediating) process variables including group cohesiveness (Kozlowski et al., 1996b), norms (Bettenhausen & Murnighan, 1985; Cohen et al., 1996), collective effort (Klimoski & Mohammed, 1994), and potency beliefs (Campion et al., 1993; Cohen et al., 1996). The outcomes have been operationalized in many different ways including job satisfaction (Campion et al., 1996; Gladstein, 1984), absenteeism (Cohen et al., 1996), cycle time (Silver & Bufanio, 1996), work unit productivity/sales (Campion et al., 1993; Gladstein, 1984), and ratings of work group effectiveness (Cohen et al., 1996; Gladstein, 1984; Manz & Sims, 1987).

An important gauge of team effectiveness is team satisfaction on the performed task (Campion et al., 1993; Dorfman & Stephan 1984; Gladstein 1984; Hecht & Riley 1985). Mason and Griffin (2005, p. 625) have conceptualized this construct as "the group-level counterpart to individual job satisfaction, and represents the group's shared attitude towards its task and work environment". By developing a collective belief structure that is shared among members, teams develops a sense of coherence and expectations of one another that can help facilitate learning, allowing the team to determine its own direction and to ultimately to lead itself (Cannon-Bowers & Salas, 1990). As team members build expectations for each other—expectations which are somewhat linked to the team's mission, they are able to identify with what he or she is personally trying to accomplish over time (Bettenhausen & Murnighan, 1985; Cannon-Bowers & Salas, 1990). More effective groups develop shared beliefs concerning the empowerment of each other, expected levels of participation, openness to challenging each other's perspective, a stronger sense of mission and focus, and a higher level of trust more quickly than less effective groups (Hackman, 1990). Consequently, the team work dynamics will vary based on the task and work context shared by team members, and the profiles of each team. The focus on task rather than job satisfaction was driven by the level of analysis, that is at the group-level analysis. While team members share a common task, they most likely have different responsibilities which make up part of their team work (Mason & Griffin, 2002).

The performance in team-based working largely depends on the team members' competencies and attitudes with regard to planning, performing and controlling team tasks in an autonomous way (Dooreward et al., 2002). Leadership, or the lack of it, has been identified as one of the leading causes of failures in implementing a team-based work system (Katzenbach, 1997; Sivasubramaniam et al., 2002; Stewart & Manz, 1994; Sinclair, 1992). Yet, only a few models of team effectiveness e.g., (Gladstein, 1984; Kozlowski et al., 1996b) have explicitly considered leadership as one of the determinants of team effectiveness.

6.3 Servant Leadership

The concept of servant leadership was proposed by Robert K. Greenleaf in 1977. However, the concept of a servant leader has been well known in the religious theology, namely Christianity. Servant leadership has received wide acceptance from other religions and non-religious believers as well (Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008). In line with Greenleaf's servant leadership theory is the assertion that a servant's leader desire to serve others took precedence over the desire to be in a formal leadership position (Daft & Lengel, 2000). These beliefs concur with the idea that a servant leader is a servant of higher power, who gives due respect to that position and power and acts obediently in order to serve other people who are by position and power under him (Sendjaya et al., 2008).

Servant leadership involves putting others needs, aspirations and interests above the leader's. This is a choice that is deliberately made by the leader and the primary motive of the leader is to serve rather than to lead (Greenleaf, 1977). The desire to serve is the fundamental motivation for a servant leader (Baggett, 1997). Servant leaders lead from their values and beliefs, unlike others who are motivated by self-interest. They give prime importance to human equality and seek to enhance the personal development and professional contributions of all the followers. A servant leader strives to meet the needs of those served, assists followers in being their best, coaches and invests in followers' personal growth, listens well and builds community (Spears, 1996). Despite being at the higher level in the management hierarchy, servant leaders are willing to facilitate their subordinates. This is a dramatic shift in how leadership has been practised and reported in conventional management and leadership theories. With this radical approach, the needs of the organization, clients and business partners become the main focus. Servant leadership can be perceived as a group-oriented approach to analysis and decision making to strengthen institutions and improve society. It emphasizes the power of persuasion and seeking consensus over the conventional top-down form of leadership (Spears, 1996).

Since servant leadership is uniquely different from other forms of leadership, distinct characteristics and behaviors in servant leaders can be observed (Russell & Stone, 2002). Ten attributes of servant leadership include *Listening, Empathy, Healing, Awareness, Persuasion, Conceptualization, Foresight, Stewardship, Commitment to the growth of people* and *Building community* (Spears, 1996). These attributes can be classified as *Functional* and *Accompanying* attributes (Russell & Stone, 2002). Relationships between leaders and followers are built based on trust and service (Sarkus, 1996; Tatum, 1995) and consequently, this is how servant leaders influence their followers. Trust is an important factor in the interdependence that existed between leaders and followers in servant leadership (Farling, Stone, & Winston, 1999). In fact, trust can be regarded as the core component in servant leadership since the leadership legitimacy begins with trust (Greenleaf, 1977). Servant leaders build trust by genuinely empowering workers, involving employees early, honoring commitments and being consistent, developing coaching skills and fostering risk taking, an appropriate management style, and through trustworthiness that is built on integrity and competence (Joseph & Winston, 2005). Further, it is perceived that servant leadership will encourage followers' learning, growth and autonomy, which in turn play a role in the future leadership of learning organizations (Bass, 1998).

The premise of this study has been the Servant Leadership Behavior Scale (Sendjaya et al., 2008) that encompasses and builds up on other value-laden leadership styles. The SLBS model extends all the other models since spirituality and morality-ethics, which drives a servant leader to go beyond the willingness to serve others, are included in the model. Spiritual, moral and ethical aspects are emphasized in SLBS (Sendjaya et al., 2008). The SLBS model (Sendjaya et al., 2008) is a multidimensional measure of servant leadership behaviour with six dimensions, namely *Voluntary subordination, Authentic Self, Covenantal Relationship, Responsible Morality, Transcendental Spirituality,* and *Transforming Influence*.

6.4 Leadership and Team Performance

The importance of leadership in team context has been well established in the literature: to provide guidance to the team, set the goals, outline the team's objectives, develop team norms, decide on task performance strategy, develop a shared understanding within the team, monitor team output as team progresses towards the goal, coordinate team action and engage in effective communication (Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006; Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001; Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010). When team members work together, their collective attitude develops as a result of their interaction which in turn promotes or inhibits team outcomes. To maintain a positive collective attitude leaders play an important role in managing the interpersonal activities of teams by fostering adequate team member motivation, promoting a sense of psychological safety, and managing the emotions and conflict that can occur within the team (Edmondson, 1999; Marks et al., 2001).

Furthermore, leaders play important role in structuring the work environment and providing information and feedback to team members. Past study has asserted that leaders can shape the intrinsic motivation by the way in which they structure the objective characteristics of the work itself (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). As a consequence, supervisors' (or leaders') behaviours have an impact on the affective reactions of team members (Durham, Knight, & Locke, 1997). Although there have been few conflicting studies in the past that have not supported the ongoing positive influence of leadership on groups (Griffin, Patterson, & West, 2001; Kerr, Hill, & Broedling, 1986; Parker & Wall, 1998), this study focuses on how leadership behaviors influence attitudinal outcomes in groups such as group (or team) task satisfaction as leadership has been consistently recognized as important for the initiation and ongoing development of teams (Bass, 1997; Manz & Sims, 1987; Tjosvold, 1995) and is often included as an important determinant in models of satisfaction (e.g., Campion et al., 1993; Cohen et al., 1996; Gladstein, 1984). In traditional work structures supervisors have been long recognized to play an important part in developing roles and expectations of employees (Graen & Scandura, 1987). This function is also important when teamwork is introduced because leaders can play a key role in modelling teamwork and setting the ground rules for team members to engage in team processes (McIntyre & Salas, 1995). Immediate supervisors also provide salient information about the support of the broader organization for change and their behaviours are likely to be interpreted as a representative of wider organizational processes (Kozlowski & Doherty, 1989).

In an organizational setting, a leader is compelled to focus on multiple goals which can be organizational, team goals, as well as personal goals. In such situation, an ideal leader would be one who can strike a balance between these multiple goals and to most extent satisfy everyone and self. Contrasting the nature of relationships between manager-and-team and leader-and-team, a manager focuses strictly on team performance without empathy for team members, while a leader invests in relationship with followers and tends to be very empathetic towards followers. Consequently, team members (or followers) are motivated to perform and pursue the team goal. An ideal leader is one who has the capacity to facilitate the achievement of team goals, which may be measured in various forms, such as enabling team to attain maximum team satisfaction.

6.5 Agent Based Approach for Modelling Complexity

Human societies are complex and unpredictable. Humans vary in their capabilities, desires, needs and knowledge in contrast to physical systems. Their characteristics at any one time are somewhat affected by their past. This is a phenomenon known as *path dependence* (Gilbert, 2005). Moreover, in a society, humans interact with each other. Interactions involve the dissemination of knowledge and materials that often affect or influence the future behaviour of the recipients. Unpredictability in behaviour, path dependency and human-to-human interactions contribute to complexity in human societies. In other words, human societies and organizations can be perceived as complex systems and the behavior of the whole system cannot be understood by segregating it and understanding the behavior of each part separately, or one at a time (Gilbert & Bankes, 2002). On the contrary, when studying a complex system, the systemic behaviour, such as the behaviour of the society, *emerges* from the actions of its units (Gilbert, 2005). One of the disadvantages of social simulation is that it involves estimation of many parameters, and adequate data for making the estimates can be difficult (Gilbert, 2005).

New research methods are being used to fully appreciate how leadership occurs in today's complex knowledge economy. A class of methods emerged to be a popular and powerful technique to study complex systems analysis is computational modelling (Carley, 1995). Computational modeling techniques, such as agent-based modeling and system dynamics, are being used with increasing success (Hazy, 2007). Autonomous agents and multi-agent systems have become new ways of analyzing, designing, and implementing complex software systems (Jennings, Sycara, & Wooldridge, 1998).

Using agent based approach, the computational model does not rely on strictly mathematical equations. Instead, individual entities, or agents, are represented directly rather than by their density or concentration. Agents are modeled to possess an internal state and a set of behavior or rules that determine how the agent's state is updated from one time step to the next. Agent models that use a genetic algorithm or some other learning process can change their rules over time and thus adapt to a changing environment (Hazy, 2007). Agent-based modeling has been used by Hubler and Pines (1994) to find that when two agents attempt to predict and actively train the environment, a stabler leader-follower situation emerges as optimal for each. Further Carley and Ren (2001) used this technique to examine the conditions within organizational networks whereby heterogeneous agent situations might enable leader-follower relationships to emerge. Anghel, Godja, Dinsoreanu, and Soalomie, (2003) examined the emergence of scale-free advice networks that enable a small number of agents to influence the decision of many agents in the aggregate, using agent-based modeling. Black, Oliver, Howell and King (2006) used agent-based modeling to examine how leader agents with different leadership profiles affect the learning of groups and the group level feedback was also examined.

The interactions between leaders and followers are complex and the outcomes of these interactions can be affected by time and context sensitivities. Agent-based modeling is an effective means to observe these interactions and sensitivities and consequently their effects on the team performance and also the leader's performance (Black et al., 2006). Thus agent-based modeling would serve as a practical approach to observe how a servant leader influences the performance of different teams. This approach would help to study the dynamics in a servant leader's role in various types of teams in varied situations. Specifically, this study is aimed to model the impact of a servant leader on the team as a whole, in different team settings and scenarios, and the performance of team and as a result measure the degree of team satisfaction.

Agents are able to evolve, allowing unanticipated behavior to emerge. It is possible to embed artificial intelligence into agents to model their learning behaviour. Artificial intelligence techniques which are used to model learning behaviour in agents are machine learning techniques, such as neural networks and evolutionary algorithms (Bonabeau, 2002). Agents are programmed to have a degree of autonomy, to react to and act on their environment and on other agents, and to have goals that they aim to satisfy. Agents can have one-to-one correspondence with real life individuals that are being modeled, while the interactions between agents can correspond to interactions between real world actors. The model can be initialized with a preset arrangement and the model can be run and the behavior can be observed. Emergent patterns of actions may become apparent from observing the simulation (Gilbert, 2005).

Agent-based model is suitable to be applied to study human societies as interactions between agents which are complex and non-linear mimic the complex interaction in human societies. Agent-based modelling of a complex adaptive system requires: identifying the agent's characteristics, the dimensions of relationships among the agents, and the goals that govern their coevolution (Lewin, Parker, & Regine, 1998).

Agent-based model has also gained growing acceptance in various fields in social science in the recent decade (Bankes, 2002). Three generic reasons cited for the potential importance of agent-based model to social science are: (i) the unsuitability of competing modelling formalisms to address the problems of social science, (ii) agents as a natural ontology for many social problems, and (iii) emergence.

The most fundamental reason for the enthusiasm for agent-based model is the dissatisfaction with the restrictions imposed by alternative modelling formalisms. The most widely used alternatives are systems of differential equations and statistical modelling. Both of these competing tools have made important contributions to social science, but both are viewed as imposing restrictive or unrealistic assumptions that limit their use for many problems (Bankes, 2002).

6.6 The Proposed Agent-Based Model

The agent-based model presented in this section has been designed to study the evolvement of the trajectory of team satisfaction. As shown in Fig. 6.1, the model comprises of three components: leadership style, team task and environmental factors and group effectiveness.

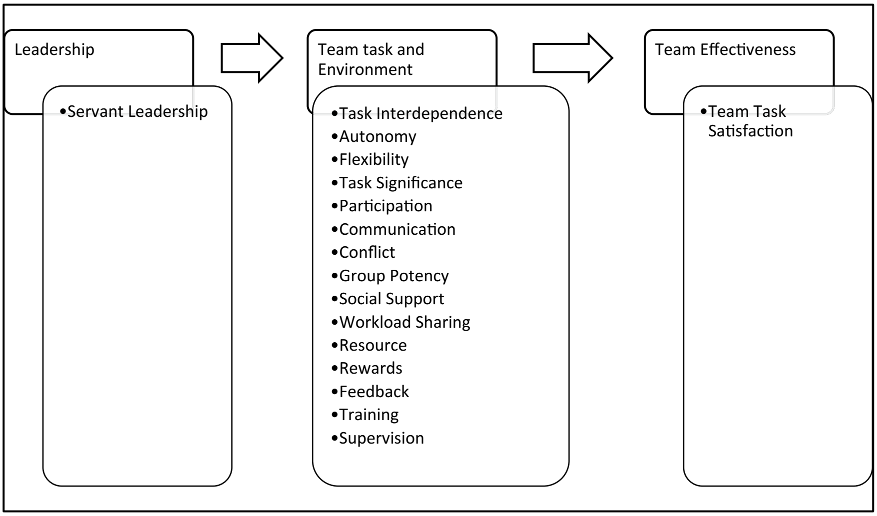


Fig. 6.1 Influence of servant leadership, team's task and environment factors on team satisfaction

Team satisfaction has been used as the proxy to measure group effectiveness. Team satisfaction is the job (or task) satisfaction perceived at the team (or group) level. It represents the team's shared attitude towards its task and work environment. In other words, this construct can be described as satisfaction perceived by the team with its task, internal environment and external environment (Mason & Griffin, 2005).

The internal environment indicates the team's ability to work together effectively while the external environment refers to other factors that are other than team influence. The team task and environmental factors have been modelled based on the management literature. The group task characteristics are task interdependence, flexibility, task significance, autonomy, and participation, following past studies which have demonstrated their influence on satisfaction (Campion et al. 1993, 1996; Cohen & Bailey 1997; Hackman & Oldham 1976; Mason & Griffin 2005). Communication, conflict, group potency, social support, and workload sharing are modeled as internal environmental factors previously shown to affect the team satisfaction (Campion et al., 1993; Mason & Griffin 2005). The external environmental factors are resources, supervision, rewards, training, and feedback (Campion et al., 1993; Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Mason & Griffin, 2005).

Given that the focus of the study is on the interaction effect among the leadership style and the team members resulting in the formation of team's shared attitude, three types of agents are required to interact in the model: (1) the leader agent, (2) the team member agents, and (3) the team agent.

The leader agent represents the leader of the team exhibiting servant leadership characteristics. The team agent has the following attributes: leadership style, status, influence on autonomy, influence on task significance, influence on group potency, influence on communication, influence on conflict management, influence on participation, influence on social support, influence on resources, influence on rewards, influence on training, influence on feedback, and influence on supervision. The behaviour of the leader agent has been modelled based on input from a leadership research panel. Eight leadership research experts from Australia, Canada and the United States had been surveyed to articulate the degree of influence of servant leadership on the team's perception of autonomy, task significance, group potency, communication, conflict management, participation, social support, resources, rewards, training, feedback and supervision. The responses of the leadership expert panel had been subjected to numerical processing to transpose the effects of servant leadership on each of the aforementioned factors. It should be noted that the aggregated responses from the panel had been used as the input to the proposed agent-based model.

The (team) member agent models the member of the team. Each member agent has the following attributes: expertise (expertise level of the member), status (position power of member), conflict ability (member's ability to conflict with other members), conflict (the actual conflict occurrence with another member), conflict management (member's ability to manage conflict), communication ability (member's ability to communicate effectively with other members), communication (actual level of communication established with another member), support ability (member's ability to be socially supportive to other members), social support (actual level of support displayed towards another member), flexibility (ability of a member to perform varied tasks), task significance (member's perceived task significance), potency (member's perception of the team spirit), rewards (rewards received by the member), training (level of training received by member), feedback (feedback received by a member during the course of the task). In the beginning of each simulation run, each member agent is set with initial values for each of its attributes. The attribute values range between -1 (low) to +1 (high). The values are assigned based on the member's expertise level, which ranges from 1 (lowest) to 5 (highest). As will be discussed later in this chapter, the member's expertise level is used as one of the controllable variables in the computer simulation.

The team agent represents the whole team. For the purpose of simplicity, a team is composed of seven members and a leader. The team size is kept constant throughout the computer simulation. The team agent has the following attributes: autonomy, communication, flexibility, conflict, task significance, group potency, participation, social support, workload sharing, resources, rewards, training, feedback, supervision, and team satisfaction, i.e. the outcome variable in the model). Three team profiles are included in the model. Team profile with value between -1 to 0 indicates a team with low capability (or referred to as low team). Team profile with value between 0 to +1 indicates a team with high capability (or referred to as high team).

The simulation starts with a task allocation from the leader agent to member agents. The simulation is completed when all members have completed all allocated tasks. During task execution, agents interact with each other. The interactions can be between leader and member agents or between member and member agents. Figure 6.2 illustrates the Use Case diagram, depicting the different entities (or agents), the events and the tasks associated with each agent type. The agent-based simulation

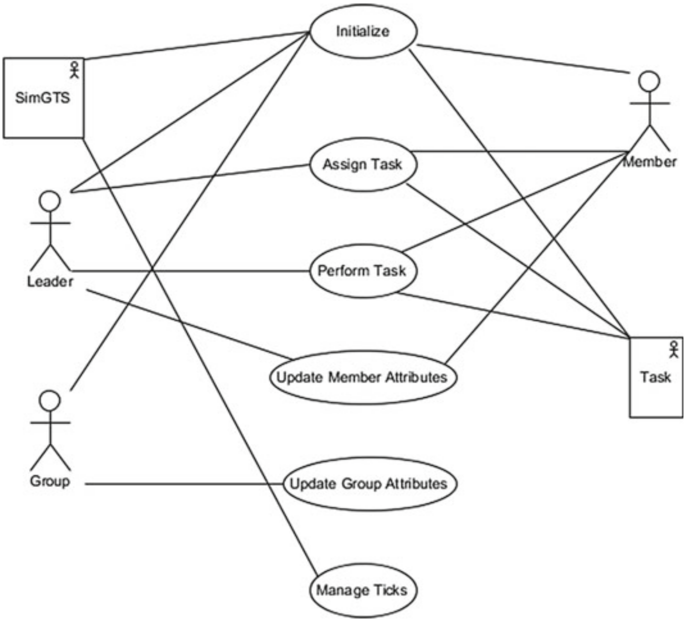


Fig. 6.2 Use case diagram of the agent-based model

platform is referred to as SimGTS. The simulation commences with an initialization process, assigning pre-defined values for agents' ability, number of tasks and their priorities, and setting the profile of member agents belonging to the team.

Table 6.1 lists the entities and attributes of each agent. It also lists the source for the data, may it be from the user, calculated within the system or based on survey of the expert panel.

6.7 Experimental Design and Computer Simulation

This study is aimed to explore and identify the factors and conditions in which servant leadership positively influences team members. We posit that servant leadership can have various degrees of positive impacts depending on the type of team and demands of the task. Accordingly, the controllable factor (or manipulated variable) representing the policy alternative in this computer experiment is the team profile, namely high team or low team. A high profile team is composed of members with high communication ability, conflict ability, support ability and perception of task significance. A low team is composed of members with low communication abilities, conflict ability, support ability and perception of task significance.

Another controllable factor is the task interdependence. A high task interdependence is normally performed by coordination intensive team. Coordination in a team

Table 6.1 The entities and attributes in the agent-based model

Entity	Attribute	Possible value range		Value set by (user/system/survey)	Fixed/random/ dependent value	Constant/variable
		L	H			
Member	Expertise level	1	5	System	Fixed	Constant
	Expertise value	0	1	System	Random	Variable
	Status	1	5	System	Fixed	Constant
	Communication ability	−1 0 −1	0 1 1	User	Random	Variable
	Conflict ability	−1 0 −1	0 1 1	User	Random	Variable
	Support ability	−1 0 −1	0 1 1	User	Random	Variable
	Task significance	−1 0 −1	0 1 1	User	Random	Variable
	Communication	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Conflict	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Conflict management	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Flexibility	0	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Social support	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Feedback	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Training	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Rewards	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Potency	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
Leader	Leadership style	Servant		User	Fixed	Constant
	Status	7		System	Fixed	Constant
	Influence on autonomy	−1	1	Survey	Fixed	Constant
	Influence on task significance	−1	1	Survey	Fixed	Constant
	Influence on communication	−1	1	Survey	Fixed	Constant
	Influence on conflict management	−1	1	Survey	Fixed	Constant
	Influence on group potency	−1	1	Survey	Fixed	Constant
	Influence on participation	−1	1	Survey	Fixed	Constant
	Influence on social support	−1	1	Survey	Fixed	Constant

(continued)

Table 6.1 (continued)

Entity	Attribute	Possible value range		Value set by (user/system/survey)	Fixed/random/ dependent value	Constant/variable
		L	H			
	Influence on resources	−1	1	Survey	Fixed	Constant
	Influence on rewards	−1	1	Survey	Fixed	Constant
	Influence on training	−1	1	Survey	Fixed	Constant
	Influence on feedback	−1	1	Survey	Fixed	Constant
	Influence on supervision	−1	1	Survey	Fixed	Constant
Group	Autonomy	−1	1	System	Dependent	Constant
	Communication	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Flexibility	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Conflict	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Task significance	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Group potency	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Participation	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Social support	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Workload sharing	0	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Resources	−1	1	System	Dependent	Constant
	Rewards	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Training	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Feedback	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
	Supervision	−1	1	System	Dependent	Constant
	Group task satisfaction	−1	1	System	Dependent	Variable
Task	Task interdependence	1	5	User	Fixed	Constant
	Task level	1	5	System	Random	Constant
	Number of secondary members	1	5	System	Dependent	Constant
	Number of interactions	1	25	System	Dependent	Constant
	Sequence of interactions	–		System	Random	Constant

occurs when team members perform either the same tasks or reciprocal tasks at certain time to facilitate the team performance outcome. Typical coordination intensive teams are sports teams, theatrical performers, hospital emergency teams and military teams. These teams focuses on extreme coordination and reliance on the leader for task accomplishment. A low task interdependence can be exemplified by creative problem solving task, in which high degree of coordination is not required.

Further, the agent-based model also accounts for uncontrollable factors, such as team member's communication ability and conflict management ability. During the simulation run, the evolvement of these attributes can be improved through agent interaction and training. The responding variable which will be observed closely is the trajectory path of the team satisfaction level. To ensure consistency of the evolvement of the trajectory path, the simulation is repeated thirty times.

In this study, a 2×2 design is employed to analyse the impact of the servant leadership style on different team composition and under different task variation. This will enable a fair conclusion on how effective servant leadership style is in different team composition (or group profile) and task interdependence level. The group profile is varied between high and low while the task interdependence is also varied from high to low. A computer simulation is initiated by assigning tasks to team members. These member agents carry on the tasks independently and simultaneously. The tasks assigned to team members are characterized by four attributes. Firstly, the *task level* determines the difficulty level of the task. Tasks can be assigned to members only when the member expertise level matches the task level. Secondly, depending on the task interdependence and the task level, a member who is allocated a task is required to communicate with a number of other group members in order to complete the task. The *number of secondary members* is defined as the number of other group members needed to complete the task. It should also be noted that the primary member is the member to whom the task is allocated. Thirdly, the number of interactions defines the number of exchanges made between the primary member and the secondary members to mark the completion of a task. Fourthly, the primary-member-to-secondary-member interactions can occur sequentially or simultaneously. In the simulation, the uniform probability distribution is employed to distribute the numbers of sequential versus simultaneous interactions equally. It should also be noted that the number of secondary members and the number of interactions for every task, as well as the interdependence level are pre-defined, while the sequence of interactions is determined at run time.

The interaction between the agents are modelled using a mechanism called *message*. Agents interact by sending and receiving messages. There are four types of messages, namely *task assignment message*—sent from leader to member to allocate a new task; *General*—messages sent between members in order to perform tasks or messages sent from member to leader as an update; *Training*—messages sent from leader to member for training purpose; *Task completion*—message sent from member to leader to mark the completion of a task. Messages also have associated priorities. Priority 1 (highest) is assigned to task assignment or general messages sent by leader to members. Priority 2 is assigned to training messages sent by leader to members. Priority 3 is assigned to a message sent or received between members which pertains to the sender's own task. Priority 4 is a message received by a member pertaining to another member's task. Thus, a priority 3 message for a sender member becomes a priority 4 message for the receiver member and vice versa.

Agents receive messages in queues. Member agent queues are priority bounded i.e. messages are processed based on priority. Messages of equal priorities are processed in first in first out (FIFO) basis. As all messages sent to the leader are of equal priority, FIFO method is used by the leader for message processing.

The progression of the simulation is managed using *ticks*. A *tick* is an instant of time marked by the occurrence of a discrete event. The discrete event in this case occurs when any of the members complete processing of five *messages*. A message counter is used to determine when the tick needs to be incremented. When the simulation begins, tick is assigned the value 0. At tick = 0, agents and tasks are created and initialized. From tick = 1, members are assigned tasks and the simulation progresses as members perform their tasks. In the simulation, the value of tick is incremented when any of the members have completed processing five messages. Each member has a message counter that keeps track of the number of messages processed. When any of the members complete processing five messages, the message counters of all members are reset and the tick is incremented.

During task execution, member agents are exposed to crisis situations, such as time, cost or resource shortage, to simulate possible conflict. This would assist in concluding how well a servant leader can drive the team in conflict situation. The simulation terminates when all member agents have completed the tasks. Team satisfaction is modelled as a factor which evolves over time as member agents execute assigned tasks and interact with other agents. The agent-based model has been designed using Object Oriented approach. Java has been used as the programming language on the NetBeans platform to implement the model.

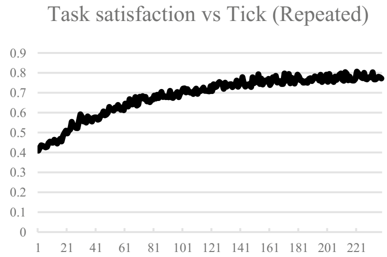
6.8 Simulation Results and Discussion

6.8.1 Validity

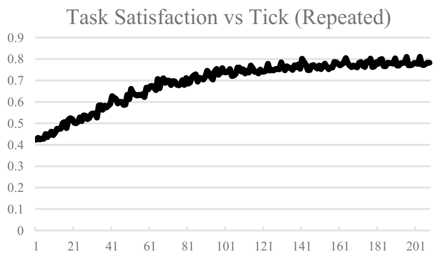
To ensure the validity of the result, the simulation is run multiple times. It was observed that emerging patterns are consistent in these repeated runs. The task satisfaction converged Fig. 6.3a–d show a sample of four repeated simulation runs when all simulation parameters are the same, namely high team profile with medium level of task interdependence.

The only difference observed is the number of ticks to complete all assigned tasks. In the four runs, the number of ticks are 235, 239, 209 and 186 respectively. These variations in the number of ticks are expected due to randomness, such as the number of assigned tasks and their importance, built in the computer simulation.

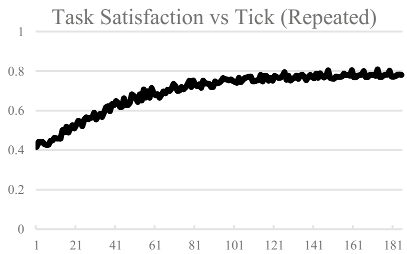
(a) Emerging team satisfaction – Run 1



(b) Emerging team satisfaction – Run 2



(c) Emerging team satisfaction – Run 3



(d) Emerging team satisfaction – Run 4

Fig. 6.3 **a–d** Results from repeated simulation runs

6.8.2 Emerging Patterns

Figure 6.4 displays the trajectory path of the emerging teams' satisfaction levels when the task interdependence (TI) and the team profile (Team) are varied. As can be seen from Fig. 6.4, both the high profile team and low profile teams attain higher satisfaction levels compared to teams working on tasks requiring less interdependence. This can be attributed to the role of servant leadership in facilitating these teams. However, given the path trajectories of both teams are close together, it is inconclusive as to which teams are more receptive to servant leadership.

Highly empowering leaders act as a team-level stimulus by sharing power with their team members, hold members accountable, involve members in decision making, encourage self-management of work, and convey confidence in members' capabilities to handle challenging work (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, 2004). As team leaders engage in more empowering behaviors, members respond to these behavioral cues by feeling more psychologically empowered and affectively committed to their team and organization (Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Den Hartog & De Hoogh, 2009; Seibert et al., 2004; Zhang & Bartol, 2010).

A servant leader puts the best interest of followers as their top priority, behaves ethically, is unbiased, and encourages and empowers subordinates to grow and succeed, both personally and professionally (Ehrhart, 2004; Farling et al., 1999; Russell

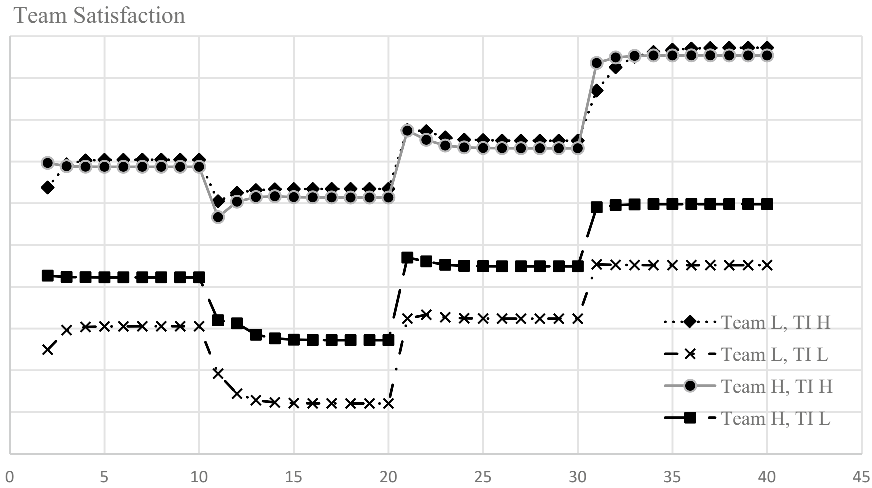


Fig. 6.4 Team satisfaction path trajectory when team ability and task interdependence are varied

& Stone, 2002). Through their behavior servant leaders gain team trust and build long-term relationships by showing genuine concern for all team members (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008). When followers recognize a leader's genuine concern for their development, they may feel more empowered, thus resulting in greater satisfaction (Schneider & George, 2011).

In scenarios when task interdependence is low, it was observed that the high profile attained higher team satisfaction level than the low profile team. These scenarios require team members to work less cohesively. Thus, the role of a servant leader in coordinating followers becomes less evident. In this situation, it is fair to assume that high profile teams have a higher perception of the core self-evaluation traits than low profile teams. High profile teams tend to experience more positive emotions and subjective well-being (Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002). These positive feelings influence the team's subjective task and environmental assessments in a positive manner (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Thus, high profile teams are likely to feel psychologically empowered because they are more likely to find meaning in the work they performed. Past studies have also found that individuals who feel more psychologically empowered are more likely to engage in positive teamwork behaviors (Chen et al., 2007; Chen, Sharma, Edinger, Shapiro, & Farh, 2011; Seibert et al., 2004).

Higher psychological empowerment makes high profile teams perceive higher degree of authority and confidence in carrying out the team's task. These group feelings of high psychological empowerment in turn lead to the experience of higher levels of satisfaction (Carless, 2004; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Seibert et al., 2004).

When teams work in a highly task interdependent environment, members unite and share various resources and receive inputs from each other for not only the successful completion of their jobs but also for the achievement of superordinate goals and desired outcomes (Guzzo & Shea, 1992). Thus, when high profile teams with high perception of psychological empowerment work in an interdependent environment, they are likely to be more motivated to engage in behaviors that contribute positively to their teams and share their positive attitude towards their work and environment with each other forming a positive collective attitude. Past studies at the group level have shown a positive relation to exist between the degree of group task interdependence and job satisfaction (Campion et al., 1996; Van Der Vegt et al., 2001).

High profile teams though have high conflicting abilities do not result in high conflict when the task interdependence is low as members do not intensively interact during the course of their tasks. Low profile teams due to their low conflicting abilities do not result in high team conflict in both high and low task interdependence. Teams characterized by low levels of relationship conflict experience more harmonious and collegial interpersonal relationships among members, expressed with positive communication that reveals feelings of trust and mutual respect (Chen et al., 2011).

6.9 Managerial Implication

This study has implications for leadership, management of work groups and job performance. Firstly, the widespread practice of servant leadership in Asia may benefit from findings of this study. In particular, the results of this study indicate that servant leadership is highly effective in facilitating teams. Given the rising Asian economy, it is important for organizations in Asia Pacific to ensure their leaders can deal with the demands and challenges in the region. It is commonly understood that employee retention is critical in the Asian region and that culture and communications style matters. Thus, leaders should be aware of applicable and effective management philosophies and strategies, including servant leadership. It is important for organizations to train, groom and retain servant leaders to effectively facilitate and lead Asian organizations as servant leadership strives to meet the needs of the followers, invoking trust, motivation, performance and retention.

Secondly, this study focuses on the role of servant leadership in influencing team dynamics, leading to team satisfaction. When working on tasks with high interdependency, the formal and social interactions among team members, including those with the team leader, contribute to the effective completion of the tasks and the achievement of superordinate goals and desires, such as team satisfaction. In this study, team satisfaction with task represents the quality of the collaborative efforts by team members when executing the assigned tasks, which may be measured objectively as cognitive and affective response by team members. Thus, it may be useful for managers to encourage team leaders to be mindful of servant leadership characteristics when managing group work. Team leaders should learn to exhibit servant leadership characteristics to influence performance outcome through motivating psychological responses of the team members. That way, leaders will be able to deal with problematic behaviours in team context, such as conflict, reliability problem and social loafing.

6.10 Conclusion

This chapter focuses on the role of servant leadership in influencing team dynamics, leading to team satisfaction. It should be noted that the satisfaction construct focuses on the cognition about the task and measured at the team level. Given that the satisfaction level is not directly related to performance at the individual level, the measure is somewhat objective. Furthermore, it is widely acknowledged that the emergence of the satisfaction level is a process, induced by repeated experience; in this case, each team member has repeated interactions with other team members and team leader when executing assigned tasks. As such, it is important to account for the duration, sequence and timing of the interactions. Effects of these repeated interactions give opportunities for team members to learn, which may result in learned ability and improvement in collaborating with other team members to perform the tasks.

In this study, team dynamics have been simulated and subsequently, the influence of servant leadership on the evolvement of team satisfaction has been observed. Different scenarios have been established by varying the quality of the team member composition and the task interdependence within each group.

Given that sociological phenomena in work groups exhibit non linearities and interaction effects, developing an agent-based model to study the team dynamics has proven to be useful. Complexity theory has been employed as the theoretical framing of the agent-based model, in which each team member has been modelled as member agent and the team leader has been modelled as leader agent. The interactions between leader-member agents and member-member agents exhibit non linearities and interdependency. Consequently, the collective or macro-level behaviour based on individual or micro-level action and interactions can be explained. In other words, the emerging pattern at team level can be observed. Though the proposed model is not expected to completely represent reality, it allows the exploration of theoretical variations and implication from a system's perspective.

The study concludes that team satisfaction with task is contingent to the leadership style facilitating the team. In particular, high profile teams with high task interdependence tend to attain higher satisfaction level compared to other teams and variations.

One limitation in the proposed model has been on the assumption that the leader agent is a static entity which does not evolve with the team and members over time. Another limiting assumption has been that member agents possess sufficient expertise to carry on the assigned tasks and complete them without difficulty.

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Chapter 7
Social Exchange or Social Learning: A Theoretical Fork in Road for Servant Leadership Researchers

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> *One day Alice came to a fork in the road and saw a Cheshire cat in a tree. 'Which road do I take?' she asked. 'Where do you want to go?' was his response. 'I don't know,' Alice answered. 'Then' said the cat 'it doesn't matter.'*
>
> Lewis Carroll

Abstract While there has been a rise in servant leadership research, especially in Asia, there has been an equal lack of consideration for the social theories that underpins servant leadership to explain how they influence followers. To address this gap, this chapter provides a review and analysis of the two most commonly used social theories in servant leadership literature; social learning and social exchange. In doing so, we first examine servant leadership within an Asian context. Second, we examine social learning and social exchange and how they have been used in servant leadership literature to date. Lastly, we propose a future research agenda for future research in order to further understand these two social theories within the context of servant leadership.

Keywords Servant leadership · Social learning · Social exchange · Leadership · Asia

Like Alice, servant leadership researchers are often faced with a fork-in-the-road decision on the theoretical pathway they should take to examine servant leadership. Unlike Alice, this choice does matter for researchers. It can shape and inform the researchers entire study, from the literature they examine, to the variables they measure. Ultimately, it is the theoretical underpinning that drives quantitative servant leadership literature. It transforms the data from significant relationships between variables into a story about relationship between leader and follower. In their review

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of the servant leadership literature, Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck, and Liden (2019) highlighted that a significant shortcoming of past servant leadership studies was the lack of coherent theory used to govern the selection of variables. For those studies that did utilize theory, their choice was commonly between social learning theory and social exchange theory, each of which point to distinctively different social processes and thus distinctively different stories. However, rarely are these two theories used concurrently in servant leadership research to examine the very different effects servant leaders have over their followers. In light of this, we explore these two theoretical pathways, exploring how the servant leadership literature has been drawn on them the past and how they may draw on them into the future.

In exploring these pathways, this chapter will first give a brief overview of servant leadership and the research surrounding this unique leadership approach. Secondly, it will highlight the rise of the servant leadership approach within Asia, discussing how Confucianism and Daoism influence how people lead. Third, it will focus on Bandura's (1977) social learning theory and how this has been applied in servant leadership research. This will be contrasted with Blau's (1964) social exchange theory. Fourth, it shall offer future research directions for the servant leadership field based on these two contrasting theories before finally discussing implications for practice.

7.1 Servant Leadership

Servant leadership is defined as "an (1) other-oriented approach to leadership (2) manifested through one-on-one prioritizing of follower individual needs and interests, (3) and outward reorienting of their concern for self towards concern for others within the organization and the larger community" (Eva et al., 2019, p. 4). At its core, servant leadership prioritizes the growth and development of followers over the organization's and their own priorities (Eva et al., 2019). This approach to leadership is powerful in the contemporary workplace as it establishes strong connections between individuals in an environment that is often characterized by disconnect and distance between individuals. Servant leaders serve indiscriminately, taking on opportunities to serve others irrespective of they are serving or their internal disposition (Greenleaf, 1977).

Since its conception, servant leadership literature has moved through three distinct phases. First, it focused on the conceptual development of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977). Then, the literature shifted towards measurement of servant leadership. During this phase, the literature focused on the development of measures and the initial testing of relationships between servant leadership and outcomes. The third and current phase of servant leadership has seen an increasing emphasis on complex research designs. This studies strive to understand the nomological network that surrounds servant leadership with a special attention servant leadership's positive influence on follower behavior. These models are often composed of multiple variables, exploring the mediating mechanisms and boundary conditions by which servant leadership is exerting its influence (Eva et al., 2019).

During the first phase of development, scholars sought to distinguish servant leadership from other theories of leadership. While there are now over 300 peer-reviewed articles on servant leadership, there are still questions about the distinctness of servant leadership in comparison to other prominent leadership theories such as transformational, ethical, and authentic leadership (Eva et al., 2019). As such, various studies have attempted to distinguish servant leadership both conceptually and empirically from other leadership theories.

While servant leadership shares conceptual similarities with these leadership theories, servant leadership distinguishes itself primarily through the underlying motivating forces of the servant leader and the prioritization of followers. While both transformational and servant leadership place an emphasis on followers' needs, the motivating reasons for the transformational leader to prioritize their follower's needs is for the benefit of the organization (van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, & Alkema, 2014). This difference is most apparent between servant and transformational leadership as transformational leadership prioritizes the needs of the organization above the needs of the followers (van Dierendonck et al., 2014). Both servant and ethical leadership approaches both incorporate ethical behavior, for ethical leadership, the way this trait is both conceptualized and prioritized varies between the two leadership approaches. For ethical leadership, ethical behavior is inherently more prescriptive with an emphasis on behaving in line with specific ethical rules (Brown & Treviño, 2006). In contrast, the servant leaders' approach to ethics is more malleable and can be shaped by the context of the followers and the organization (Eva et al., 2019). Servant leadership and authentic leadership both emphasize the importance of authenticity and presenting your true self in interactions with others. A conceptual difference, however, exists in the reasons why servant and authentic leaders value authenticity (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Eva et al., 2019). For the servant leader, the motivation to be authentic may come from altruistic or spiritual motives to serve others (Eva et al., 2019; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008). In contrast, authentic leaders engage with others authentically comes from the importance it places on being true to one's self and developing authentic relationships with followers (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011).

More recently, we have seen alternate leadership approaches emerge such as entrepreneurial leadership, who also have an interest in the development of followers (Miao, Eva, Newman, & Cooper, 2018). However, this interest differs greatly from that of a servant leader. Whereas servant leadership focuses on employees for who they are, regardless of how they make them feel (Banks, Gooty, Ross, Williams, & Harrington, 2018; Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu, 2018), entrepreneurial leaders considers followers based on their entrepreneurial passions and seek to develop their entrepreneurial self-efficacy, rather than their general self-efficacy.

Recently, there has been a growing turn to examine the empirical differences between leadership theories. In regard to follower outcomes, servant leadership has consistently differentiated itself by demonstrating variance above and beyond other leadership theories. Initially these studies focused on empirically distinguishing servant leadership from transformational leadership (Liden et al., 2008; Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011; van Dierendonck et al., 2014). These studies consistently found that servant leadership predicted additional variance in follower outcomes. For example, Liden et al. (2008) found that servant leadership explained a further 19% variance in community citizenship behavior and a further 5% variance in in-role performance. Hoch et al. (2018) expanded this to also explore how servant leadership can predict variance above and beyond other leadership approaches. They found that servant predicts explains significantly more variance than transformational leadership (12%), while still predicting somewhat more variance than ethical (6.2%) and authentic (5.2%) (Hoch et al., 2018, pp. 13–14).

The second stage of servant leadership focused on both scale development and relationship testing. From this, studies on servant leadership have demonstrated the profound impact servant leadership has over their organization, teams, and employees. At the organizational level, servant leadership has been found to increase organizational performance and the service climate of the organization (Miao et al., 2018). At the team level, servant leadership has been found to increase team organizational citizenship behaviors, performance (Sendjaya, Eva, Butar-Butar, Robin, & Castles, 2018), psychological safety (Huang, Li, Qiu, Yim, & Wan, 2016; Liden, Wayne, Chenwei, & Meuser, 2014a), and creativity and innovation (Hu & Liden, 2011). At the employee level, servant leadership has been shown to foster positive attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction (Schaubroeck et al., 2011)), behaviors (e.g. helping behaviors (Yang, Liu, & Gu, 2017; Yoshida, Sendjaya, Hirst, & Cooper, 2014)), and performance (Neubert, Hunter, & Tolentino, 2016).

As servant leadership research moves further into the third phase of research and models become increasingly complex, it is important to not disregard the important theoretical underpinnings of servant leadership models. Without these underlying theoretical frameworks, we would be unable to sufficiently explain how servant leadership is translating to follower behavior beyond significant relationships between variables in a data set. Servant leadership literature has drawn on a myriad of different theoretical frameworks to explain the relationships between variables. The most commonly used of these theories, and the focus of this chapter, are social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964). Although both are heavily entrenched in social theory, they both point to intrinsically different processes. In this sense, they are telling an inherently different story.

7.2 Servant Leadership in an Asian Context

Servant leadership was developed in the West as an approach to leadership which indirectly reduces the power distance between the leader and the follower, where the leader 'serves' the follower. This differs from traditional Asian leadership approaches which uphold the power distance between the leader and the followers, such as paternalistic leadership which combines disciple and authority with a father-like benevolence (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Similar to servant leadership, paternalistic leaders care about and support their followers (Farh & Cheng, 2000), however they differ due to paternalistic leadership's weighted importance on hierarchical relationships. The influence of paternalistic leadership in Asia, can be traced back to Confucianism, which stresses the importance of hierarchical relationships and maintaining harmony in society (Chen & Lee, 2008) as well as Daoism, whose principles reflect a humanitarian, values-based approach to leadership, where the leader serves others (Lee, Han, Byron, & Fan, 2008). Thus, there are some similarities between the traditional leadership approach in Asia of paternalistic leadership and servant leadership, however the hierarchical nature of the relationship between the leader and the follower is pronounced in the paternalistic relationship.

It has been noted that Western leadership principles have become more common in Asia due to international business education and training through MBAs and executive education programs, increased investment in leadership training in multinational subsidiaries in Asian countries, as well as the proliferation of international business and travel (Newman, Eva, & Herbert, 2018). This has been mirrored with a dramatic increase in leadership research in Asia (Liden, 2012). There have been 68 studies on servant leadership in Asia (see Table 7.1). Promisingly, each of these studies have demonstrated that servant leadership is applicable and is being used a variety of different Asian countries including India, Indonesia, Korea, and Vietnam. However, the majority of studies have emerged from China.

China has been of particular interest to servant leadership scholars (Newman et al., 2018), due to the changing nature of the country. In particular, a number of studies have examined servant leadership within the Chinese Civil Service. This is due to changes in China's Civil Services Law (Chap. 5) which have now included acting with integrity to the performance evaluations and training courses to reduce the influence of corruption (Liu & Dong, 2012). Dong, Yang, and Wang (2010) argues that servant leadership training and development may be important for Chinese public servants going forward due to a number of arrests and incarceration for corruption of high-profile civil servants. The use of servant leadership is an about face from the traditional practice of Chinese Civil Servants who tend to fixate their eyes upwards, and turn a blind eye to those downwards, such as their constituents (Dong et al., 2010). With the cultural congruent of international business coupled with a greater focus on the individual in-line with Confusion and Daoist beliefs, we expect a continued rise of the practice of and research into servant leadership within Asia.

7.3 Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory was developed by Bandura (1977) and proposes that individuals learn required behaviors from observing the attitudes, values and behavior through modelling. It relies heavily on the concept of modeling whereby individuals learn their behavior and attitudes from observing prominent people in their environment (Han, Kakabadse, & Kakabadse, 2010; Miao, Newman, Schwarz, & Xu, 2014; Schwarz, Newman, Cooper, & Eva, 2016). Social learning theory posits that

Table 7.1 Servant leadership studies in Asia

	Quantitative				
	Individual	Team/multi-level	Mixed	Qualitative	Total
Cambodia	1	0	0	0	1
China	14	10	0	1	25
Cyprus	1	0	0	0	1
Hong Kong	0	0	1	0	1
India	3	0	0	3	6
Indonesia	2	2	0	0	4
Iran	4	0	0	0	4
Israel	0	0	0	1	1
Korea	1	0	0	0	1
Malaysia	0	1	0	0	1
Pakistan	5	0	0	0	5
The Philippines	1	0	0	1	2
Singapore	1	0	0	0	1
South Korea	1	2	0	0	3
Taiwan	1	1	0	0	2
Thailand	0	0	0	1	1
Turkey	8	0	0	0	8
Vietnam	1	0	0	0	1

anything that can be learnt through direct experience can also be learned through observing the behaviors of others (Bandura, 1986; Brown & Treviño, 2006). Within the workplace, individuals often look towards their leader to provide this modeling type behavior and to help them ascertain what is good and bad behavior due to both their status and given power within the organization.

Bandura (1977) outlined four conative mechanisms that underlie social learning theory; attention, retention, reproduction and motivation. *Attention* refers to the process by which individuals pay attention to the various attributes of the individual who is modeling the behaviors Schwarz et al. (2016). Exposure alone to a model's behavior will not ensure that the learner will pay attention to the model's behavior, or that they will select the model's most relevant characteristics (Bandura, 1977). There are numerous factors that influence this process. First, associational preference where individuals are exposed to can determine whose behavior they can pay attention to (Bandura, 1977). For example, the organization that an individual is in will influence the leader they are exposed to, and thus the type of behaviors they are exposed to (Bandura, 1977). Second, certain individuals within a group are likely to get more attention than other due to their more pleasing personal attributes. As such, the behaviors that these individuals display are going to be more influential than others (Bandura, 1977). For example, a leader who has more agreeable qualities is more likely to influence their followers' attentional processes than those with less agreeable qualities.

The second process, *retention*, refers to the 'long term retention of activities that have been modeled' (Bandura, 1977). In order for the learner to reproduce a model's behaviors at a later date, the learner is required to hold them present in their memory. In this sense, the patterns of behavior the learner has observed in the past must be seen as significant enough by the learner to be mentally retained (Bandura, 1977). The third mechanism, *reproduction*, refers to the process by which individuals 'put together' behaviors based on the previously modeled patterns of behaviors (Bandura, 1977, p. 7). The extent to which the learner can demonstrate their observational learning is dependent on if they have acquired the necessary skills as some skills cannot be learnt through behavioral observational alone (Bandura, 1977). For example, behaviors such as helping coworkers would be easily to reproduce compared to complicated financial analysis, which would require a distinct set of skills that could not be obtained through observational alone.

The final mechanism, *motivation*, is the extent to which the individuals are inclined to reproduce the behaviors they have observed, retained and reproduced (Bandura, 1977, p. 7). This motivation often occurs in the form of positive incentives whereby the learner is rewarded for emulating the behavior they had previously observed, retained and reproduces (Bandura, 1977). For example, if a manager were to provide positive feedback to an employee for helping another employee on a task.

Social learning theory has been used consistently with leadership theories to explain how followers learn specific behaviors from their leader and then mimic them in their day-to-day work. Through communicating to employees what sorts of behaviors expected from them and aligning the reward and punishment structure accordingly, leaders are able to change and foster employees' behaviors (Schwarz et al., 2016). For example, Brown and Treviño (2006) argued that followers of ethical leaders see the ethical behaviors displayed by their leader and emulate them through their own ethical behaviors. This is strengthened through the moral conversations that ethical leaders have with their followers. Secondly, Miao et al. (2018) stated that followers of entrepreneurial leaders mimic the risk-taking, proactivity, and innovative behaviors of their leader and seek to emulate these through their own innovative behaviors. Follower emulation of the leader's behaviors has also been prevalent in the servant leadership literature.

7.4 Servant Leadership and Social Learning Theory

As discussed, leaders are often seen as important and credible role models, due to the power that has been given to them by the organization. Servant leaders are often seen as credible role models as they put their employees first, act altruistically, and are motivated to serve others without expecting anything in return (Sendjaya et al., 2018). Further, employees are more likely to learn from and then emulate the behaviors of the leaders that they believe have positive and attractive characteristics

(Liden, Wayne, Chenwei, et al., 2014a). Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, (2014b) argue that with servant leadership, followers learn via a trickle-down effect, where the servant leader demonstrates the required behaviors (i.e. walks the talk) and then motivates and encourages followers to emulate these behaviors. Following social learning theory, follower emulation of servant behaviors has been highlighted as a key outcome of servant leadership across the literature (Graham, 1991), with one of Greenleaf's (1977) original conceptualizations stating that servant leaders create more servant leaders. Subsequently, the servant leadership literature often draws on social learning theory to explain servant leaderships influence follower behavior.

Generally, social learning theory is used to explain the influence of servant leaders on follower behaviors that point towards positive follower behaviors and attitudes. This is due to servant leaders exhibiting these behaviors, modeling them for their followers through the process of social learning. The servant leadership literature has demonstrated that these modelling behaviors influence the followers within the team (individuals), and the teams themselves (group).

At an individual level, through their role modelling behaviors, servant leaders have been shown to influence followers' public service motivation (Liu & Dong, 2012; Schwarz et al., 2016; Tuan, 2016), affective organizational commitment (Newman, Neesham, Manville, & Tse, 2017a), helping behaviors (Hunter et al., 2013; Neubert et al., 2016), employee job crafting (Bavik, Bavik, & Tang, 2017) and core self-evaluation (Lacroix & Verdorfer, 2017).

At a team level, social learning is used to explain how servant leadership influences specific elements of a team's culture. Through exhibiting positive behaviors and attitudes within the workplace, servant leaders provide an important model for developing positive and ethical team cultures. Liden et al. (2014b) drew on social learning theory to explain how servant leadership is conducive to fostering a serving climate. Similarly, social learning theory was used to explain the relationship between service climate (Hunter et al., 2013), socio-moral climate (Pircher Verdorfer, Steinheider, & Burkus, 2015), ethical-work climate (Jaramillo, Bande, & Varela, 2015) and knowledge-sharing climate (Song, Park, & Kang, 2015). More recently, social learning theory has also been used to explain specific behaviors at a team level with Linuesa-Langreo, Ruiz-Palomino, and Elche-Hortelano (2018) exploring how servant leadership has translated to group citizenship behaviors. For a full list of servant leadership studies that utilized the social learning theory, see Table 7.2.

The influence of a servant leader's role modelling is constrained by a number of boundary conditions (moderators). Trust in supervisor increases the positive impact of servant leadership on the trust/responsibility dimension and increases the negative impact of servant leadership on the unethical peer behavior dimension of ethical work climate (Jaramillo et al., 2015). Further, the follower's perception of how their leader matches their ideal leader prototype influenced the relationship between servant leadership on follower's leadership avoidance (Lacroix & Verdorfer, 2017).

Table 7.2 Social learning theory and servant leadership

Level	Outcome	Moderator	Mediator	Author
Individual	Core self-evaluation			Lacroix and Verdorfer (2017)
Individual	Corporate social responsibility		Sales person satisfaction	Grisaffe, Vanmeter, and Chonko (2016)
Individual	Ethical work climate	Trust in supervisor		Jaramillo et al. (2015)
Individual	Job satisfaction		Sales person satisfaction	Grisaffe et al. (2016)
Individual	Knowledge sharing	CSR	Public service motivation	Tuan (2016)[a]
Individual	Leadership avoidance	Ideal leader prototype		Lacroix and Verdorfer (2017)
Individual	Leadership avoidance		Core self-evaluation	Lacroix and Verdorfer (2017)
Individual	Motivation to lead		Core self-evaluation	Lacroix and Verdorfer (2017)
Individual	OCB		Sales person satisfaction	Grisaffe et al. (2016)
Individual	Organizational cynicism		Socio-moral climate	Pircher Verdorfer et al. (2015)
Individual	Public service motivation (PSM)			Liu, Hu, and Cheng (2015)
Individual	Sales performance		Sales person satisfaction	Grisaffe et al. (2016)
Individual	Salesperson performance		Ethical work climate	Jaramillo et al. (2015)
Individual	Socio-moral climate			Pircher Verdorfer et al. (2015)
Individual	Workplace deviance		Socio-moral climate	Pircher Verdorfer et al. (2015)
Multi-level	Affective organizational commitment			Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Creativity		Serving culture	Liden et al. (2014b)

(continued)

Table 7.2 (continued)

Level	Outcome	Moderator	Mediator	Author
Multi-level	Customer service behaviour		Serving culture	Liden et al. (2014b)
Multi-level	Employee identification with store		Serving culture	Liden et al. (2014b)
Multi-level	Employee job crafting			Bavik et al. (2017)
Multi-level	Followers' innovative behaviour			Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Followers' public service motivation			Schwarz et al. (2016)
Multi-level	Helping behaviour		Service climate	Hunter et al. (2013)
Multi-level	In-role performance		Serving culture	Liden et al. (2014b)
Multi-level	Interpersonal citizenship behaviour		Employee job crafting	Bavik et al. (2017)
Multi-level	Job performance		Followers' PSM	Schwarz et al. (2016)
Multi-level	Service climate			Hunter et al. (2013)
Multi-level	Turnover intention		Serving culture	Liden, Wayne, Liao, et al. (2014b)
Team	Group citizenship behaviour			Linuesa-Langreo et al. (2018)
Team	Group social capital		Group citizenship behaviour	Linuesa-Langreo et al. (2018)
Team	Serving culture			Liden, Wayne, Liao, et al. (2014b)
Team	Store performance		Serving culture	Liden, Wayne, Liao, et al. (2014b)
Team	Team performance		Knowledge-sharing climate	Song et al. (2015)

[a]Tuan (2016) uses social learning theory and social exchange theory collectively

7.5 Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory is a reciprocity-based theory, whereby individuals generally reciprocate the positive behaviors shown to them with whom they have a social exchange relationship (Blau, 1964). Generally, these interactions are seen as interdependent, whereby the actions of one person elicit the actions of another Jaramillo et al. (2015). Within the workplace, social exchange relationships often develop between employers and their employees when employers take care of their employees thereby creating by a beneficial sequential flow of interactions (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

Social exchange theory is guided by rules of reciprocity, or repayment in kind (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In their review of social exchange theory, Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) distinguished three types of reciprocity; reciprocity as interdependent exchanges, reciprocity as folk belief and reciprocity as a norm and individual orientation. Interdependent exchanges emphasize 'contingent interpersonal transactions, whereby an action by one party leads to a response by another' (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). This process is inherently continuous as each action towards another imitates another action. For example, when a leader provides a follower with support, the follower reciprocates that behavior (Gouldner, 1960).

Although yet to be explored in organizational behavior research, *reciprocity as folk belief* refers the cultural expectation that individuals get what they deserve (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005, p. 876). This idea manifests itself differently based on contextual factors but commonly draws on notions of karma (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005) and just world perceptions (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005).

The final reciprocity rule that is *reciprocity as a norm and individual orientation*. Differing itself from a folk belief, a norm refers to a universally established standard of how someone should behave and that those who follow such norms reciprocate the behaviors shown to them (Bies & Tripp, 1996). This rule, however, acknowledges the potential for individual variance in the value they place on the norm of reciprocity. This variance would thus have influence how social exchange relationships unfold and the extent to which individuals engage in the process of reciprocity (Lerner, 1980).

A growing body of research is examining the extent to which an individual is willing to engage in this process of reciprocity varies based on their individual disposition. This individual difference can subsequently influence the extent to which individuals endorse the social exchange process (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Gouldner, 1960). In this sense, social exchange relationships may not always occur in the same fashion, but rather they vary on the basis of their individual's level of reciprocity belief (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Eisenberger, Cotterell, & Marvel, 1987).

One of the core tenants of social exchange theory was that the exchange process is a transactional approach between unemotional beings (Emerson, 1976). With the development of relational leadership approaches, such as servant leadership, which seek to appeal to followers' emotions, the unemotional view of social exchange theory must be reconsidered (Lawler, 2001; Lawler & Thye, 1999). Drawing on Eva, Newman, Miao, Cooper and Herbert's (2018) work on the emotional exchange between participative leaders and their followers, we argue that the emotional bond between the servant leader and the followers plays an important role in the development of a cohesive exchange relationship. Specifically, that servant leaders are able to engage in productive exchange relationships due to their covenantal relationships they form with each and every follower (Sendjaya, 2015).

7.6 Servant Leadership and Social Exchange Theory

Servant leadership research has commonly drawn on social exchange theory to explain how servant leadership translates to follower behavior. In the workplace, when employees are shown positive behaviors towards them by their leader, they will develop a strong exchange relationship. Subsequently, the employee is likely to reciprocate the positive behaviors shown to them (Eisenberger et al., 1987). This is particularly true within servant leadership, due to the nature of the behavior shown by the servant leader and the relationship they develop with their followers (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Eisenberger et al., 1987). Due to the nature of a servant leader in serving the needs of their followers, servant leaders are able to create a sense of obligation within their follower, where the followers feel obligated to reciprocate (Hunter et al., 2013). The follower's actions are then dependent on the behaviors and actions of the servant leader. The servant leader does not ask of their follower to perform in a particular way. The servant leader is not asking for their follower to return the positivist behavior. Rather, the follower feels a sense of obligation towards the servant leader based on the continuous interdependent relationship between a servant leader and their follower (Eva et al., 2019; Liden, Wayne, Liao, et al., 2014b).

Due to the meaningful relationships servant leaders develop with their followers, social exchange theory is often used explain the relationship between servant leadership and various follower outcomes. These outcomes point towards behaviors that indicate reciprocation of the positive behaviors that are shown to them by the servant leader. At an individual level, these outcomes are generally behavioral based, characterized by followers engaging in activities beyond what is normally required of them. For example, social exchange theory is frequently drawn on to explain the relationship between servant leadership and organizational behavior (Newman, Schwarz, Cooper, & Sendjaya, 2017b; Ozyilmaz & Cicek, 2015; Park, Miao, & Kim, 2015; Shim, Park, & Eom, 2016; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010; Wu, Tse, Fu, Kwan, & Liu, 2013).

Drawing on mediating mechanisms is especially important when explaining how servant leadership translates to performance outcomes. These studies explore how servant leadership, through the social exchange process, influence one outcome which then transmits its influence onto a performance related outcome. These mediating mechanisms often operate at an individual level. For example, Zou, Tian, and Liu (2015) and Park et al. (2015) explained servant leadership's influence on performance through the mediating impact of organizational commitment as explained by social exchange theory. Through the positive behaviors a servant leader exhibits towards their followers, followers are likely to return these positive behaviors. Subsequently, they are likely to become more committed to the leader and organization which is then transmitted to improved performance outcomes. Similarly, Liden et al. (2015) explored how servant leadership translates to in-role performance through the mediating mechanism of organizational citizenship behavior. In contrast, some of these mediating mechanisms operate at a group level. Linuesa-Langreo et al. (2018) explored how servant leaders can create a service climate through the social exchange process which then transmits its influence onto customer service performance. Likewise, Ling, Liu, and Wu (2017) explained how servant leadership translates to increased performance through fostering a trust climate through the social exchange process.

Within the servant leadership literature that draws on social exchange theory, various moderating influences have been drawn on to better understand the boundary conditions that servant leadership operates. At the organizational level, these boundary conditions point towards specific types or organizational culture or climates such as procedural justice and service climate (Walumbwa et al., 2010). Within servant leadership models that draw on social exchange literature, a majority of the boundary conditions explored to date exist at an individual level, often pointing towards individual dispositions and characteristics. These include but are not limited to extraversion (Panaccio, Henderson, Liden, Wayne, & Cao, 2015), proactive personality (Panaccio et al., 2015) and organization tenure (Chan & Mak, 2014).

Recently, the boundary conditions by which servant leadership enhances performance through an exchange relationship has been tested by Zou et al. (2015) to examine how individual variance in reciprocity beliefs may influence this relationship. Kashyap and Rangnekar (2016) found that the social exchange relationship between servant leadership and helping behavior (through LMX) was stronger for followers who had high positive reciprocity beliefs. These findings suggest variance in the strength of social exchange relationships between servant leaders and the followers depending on the individual's level of positive reciprocity beliefs. An overview of these relationships can be found in Table 7.3.

7.7 Looking at These Two Theoretical Pathways Concurrently

Undoubtable social learning and social exchange theories have been the dominant theories utilized in servant leadership research. Despite their dominance, there have only been five studies which have examined these theories collectively or concurrently (Hunter et al., 2013; Overstreet, Hazen, Skipper, & Hanna, 2014; Song et al., 2015; Tuan, 2016). Tuan (2016) and Song et al. (2015) used social learning and

Table 7.3 Social exchange theory and servant leadership

Level	Outcome	Moderator	Mediator	Author
Individual	Affective organizational commitment			Miao et al. (2014)
Individual	Affective organizational commitment		Affective trust	Miao et al. (2014)
Individual	Affective organizational commitment		Cognitive trust	Miao et al. (2014)
Individual	Creativity		Helping	Liden et al. (2015)
Individual	Disengagement			Hunter et al. (2013)
Individual	Employee extra-role behavior		Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Employee extra-role behavior	Employee extraversion	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Employee extra-role behavior	Proactive personality	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Employee extra-role behavior	Collectivism	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Employee turnover intentions		Employer brand perception	Kashyap and Rangnekar (2016)
Individual	Employee turnover intentions		Trust in leaders	Kashyap and Rangnekar (2016)
Individual	Employee voice behaviors		Affective commitment	Lapointe and Vandenberghe (2018)
Individual	Employee voice behaviors		Normative commitment	Lapointe and Vandenberghe (2018)
Individual	Employee voice behaviors		Perceived sacrifice commitment	Lapointe and Vandenberghe (2018)

(continued)

Table 7.3 (continued)

Level	Outcome	Moderator	Mediator	Author
Individual	Helping behavior	Positive reciprocity beliefs	Leader-member exchange	Zou et al. (2015)
Individual	Helping behavior	Positive reciprocity beliefs	Team-member exchange	Zou et al. (2015)
Individual	In-role performance		Organizational commitment	Park et al. (2015)
Individual	In-role performance		Organizational trust	Park et al. (2015)
Individual	Innovative behaviors		Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Innovative behaviors	Employee extraversion	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Innovative behaviors	Proactive personality	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Innovative behaviors	Collectivism	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Job satisfaction			Ozyilmaz and Cicek (2015)
Individual	Knowledge sharing	Corporate social responsibility	Public service motivation	Tuan (2016)
Individual	Leader-member exchange			Amah (2018)
Individual	Leader-member exchange			Zou et al. (2015)
Individual	Managerial accountability		Organizational commitment	Park et al. (2015)
Individual	Managerial accountability		Organizational trust	Park et al. (2015)
Individual	Normative organizational commitment			Miao et al. (2014)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior			Amah (2018)

(continued)

Table 7.3 (continued)

Level	Outcome	Moderator	Mediator	Author
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior			Ozyilmaz and Cicek (2015)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior		Job satisfaction	Ozyilmaz and Cicek (2015)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior		Psychological climate	Ozyilmaz and Cicek (2015)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior		Procedural justice	Shim et al. (2016)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior		Trust in leadership	Shim et al. (2016)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior			Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior		Commitment to the supervisor	Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior		Self-efficacy	Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior	Sensitivity to others' favorable treatment	Leader-member exchange	Wu et al. (2013)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior		Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior	Employee extraversion	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior	Proactive personality	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Organizational citizenship behavior	Collectivism	Psychological contract	Panaccio et al. (2015)

(continued)

Table 7.3 (continued)

Level	Outcome	Moderator	Mediator	Author
Individual	Organizational commitment			Park et al. (2015)
Individual	Organizational trust	Corporate social responsibility		Park et al. (2015)
Individual	Procedural justice			Shim et al. (2016)
Individual	Psychological capital	LMX		Coggins and Bocarnea (2015)
Individual	Psychological climate			Ozyilmaz and Cicek (2015)
Individual	Psychological contract			Panaccio et al. (2015)
Individual	Subordinates' job satisfaction	Organizational tenure	Trust in leader	Chan and Mak (2014)
Individual	Team member exchange			Zou et al. (2015)
Individual	Trust in leadership			Shim et al. (2016)
Individual	Turnover intentions			Hunter et al. (2013)
Multi-level	Customer value co-creation		Organizational citizenship behavior	Hsiao et al. (2015)
Multi-level	Customer value co-creation		Positive psychological capital	Hsiao, Lee, and Chen (2015)
Multi-level	Employee organizational commitment		Trust climate	Ling et al. (2017)
Multi-level	Helping			Liden et al. (2015)
Multi-level	In-role performance		Organizational citizenship behavior	Liden et al. (2015)
Multi-level	Job satisfaction		Leader-member exchange	Amah (2018)
Multi-level	Leader-member exchange			Amah (2018)

(continued)

Table 7.3 (continued)

Level	Outcome	Moderator	Mediator	Author
Multi-level	Leader-member exchange			Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior			Hsiao et al. (2015)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior			Liden et al. (2015)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior			Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior		Leader-member exchange	Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior		Leader-member exchange	Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior		Psychological empowerment	Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior		Psychological empowerment	Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior	Procedural justice climate	Commitment to the supervisor	Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior	Procedural justice climate	Commitment to the supervisor	Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior		Procedural justice climate	Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior	Procedural justice climate	Self-efficacy	Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior	Service climate	Self-efficacy	Walumbwa et al. (2010)

(continued)

Table 7.3 (continued)

Level	Outcome	Moderator	Mediator	Author
Multi-level	Organizational citizenship behavior		Service climate	Walumbwa et al. (2010)
Multi-level	Positive psychological capital			Hsiao et al. (2015)
Multi-level	Psychological empowerment			Newman et al. (2017a)
Multi-level	Trust climate			Ling et al. (2017)
Multi-level	Work engagement		Trust climate	Ling et al. (2017)
Multi-level	Work performance		Trust climate	Ling et al. (2017)
Team	Customer service performance		Service climate	Linuesa-Langreo et al. (2018)
Team	Team performance		Knowledge-sharing climate	Song et al. (2015)[a]

[a]Song et al. (2015) and Tuan (2016) social exchange and social learning collectively
*Kashyap and Rangnekar (2016) use social exchange theory and social identity theory collectively

social exchange collectively, with no attempt to make any distinction between the two theories. Instead, they are grouped together as more of a broad explanation of the social processes that underline the relationship between servant leaders and their followers. For example, Overstreet et al. (2014) utilized both social exchange and social learning theory to explain the positive relationship between servant leadership and public service motivation, whereas Schwarz et al. (2016) used social learning theory exclusively to explain the same relationship. Whilst it is plausible that multiple social phenomena coexist, as each theory points to distinctive social process, by viewing these theories collectively, there is the potential of losing theoretical richness, or pointing to a theory that may not be there, or that is there in a less significant way. While we understand why the authors of these manuscripts chose to go down this path, we recommend that scholars seek to look at the pathways concurrently in order to have a richer understanding of the servant leadership process.

In contrast, Hunter et al. (2013) utilized social learning and social exchange theories concurrently, recognizing that these theories point to distinct social processes, using them to explain a more complex relationships between servant leadership and multiple mediating and outcome variables.

7.8 Future Research Direction

As servant leadership research continues, researchers must take careful consideration to the theoretical underpinning of their servant leadership studies (Eva et al., 2019). As it is through these theoretical underpinnings that data is transformed into a story that can help readers understand how servant leaders are influencing their followers. In light of the importance of theory in quantitative servant leadership research, we propose the following four avenues for future research.

Firstly, future research should consider looking at theoretical pathways concurrently. Although preliminary work has looked at the social exchange and social learning pathways concurrently (Hunter et al., 2013), future studies should adopt similar approaches. This will become increasingly important as servant leadership models become increasingly complex, requiring stronger theoretical frameworks to support them. In doing so, this will help provide a more robust understanding of how the strength theoretical pathways, how they may differ, and which path may be stronger in explaining how servant leadership is translating to follower behavior. For example, researchers may wish to examine the relative importance of the different pathways that govern the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behaviors. The social learning path may examine the process by which servant leaders influences employees' motivations and affects (e.g. pro-social motivation, psychological safety) and the social exchange path may examine the process by which followers reciprocate the positive behaviors displayed by the leader (e.g. duty orientation, affective commitment).

Secondly, future research should consider examining the servant leadership literature as a whole by conducting meta-analyses examining the theoretical pathways adopted within the literature. Currently, there are two meta-analyses that examine the empirical distinctness of servant leadership in comparison to other relational leadership theories (Banks et al., 2018; Hoch et al., 2018). These, however, do not truly explore servant leadership and its outcomes. As such, we believe that there is room for a servant leadership specific meta-analysis which examines the influence of servant leadership via theory, rather than just by outcome. This meta-analysis would give us a significant insight into the relative strength of the varying theoretical pathways as materialized through different variables and provide a strong for future studies.

Thirdly, further consideration should consider the boundary conditions by which social processes are influenced (Mumford & Fried, 2014). Further work should look at integrating the moderating effect of the follower's personality (i.e. stable traits) on the relationship between servant leadership and the exchange outcomes. For example, individuals high on cynicism may question the sincerity of the servant leader's behavior and thus not reciprocate as strongly with behaviors as an individual with low levels of cynicism. Similarly, one of the tenants of social learning theory is that the behaviors need to be observable in order for followers to emulate them (Bandura, 1977). Therefore, the structural elements that govern the team such as the leader's span of control, if the leader and followers are located in the same building (which is not the case in the context of virtual teams), and how long the follower has worked under the leader, all should influence the strength of the social learning relationship between the servant leader and her or his followers.

7.9 Implications for Managers

While we have spoken at length on servant leadership research in general, rather than in the specifics in Asia, we acknowledge the importance of thinking about how servant leadership can best be applied for all managers, especially those in Asia. Many younger Asian employees have been raised in a more integrated world, due to a rise in global media outlets, social media, Western education, as well as the influence of the US MBA model (Lee Cooke & Saini, 2012; Liden, 2012). Thus, many of the new generation of Asian workers are preferring leadership approaches, such as servant leadership, where the leader focuses on the needs of the individual, is willing to empower employees, and includes followers in the decision-making process, rather than the command and control methods of the past (Newman et al., 2018). This is on top of a number of academic studies which have demonstrated the advantage of using a servant leadership approach in Asia (e.g. Schwarz et al., 2016).

Therefore, we can confidently recommend that servant leadership is both appropriate and necessary in organizations in Asia. As shown, using servant leadership has a positive impact on performance, innovation, and positive employee attitudes and behaviours. It should however be noted that servant leadership is not a quick fix. It has an *indirect* influence on organizational outcomes. That is, servant leaders invest in their followers so they are able to reach their full potential and create a service culture where the team is working for one another. Once this is in place, this culture has a strong influence over positive organizational outcomes (Eva et al., 2019). As servant leadership is a shift from the often-self-interested norms of some managers, organizations need to understand that there needs to be time and resources invested into the development of servant leaders.

While leadership development training is not a new phenomenon for Asia, there does need to be a greater investment in training. Research conducted by Mercer (2013) demonstrated that the US was outspending Asia over 2:1 on leadership development training per employee. As one of the biggest issues facing Asian companies is turnover of high potential young employees (Agrawal, Khatri, & Srinivasan, 2012), leadership development is being used as a strategy to ensure the best talent stays at the organization (Newman et al., 2018). In order to best choose which managers to train in servant leadership, Hunter et al. (2013) recommended the use of personality tests which measure the level of concern and care for others (e.g. prosocial motivation). Similarly, organizations may want to use 360 degree ratings of a manager's servant leadership behaviours using Sendjaya et al. (2018) servant leadership behavioural scale. Secondly, organizations should deliver servant leadership development training to managers at all levels to ensure that the trickle-down effect of servant leadership is more pervasive throughout the organization (Eva, Sendjaya, Prajogo, Cavanagh, & Robin, 2018).

Thirdly, servant leadership training should be a mixture of workshops and role-specific initiatives (Schwarz et al., 2016). This may include workshops focused on specifics such as putting employees first and empowering employees and in-role initiatives such as shadowing senior staff who already display servant leadership and understand how they have ethical conversations and perform daily acts of service with their employees. These proposed soft-skill workshops are at odds with many current Asian leadership development programs which focus more on tangible outcomes such as classroom lectures and overseas assignments, rather than developing the soft-skills needed to engage in servant leadership (Mercer, 2013). Thus, there needs to be a shift of thinking about the development of the next generation of Asian managers.

7.10 Conclusion

When Alice chose one path over the other, she did not know where she wanted to go and thus her decision did not matter. The path the servant leadership researcher chooses, however, does matter. It must be done with thoughtfulness and consideration for the relationships being explained or the story being told. Purely selecting a theory without consideration to explain relationships between variables may raise more questions than it answers. Not selecting any theory at all could leave the study vulnerable to accusations of correlation without causation. Rather than choosing a theory to fit a series of variables, we implore servant leadership researchers to consider theory first, and allow the theory to inform the selection of variables. If a researcher is interested in followers' observation and emulation of the leader's behaviors, we suggest that social learning theory is the appropriate option. If the researcher seeks to understand why followers react with reciprocity towards the leader, we suggest social exchange is the appropriate option. Further, researchers should also consider drawing on multiple theoretical pathways as an effective way to explain the relationship between servant leadership and multiple outcome variables. It is important, however, to remain mindful that these processes are pointing to distinctively different social process.

This chapter has provided a detailed account of how social learning and social exchange theories work within the servant leadership context. In doing so, we have given an overview of servant leadership research in Asia, discussing how Confucianism and Daoism influence the way in which managers lead their employees and the rise of relational leadership approaches in Asia. The chapter then went on to map the previous studies which have used Bandura's (1977) social learning theory and Blau's (1964) social exchange theory within the servant leadership literature, and highlighted a handful of studies which have examined these theories together. A brief agenda for future research was offered, proposing that researchers should examine the boundary conditions that govern social learning and social exchange, as well as a greater analysis of these two pathways concurrently through both meta-analyses and future studies. Finally, we have discussed the application of servant leadership within Asia and the possibly barriers in its implementation.

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Chapter 8
Looking Back to Look Forward: Lessons for Leadership Development

Mulyadi Robin and Sen Sendjaya

Abstract From high profile scandals involving corporate, political, and religious leaders to systemic abuses of power and unethical practices that often form the backdrop of contemporary organizations; the lack of an efficacious profession of moral leadership is identified as one of the most fundamental problems in leadership among both academics and practitioners. Using the 2007–2008 global financial crisis (GFC) as a turning point, we analyzed 15 years of leadership development intervention literature published in peer reviewed journal before the GFC using servant leadership as a paradigm for holistic leadership development. Through this research, we sought to look back at what lessons can we learn from the past, so that we are able to better understand what changes are needed to move forward. The study revealed an imbalance in the emphasis of leadership development interventions, and extends the literature the study of destructive leadership and ethical leadership in answering the call for moral, authentic and ethical leaders. Theoretical and practical implications were also discussed.

Keywords Servant leadership · Leadership development · Holistic leadership development

8.1 Introduction

From high profile scandals involving corporate, political, and religious leaders to systemic abuses of power and unethical practices that often form the backdrop of contemporary organizations; the lack of an efficacious profession of moral leadership is identified as one of the most fundamental problems in leadership among both academics and practitioners (Bolden & Gosling, 2006; O'Connell & Bligh, 2009). For

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instance, the findings of the investigation into the global financial crisis of 2007–2008 concluded that there was a systemic breakdown in accountability and ethics that goes beyond simply greed and hubris (FCIC, 2011). The authors of the report stated "we do place special responsibility with the public leaders … those entrusted to run our regulatory agencies, and the chief executives of companies whose failures drove us to the crisis. These individuals sought and accepted positions of significant responsibility and obligation. Tone at the top does matter and, in this instance, we were let down. No one said no." (FCIC, 2011, p. 23).

Some argue that the 2007–2008 global financial crisis, the worst since the great depression of the 1930s (Temin, 2010), served as a turning point for leadership development with both academics and practitioners alike rallied for ethical leadership development (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014; Lee, Wang, & Piccolo, 2018; Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Wright, 2013). However, despite the outcries of both stakeholders and institutional actors and the acknowledgement of the often-heinous nature of their outcomes, it seems that these failures continue to feature permanently in news headlines globally. Among which are high profile cases—the "dieselgate" emissions scandal by Volkswagen (Parloff, 2018), fake accounts at Wells Fargo (Levine, 2016), Japanese scandals involving Olympus (Greenfield, 2012), Toshiba (Farrell, 2015), and Kobe Steel (Shane, 2017), Samsung bribery scandal that led to the impeachment of the South Korean president (Choe, 2017), as well as corruption cases involving palm oil producers (Reuters, 2018) and property developers (Rose, 2018) in Indonesia among others. Not surprisingly, most point to leadership failure and a lack of moral leadership as the key cause.

Furthermore, research has also revealed an alarming presence of systemic leadership problems such as bullying, abuse of power, unethical practices and toxic emotions amongst others in contemporary organizations (Aasland, Skogstad, Notelaers, Nielsen, & Einarsen, 2010). The costs of such practices are staggering—an estimated $24 billion per annum in the United States alone (Tepper, 2007), coupled with negative outcomes such as turnover intention, resistance towards the leader, counterproductive work behaviour and a decrease in wellbeing and individual performance (Schyns & Schilling, 2013; Tepper et al., 2009).

While some have argued that unethical practices are often normalized within organizations, which in turn enables and/or encourages a blind eye to such practices (Ashforth & Anand, 2003; Gino & Bazerman, 2009; Harrison, Ashforth, & Corley, 2009), the increasing presence of toxic leadership has also led many to question whether the mechanisms and motivations of leadership development have a part to play in this leadership crisis (Quatro, Waldman, & Galvin, 2007; Riggio, 2008; Sendjaya, 2015). Specifically, Sendjaya (2015) questioned whether the short-term, profit-orientation that organizational leaders are tasked with have led leaders to sacrifice ethics on the altar of performance.

This echoes with current sentiments in the field of leadership research, with a shift of foci in organizational leadership research towards values and ethics-centered leadership paradigms such as authentic, ethical, and servant leadership from performance-focused paradigms such as transformational leadership. While some bemoan and question the need for the introduction of such ideology into the study of leadership (Mumford & Fried, 2014), recent research indicate that they explain higher variance compared to performance-oriented paradigms like transformational leadership (Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu, 2018). Not to mention, there are also a host of other favorable employee, team, and organizational-level outcomes associated, especially with servant leadership (Eva, Robin, Sendjaya, van Dierendonck, & Liden, 2018; Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014; Sendjaya, Eva, Butar-Butar, Robin, & Castles, 2018). However, the jury is still out whether this has filtered down to the field of leadership development, or if shifting the focus of training will actually make a difference.

Of further interesting note, is that this crisis of leadership occurs with a backdrop of sustained interest and investment in leadership development over the last two decades (Day et al., 2014; Marques, 2015; Parker & Carroll, 2009; Ready, Hill, & Conger, 2008). This phenomenon is attributable to increasing evidences which suggest that leadership training has a positive correlation to effective leadership behavior (Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2009). However, there are also those who echo the lack of both holistic leadership development approach (Quatro et al., 2007; Sendjaya, 2015) and the lack of leadership development theories (Avolio, Avey, & Quisenberry, 2010; Day et al., 2014).

We propose that there is a need to systematically investigate the mechanisms and motivations of leadership development interventions to be able to develop a holistic leadership development approach. As such, this study seeks to look back at what lessons can we learn from leadership development intervention prior to the 2007–2008 global financial crisis, so that we are able to better understand what changes are needed to move forward.

8.2 Leadership Development

Leadership development is defined as the creation of social capital (Iles & Preece, 2006), which is distinct from leader development that generally refers to the development of human capital (Lepak & Snell, 1999). Conger and Benjamin (1999) argued that the since early 1990s leadership development programs have shifted focus from the enhancement of human capital (leader development) towards the development of social capital (leadership development). Hence, the emphasis is less on the improvement of individual skills and job performance and more on the development of worldviews and behaviors of team members and leaders.

However, this has led to a tendency of a lack of holistic approach towards leadership development. Day (2001, p. 605) also warned that there is a need for “a bridge to be well anchored on either side for effective development to occur”, and that organizations should not “choose one approach over the other” as the two complement each other. Hence, leadership development should incorporate the development of leadership processes alongside the development of individual leaders, not in exclusion to. Conger and Benjamin (1999) also proposed that for any leadership development to be maximized, a two-pronged approach must be taken—addressing learning at both the personal and organizational levels simultaneously.

With the importance of leadership development placed in contemporary organizations, it does not come as a surprise that leadership development programs often gets one of the largest percentage allocated from training and development budgets (Feldman & Lankau, 2005; Saslow & Buss, 2005). Existing research indicate that leadership training does indeed result in more effective leadership behavior (Caligiuri, 2006; Collins & Holton, 2004; Herman, 2007; Kesner, 2003), with a meta-analysis finding that "leadership interventions produced a 66% probability of achieving a positive outcome versus a 50-50 random effect for treatment participants" training achieving a positive outcome (Avolio et al., 2009).

However, a review by Doh (2003) revealed that only some aspects of leadership can be taught; specifically that substantial results from leadership training often occurs only when offered to the right people at the right time. This means that a pre-selection of candidates in leadership development training is essential. Conger (in Doh, 2003, p. 59) suggested that leadership comprised of many "skills, perspectives and dispositions", and whilst many of these skills and perspectives can be taught, dispositions cannot. This, however, is often not practiced (Day et al., 2014; Grint, 2007). The importance of pre-selection of candidates through either supervisor discretion or self-acceptance by the candidates as opposed to just using past achievements to predict their leadership capacity cannot be understated (Novicevic, Heames, Paolillo, & Buckley, 2009). These findings suggest that there is a need to select the 'right people' for leadership development to be effective, and that this selection process should be included in any leadership development programs.

The literature also show that organizations sponsor these programs for their employee in the belief that these investments will produce results. However, there is also a significant difference in the way organizations across different countries evaluate the effectiveness of leadership development programs (LDPs). Parry and Sinha (2005) found that the majority of American companies measured the effectiveness of LDPs through its impact on the short-term financial bottom line, whereas more than 60% of European companies tend not to measure their return on investments in LDPs through financial measures, rather focusing on non-financial metrics to track the effectiveness of the leadership development solutions (Saslow & Buss, 2005). These could be attributed to two reasons—the first being a byproduct of an indigenization of management education within the European system, where there is a greater willingness to focus on long-term growth as opposed to a fixation on quarterly numbers and growth targets (Jones, 2005, 2006), and second a byproduct of the strong focus of transformational leadership, as the dominant paradigm of the majority of leadership development interventions over the last three decades (Ardichvili & Manderscheid, 2008; Collins & Holton, 2004; Parry & Sinha, 2005).

Our review of the literature also indicate that that despite the immense depth of leadership development research available for low and middle level managers, there is a dearth of published work on dedicated executive-level leadership development with only as much as 5% of the research was focused on executive leadership development

(Zaccaro & Horn, 2003). Storey (2005) also found that only a quarter of senior-level executives are likely to receive leadership development training as compared to half of junior-level managers.

8.3 Approaches to Leadership Development

Research also show that the most commonly used leadership development programs are multi-source feedback (or 360° feedback), executive coaching, mentoring, networking, job assignments and action learning (Day, 2001; Iles & Preece, 2006).

Multisource feedback is also often interchangeably termed as 360° feedback or multi-rater feedback (London & Beatty, 1993). In essence, it is a systematic approach to feedback collection of an individual's perceived performance from his/her relevant colleagues and peers and is considered to be one of the most popular methods to leadership development (Day et al., 2014; London & Beatty, 1993; Smither, London, & Reily, 2005). However, Day (2001) concluded that while it is a valuable tool in developing the individual leader, it in itself is not effective in the development of social capital. This is because 360° feedback builds intra-personal competence in terms of self-knowledge, self-awareness and trustworthiness as opposed to interpersonal competence (Atwater & Brett, 2005; Conger & Fulmer, 2003; Iles & Preece, 2006).

Executive coaching is a developmental intervention that has been gaining popularity amongst practitioners (Duff, 2013; Feldman, 2001; Feldman & Lankau, 2005; Hall, Otazo, & Hollenbeck, 1999; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001). It is the process of equipping individuals with tools, knowledge and opportunities they need to develop themselves and it has been found to correct deficiencies in subordinates' performance, as well as to facilitate learning and achieving peak performance (Feldman & Lankau, 2005). Day (2001) identified executive coaching for leadership development as a process that involves pragmatic, goal-focused derivatives of one-on-one learning and behavioral change.

Mentoring has not only been identified as an effective component of leadership development in increasing individual development but is also important in enhancing the cognitive dimension of social capital as well due to its support orientation (Browne-Ferrigno & Muth, 2006; Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000; Schlee, 2000; Stead, 2005). However, despite being identified to offer intangible benefits such as professional development, job satisfaction and leadership-capacity building amongst others, Day (2001) warned against the negative issues regarding mentoring processes—over dependence that may occur when the young mentee becomes too closely aligned with the mentor. Hence, it is important to match the mentors with their protégés as well as to review this relationship, and that developing mentoring skills has the potential to increase the quality and quantity of informal mentoring.

Networking is primarily concerned with the investment and development of social capital and is often incorporated as part of leadership development activities as a way to break down barriers between functional areas of the organization; as well as to develop the 'know who' aspect of the organization (Bartol & Zhang, 2007; Pearce, 2007). Day (2001, p. 596) also argues that networking is a means to "develop leaders beyond merely knowing what and knowing how, to knowing who in terms of problem-solving resources".

Job assignments are argued to be useful in the creation of knowledge and skills in the areas of team building, strategic thinking and influencing (Iles & Preece, 2006). Its emphasis is mainly on the development of human capital, and for it to be most effective; there must be a structure for learning—therefore linking individual development needs with the 'right' jobs, as well as making it intentional. However, there is still relatively little theoretical guidance on conceptualizing work experience within the concept of leadership development (Day, 2001).

Last but not least, *action learning* is an alternative pedagogy in the place of traditional, lecture-based classroom training found in most formal leadership training programs (Day, 2000). The action learning model is based on the assumption that people learn from project work as well as solving real-life experiences in the workplace (Raelin, 1997). Research also shows that skills learnt through work problems are more likely to be practical and hence easily applied to leadership practice (Hirst, Mann, Bain, Pirola-Merlo, & Richver, 2004). Day (2001) proposed that this practice has the potential in the development of both social and human capital. However, it is time-intensive and there is a tendency for practitioners to over-emphasize on the results. He proposed that formal assessment has the potential to work better if used in the selection and assignment of action learning participants.

8.4 Transformational Leadership and Leadership Development

Transformational leadership is undoubtedly one of the most powerful leadership paradigms, and a wealth of research over the last four decades have linked it with a host of desirable outcomes at the employee, team, and organizational levels (Anderson & Sun, 2017; Banks, McCauley, Gardner, & Guler, 2016; Hoch et al., 2018). As a result, it is not surprising that it has been the dominant paradigm in leadership development since the late 1970s.

Often conceptualized as a leadership continuum with transactional leadership on one end, and transformational leadership on the other, researchers argue that transformational leadership behaviors will produce outcome beyond expectations as employees are motivated and inspired. Where followers of transactional leaders are motivated by the promises, praise and rewards of the leaders, transformational leaders motivate employees through idealized influence (charisma), inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Researchers have also posited that although this continuum is distinguished as bipolar opposites, most leaders actually possess the entire range of leadership; including both transformational and transactional factors, but they tend to display more behaviors on one end of the continuum than the other (Anderson & Sun, 2017; De Hoogh, Den Hartog, & Koopman, 2005; Parolini, Patterson, & Winston, 2009).

However, transformational leadership has come under criticisms on the lack of morality and ethics-orientation in its modern operationalization (Price, 2002). As supported by our earlier anecdotal examples, morality is a necessary and critical factor in leadership which when absent may distort an otherwise powerful leadership model (i.e. transformational leadership) into a disastrous outcome (Sendjaya, 2005). While Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) distinguished between authentic transformational leadership (with a moral and ethical orientation) and pseudo-transformational leadership as a response to criticisms, this distinction alone fails to ground a sufficient response to the ethical concerns as it discounts the potential of immorality being driven by the leaders' blindness to their own values (Price, 2002). Despite these criticisms, scholars agree that transformational leadership is a powerful leadership model whose benefits cannot be discounted. However, given the state of the current leadership crisis and the need for an intentional, holistic leadership development, perhaps a different paradigm is required.

Utilizing Rost (1995)'s view that leadership as a process may be viewed as fundamentally ethical if the conditions of noncoercive behavior, multidirectional influence and mutuality of purposes are met; Griffith (2007) proposed that servant leadership is an essential element of a holistic leadership approach. Arguably, servant leadership is the only leadership paradigm that fundamentally incorporates non-coercion, multidirectional influence (as it is not a leader-centric approach), and mutuality of purpose. While transactional and transformational leadership may meet the conditions of non-coercion and multidirectional influence; servant leadership is required to transcend the last threshold of mutuality of purpose as servant leaders place the good of the followers ahead of their own interests (Eva et al., 2018).

8.5 Servant Leadership and Leadership Development

Conceptually linked to many positive organizational attributes such as altruism, morality, spirituality and authenticity, servant leadership focuses on the primary intent of the leaders to first serve, and a self-concept of being a servant and steward (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011), as well as the personal integrity of the leaders (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008). Servant leadership is defined as "an other-oriented approach to leadership manifested through one-on-one prioritizing of follower individual needs and interests, and outward reorienting of their concern for self towards concern for others within the organization and the larger community" (Eva et al., 2018, p. 4). It is based on the premise that the leader is motivated by a 'higher calling' that is beyond just financial success for both the organization and self-gain (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Liden et al., 2008).

Relative to other leadership approaches which emphasize on the performance of the organizations, the servant leadership emphasis on the personal development of the subordinates would facilitate the development of both human and social capital, and therefore making it a naturally suitable paradigm for holistic leadership development. The recognition, development and utilization of the unique talents of an organization's employees are undoubtedly imperative to the organization in achieving effectiveness (Liden et al., 2008; Collins, 2001). The servant leadership approach to leadership is focused on the development of the employees to their fullest potential (Eva et al., 2018). Further, Liden et al. (2008, p. 162) proposed that servant leaders rely on one-on-one communication to "understand the abilities, needs, desires, goals, and potential" of their subordinates; and with this knowledge they assist them in developing and achieving their potentials. This approach differs to others as it stresses on personal integrity of the leaders (Liden et al, 2008); having the primary intent of serving, not leading others first as well as the leaders' self-concept being a servant and steward as opposed to a leader or an owner (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002).

While rooted in Greenleaf (1977)'s seminal work, recent scholarly developments highlighted three unique paradigms on servant leadership (Eva et al., 2018). The first focused on concern towards the community and conceptual skills of followers (beyond character and behaviors) (Liden et al., 2015; Liden et al., 2008); the second operationalizing both the 'leader'-side and 'servant'-side of servant leadership (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011; van Dierendonck et al., 2017), and the third taking a holistic aspect of followers' development including spirituality (finding meaning, purpose) (Sendjaya et al., 2008; Sendjaya et al., 2018).

For the purposes of holistic leadership development, we argue that Sen. Sendjaya et al. (2018)'s servant leadership theorizing is the most appropriate. The inclusion of a spirituality dimension represents "a distinguishing feature that makes servant leadership a truly holistic leadership approach relative to other positive leadership approaches" (Eva et al., 2018), and also reflects the initial theorizing that spirituality and humility are key sources of influence for servant leaders (Greenleaf, 1977).

Sendjaya and colleagues (2018) proposed six dimensions of servant leadership, namely voluntary subordination, authentic self, covenantal relationship, responsible morality, transcendental spirituality, and transforming influence.

Voluntary subordination refers to the willingness of servant leaders to take up opportunity to serve others whenever the need arises, regardless of the situation, is central to the concept of servant leadership (Sendjaya et al., 2008). This is also aligned with the extant literature where selfless service is a key feature of a servant leader, in contrast with self-seeking leaders who serve others only when convenient or beneficial to do so. Hence, this highlights that servant leadership is centrally about 'being' a servant rather than 'emulating' a servant's behavior (Eva et al., 2018; Page & Wong, 2000).

Authentic self refers to servant leaders' consistent display of humility, integrity, accountability, security and vulnerability of leaders. As servant leaders do not need constant approval and acknowledgement from others, they are secure can be accountable and vulnerable to others (Sendjaya, 2015).

Covenantal relationship refers to genuine and lasting leader-follower relationships characterized by shared values, mutual trust, and concern for each other's well-being (Sendjaya et al., 2018). The authentic nature of servant leaders forms and guides the way they relate to others; hence they accept others for who they are, and not how they make the leaders feel (Sendjaya et al., 2008).

Responsible morality is defined as an ethical predisposition that ensures the ends and the means sought by leaders are morally legitimized, thoughtfully reasoned and ethically justified (Sendjaya et al., 2008).

Transcendental spirituality is an important source of motivation for servant leaders' servitude. Sendjaya et al. (2008, p. 408) proposed that "the covenant-based and moral-laden relationships that servant leaders promote are also imbued with spiritual values". This is centered around the notion that servant leaders are actually attuned to the idea of having a personal calling to make a difference in the life of others.

Last but not least, *transforming influence* refers to the positive transformation that servant leaders wants to see among their followers, manifested as positive changes in both the organization and society (Russell & Stone, 2002). Sendjaya et al. (2008) posits that these influences occurs through modeling, visioning, mentoring, empowering others and trust.

8.6 Transformational and Servant Leadership

While they are conceptually distinct, there are similarities between servant and transformational leadership. Both encourages leaders and followers to raise each other's levels of motivation and morality. This is consistent with the view of several other researchers who have cited similarities across both theories; that both models incorporate characteristics such as respect, vision, influence, modeling, trust, integrity and delegation (Parolini et al., 2009; Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). However, there are points of variation amongst the similarities as well. Bass (2000) acknowledges that servant leaders go beyond transformational leaders in selecting the needs of others, as well as the emphasis upon service to followers; whereas transformational leaders aim to align their own and others' interests with that of the organization or group.

However, servant leaders are different in that they are more likely to demonstrate an inclination to serve marginalized people; are also more likely to set followers' priority first, organizations second and their own last; and thirdly that servant leaders' role is to serve followers, whereas transformational leaders' role is to inspire followers to pursue organizational goals. A recent experimental study also reveal that the way in which transformational leaders and servant leaders motivate their followers are empirically distinct (van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, De Windt, & Alkema, 2014).

8.7 The Study

Upon further investigation of the focus of current leadership development interventions, it becomes clear that there are significant gaps in the development of a holistic leadership development approach. We propose that in order for us to better understand the reasons behind the current crisis in leadership, we need to take a look back to identify lessons that can be learnt from leadership development intervention prior to the 2007–2008 GFC, so that we are able to better understand what changes are needed to move forward.

Using servant leadership as a paradigm for holistic leadership development, and the GFC as a turning point, we reviewed fifteen years (1994–2009) of published leadership development interventions to find out what aspects of leadership have been addressed by current leadership development practitioners. With its service-orientation, holistic outlook and moral-spiritual emphasis, we adopt Sendjaya et al.'s (2008) empirically validated six-factor model as a template for content analysis to understand what elements of leadership development have been neglected prior to the GFC. Initially, we sought to look at all leadership development intervention articles from the 1970s when servant leadership was first introduced as a leadership concept. However, our initial search revealed that the majority of relevant articles that was found in the initial data collection were published within the last 15 years of the GFC.

In essence, we sought to obtain a precise, objective and reliable observation about the frequency of which the six dimensions of servant leadership behavior occurred within the identified leadership development literature between 1994–2009 in order to inform future research and practice on leadership development going forward.

8.8 Methodology

We employed content analysis, which is the systematic approach to analyzing rich (qualitative) data to enable thematic analysis (Tharenou, Donohue, & Cooper, 2007). As the main aim of the study is to obtain an objective and accurate observation about the frequency of which the six dimensions of servant leadership behavior occurs within the leadership development literature; the study adopts the quantitative approach to content analysis (Krippendorff, 2004). There are two approaches to coding data in content analysis; either a priori or posteriori (Tharenou et al., 2007). With the a priori approach, categories (or codes) are established prior to the analysis based on some theory; whereas with posteriori, the categories are established following some preliminary examination of the data (Krippendorff, 2004). As this study uses the theoretical framework provided by (Sendjaya et al., 2008) as a template, it is a priori in nature. This approach to coding allows for the testing of theory, and is often used when there is prior knowledge or literature to guide the process of coding data (Tharenou et al., 2007).

In the template approach to content analysis, the development of a reproducible codebook is essential to the reliability of the study and hence a codebook based on the study's template was developed to ensure that a stable framework for the analysis of the textual data would be present (Krippendorff & Bock, 2009). An intercoder reliability test was conducted prior to the analysis of the data (Krippendorff & Bock, 2009), with a random sample of 30 articles was utilized, and consistent with recommendations from research method scholars—the Cohen's Kappa was adopted for the present study (Duriau, Reger, & Pfarrer, 2007). The current study's Kappa score was 0.83, which is considered to be very good agreement and would meet the minimum acceptable levels for reliability (Krippendorff & Bock, 2009; Pallant, 2007).

To obtain a fully populated sample of studies, an initial list of keywords was developed to facilitate electronic database search. The initial phase yielded over 1000 articles, consistent with reports in a similar study in the past (Pittinsky & Zhu, 2005). However, as there was a lack of articles that solely focused on the impacts of leadership development interventions, the research scope was narrowed down by imposing parameters of *focus* and *publications*. This ensured that only articles specifically examining leader and leadership development programs published in journals relevant to the field of leadership development were considered.

An expert panel consisting of OB and leadership researchers at a leading Australian university also assisted in the identification of publications relevant to the study. This panel consisted of over 10 academics and was carried out over two research seminars at the university. Major online academic databases (i.e. Business Source Premier, PsycInfo, Emerald among others) were searched. The study also only included specific articles published in English that center on leader and leadership development, as well as their intervention programs. As a result, initial data collected through the Boolean keyword search was then filtered further through a validation of their content (see Table 8.1).

Table 8.1 Keywords utilized in the study

Keywords	Justification (if any)
Leader development	
Leader training	
Leadership development	
Leadership training	
Networking	Identified as the most popular/key leadership development activities in organizations. However, only literature specifically addressing leadership development will be considered
360° feedback/multisource feedback	
Mentoring	
Action learning	
Job assignment	
Executive coaching	

A total of 137 articles containing a description of leadership interventions or their outputs were chosen to be in the final sample from a pool of 200 identified articles. Articles were excluded from the analysis if they did not provide enough description on either the method of the leadership interventions used or on the measured outcomes. Content analysis was utilized to analyze data using NVivo, which was then tabulated manually into Microsoft Excel.

8.9 Results and Discussion

Through a frequency count, the study revealed that there was a clear imbalance in the frequencies of which of the 22 sub-dimensions were addressed in current leadership development interventions. As shown in Table 8.2, the sub-dimension *Collaboration* had the highest occurrence (n = 118; 86.13%), followed by *Empowerment* (n = 116; 84.64%) and *Vulnerability* (n = 106; 77.37%), whereas sub-dimensions *Being a Servant* (n = 2; 1.46%), *Religiousness* (n = 4; 2.92%) and *Security* (n = 5; 2.65%) had very low occurrence.

Table 8.2 Frequency count of each sub-dimension

Dimension	Sub dimension	Instances occurred	Percentage
Voluntary subordination	Being a servant	2	1.46
	Acts of service	21	15.33
Authentic self	Humility	54	39.42
	Integrity	31	22.63
	Accountability	56	40.88
	Security	5	3.65
	vulnerability	106	77.37
Covenantal relationship	Acceptance	103	75.18
	Availability	16	11.68
	Equality	70	51.09
	Collaboration	118	86.13
Responsible morality	Moral reasoning	45	32.85
	Moral action	30	21.90
Transcendental spirituality	Religiousness	4	2.92
	Interconnectedness	11	8.03
	Sense of mission	42	30.66
	Wholeness	25	18.25

(continued)

Table 8.2 (continued)

Dimension	Sub dimension	Instances occurred	Percentage
Transforming influence	Vision	58	42.34
	Mentoring	32	23.36
	Modeling	42	30.66
	Trust	97	70.80
	Empowerment	116	84.64

$N = 137$

8.10 Voluntary Subordination

The results show that Being a Servant (n = 2; 1.46%) and Acts of Service (n = 21; 15.33%) have a relatively low occurrence in the leadership development interventions. With the first, a potential explanation for the low occurrence is the oxymoronic nature of the term ‘servant’ has led to the lack of adoption and popularity of this leadership paradigm (Sendjaya et al., 2008). The sub-dimension Acts of Service has a slightly higher occurrence, and a possible explanation for this is that since it refers to practical deeds that are sincere and reflects the leader’s his or her care (Sendjaya et al., 2008); coupled with the growing recognition of the need for organizations to be socially responsible and the potential benefits of purposeful volunteerism (Bowen, Burke, Horry, & Jacques, 2009), leadership development practitioners have started to incorporate this aspect into their leadership development programs.

This approach to learning is seen in a recently operationalized pedagogy called Service Learning, and has been incorporated into college and university curriculum using volunteerism and community service as the main vehicles of delivery (Bowen et al., 2009; Bringle & Hatcher, 1996). Further, a longitudinal study of service learning has shown that it has a positive impact on desired college outcomes (Keen & Hall, 2009). The benefits are potentially transferable across to businesses, with a recent study showing that company support for volunteering programs contributes to the company’s value chain by enhancing employee morale, meeting their corporate social responsibility needs and enhancing their public image (Basil, Runte, Easwaramoorthy, & Barr, 2009).

Interventions addressing the development of this dimension were commonly found to be action learning and mentoring respectively. Typical interventions include:

> By engaging in meaningful leadership practice, students were able to make positive contributions to their communities and also to their own development … created the pathways, bridges and corresponding space for students to use their leadership for civic purposes … programs provide opportunities for students to practice leadership and learn through service learning … expose students to a wide breadth of multiple service sites, people and organizations … students can understand how they can serve to make a difference, and they build an increased desire for servant leadership and involvement in leadership for social causes…(Eich, 2008) (being a servant)

> By serving as a mentor, individuals implicitly perform activities that parallel behaviors and skills identified as effective leadership … thus the activities and context of serving as a mentor have implications that go beyond the current mentor role, specifically as a possible avenue of individual leader development…(Middlebrooks & Haberkorn, 2009) (acts of service)

8.11 Authentic Self

The content analysis revealed that there were high occurrence of some elements of authentic self within the leadership development literature. High scores on sub-dimensions of Vulnerability (77.37%), Accountability (40.88%) and Humility (39.42%) could potentially be explained through the identification and high importance placed on the need for trust in the workplace, which can be facilitated through leaders' display of vulnerability and accountability (Espedal, 2008; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008) and the increased interest on authentic leadership in the mid-2000s (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Cooper, Scandura, & Schriesheim, 2005), which encourages the use of 'life-stories' approach for leaders and hence reduces their tendency to be insecure about their own identity and the need for constant approval and validation.

However, there is a lack of leadership development programs that aim to develop leaders' Integrity (22.63%) and Security (3.65%). A possible explanation is that in the drive for short-term organizational performance, practitioners often overlook the need to ensure that Integrity is a value that leaders have. Last but not least, Security is posited to be manifested from behavioral attributes such as being ready to step aside for a more qualified successor (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). Current examples of leadership development programs that include these behavioral attributes are mainly aimed at leadership succession.

Interventions addressing the development of this dimension range from executive coaching, formal learning and action learning, 360° feedback, and mentoring. Examples include:

> We settled on five elements he would communicate to his team … he would need their help both in understanding his strengths and development needs … ask them to meet his coach and share their candid views related to his leadership and development. (This invites his team to become collaborative partners in his development … reality that he will have a hard time turning things around without their cooperation and support) (Winum, 2005) (humility)

> The peer coaching and learning strategies led to what some participants referred to as "accountability". Investment in the process of coaching and being coached created a sense of accountability to one another…a major benefit to peer coaching was the sense of accountability that we shared towards each other…accountable to each other in regards to the transactions in our own peer coaching relationship…. we would highlight any non-adult-to-adult transactions that occurred during our sessions.(Ladyshewsky, 2007) (accountability)

> The relationship between the two consultants, the trust and the vulnerability added to a feeling level or tone with the process that contributed to the participants being able to become more open and vulnerable…they began to gingerly respond from an emotional standpoint, appreciating how emotions and feelings contribute to either function or dysfunction. After a few hours, the consultants began to see some of the shifts …the participants engaged in

> "picking up" on how the two consultants were working together…the team was able to engage in being more open and honest (Blattner & Bacigalupo, 2007). (vulnerability)

8.12 Covenantal Relationship

This dimension is the strongest in terms of frequency observations of its sub-dimensions: *Acceptance* (75.18%), *Equality* (51.09%) and *Collaboration* (86.13%), with the exception of *Availability* (11.68%). The results are aligned with emerging research identifying the importance of collaboration, networking as well as equality in the workplace (Bartol & Zhang, 2007; Elliott & Stead, 2008; Ready et al., 2008; Rhee & Sigler, 2009; Zimmermann, Wit, & Gill, 2008). With regards to *Availability*, the findings are consistent with what scholars and practitioners contend as a lack of selfless, accessible leaders; and have been identified to be a problem in the workplace as well (Iles & Preece, 2006; Kaplan & Kaiser, 2009; Novicevic et al., 2009; Saporito, 1996; Sosik & Dinger, 2007).

Interventions addressing the development of this dimension range from executive coaching, action learning, and 360° feedback. Examples include:

> The profile of success identified behaviors that were relevant to this task … the CEO would have to be strategic in his or her own thinking and broad based in his or her views of the organization … he or she would have to be psychologically accessible to people, easy to engage, supportive and a strong communicator with this profile of success in hand … our developmental coaching with Howard during the subsequent 6 months focused on helping to figure out exactly what he must do to adopt a broader leadership posture … to move from a top-down, one - on – one management style to a greater emphasis on managing the team as a whole through coaching and constant dialogue…(Saporito, 1996) (availability)

> The learning managers reported most often from this program was learning about self … also learning that others see them differently than they see themselves or that there are a variety of ways they are seen by others … these participants expressed this as learning they needed to listen more, be respectful of others' contributions, and not make decisions too quickly before seeking others' input … respondents (also) talked about learning more about the value of building relationships, the importance to getting to know others better, and the role of showing more interest in others and being friendlier, as ways to develop close, more collaborative relationships (Van Velsor & Ascalon, 2008) (equality)

8.13 Responsible Morality

When analyzed in the context of the current ethical climate, the relatively low-moderate occurrence of both Moral Reasoning (32.85%) and Moral Action (21.90%) identified in the leadership development programs might explain the prevalence of destructive leadership in organizations (Einarsen, Aasland, & Skogstad, 2007; Michael D. Mumford, Gessner, Connelly, O'Connor, & Clifton, 1993; Padilla, Hogan, & Kaiser, 2007). Ironically, for an area with such a sustained high interest (Barling, Christie, & Turner, 2008; Griffith, 2007; Johnson, 2007; McCann &

Holt, 2009; Rost, 1995), the number of programs that addresses ethics and morality is alarmingly low.

Although the potential gap between theory and practice could be a possible explanation (Zaccaro & Horn, 2003), another plausible rationale is the overemphasis in the field of leadership development on the transformational leadership paradigm (Ardichvili & Manderscheid, 2008; Day & Harrison, 2007; Pearce, 2007). Its ethical predispositions have been questioned in the literature (Barling et al., 2008; Price, 2002; Sendjaya, 2005). The focus of the transformational leaders on organizational performance (Parolini et al., 2009) may also potentially provide an insight as to why these two sub-dimensions are not focused upon in the current transformational leadership—driven leadership development field. However, further research is needed before any conclusions are made.

Interventions addressing the development of this dimension range from executive coaching, action learning, and 360° feedback. Examples include:

> Heightened self-awarenes involved gaining an insight into one's own thinking of leadership and management practice… the whole experience was beneficial as it made me re-evaluate my previous management behaviors and actions and allowed me to engage in self-reflection and analysis…(Ladyshewsky, 2007) (moral reasoning)
>
> The development of an executive-level global competency model at 3M … consists of 12 competencies and generalizable behavioral anchors for each competency … (a fundamental competency identified was) ethics and integrity; (the behavioral anchors were) exhibits uncompromising integrity and commitment to 3 M's corporate values, human resource principles and business conduct policies … (and the application of this competency model includes) focusing on development … executives use the behaviors (anchors) to set expectations for leaders within their organizations Individual executives talk through the behaviors that they establish as criteria to be used later for judging performance… (Alldredge & Nilan, 2000) (moral action)

8.14 Transcendent Spirituality

The results showed that Sense of Mission (30.66%) and Wholeness (18.25%) have a relatively low-moderate occurrence, whereas Interconnectedness (8.03%) and Religiousness (2.92%) had low occurrence. Many leaders attribute the origin of their behavior to an experience that is often described in spiritual term, that is a higher purpose which transcends profits or self-gratification (Neal, Lichtenstein, & Banner, 1999; Reave, 2005; Sauser Jr., 2005). Moreover, there is also emerging interests in a holistic, integrated workplace (Quatro et al., 2007) as well as having a work-life balance. In the light of these factors, it is not surprising that Sense of Mission and Wholeness had a relatively low-moderate occurrence. Interconnectedness described as a connection "between the internal self and external world" as well as Religiousness have a low occurrence.

Research on religion and the workplace is still lacking; as the practice is somewhat frowned upon by practitioners and scholars alike—especially as religious views and traditions may be exclusive in their worldviews and thus may lead to an arrogance that certain types of organizations are better than others; or that it may be used as a manipulative tool. Although research has been done on the potential for the promotion of religious practices in the workplace (Benefiel, 2005; Dent, Higgins, & Wharff, 2005; Kriger & Seng, 2005), it is for the aforementioned reason that this is still not practiced. These may be possible explanations for the low occurrences of the Religious dimension. However, as these four sub-dimensions are identified as the basis of the calling upon which enables servant leaders to engage in meaningful and motivating work; and has been identified as a key element towards a holistic leadership development (Eich, 2008; Quatro et al., 2007), it is essential that leadership development practitioners ensure that these are included when developing their leadership development programs.

Interventions addressing the development of this dimension range from executive coaching, formal workshops, and 36° feedback. Examples include:

> The identification of positive influence characteristics both created early bonding within the larger group and became a touchstone for the intrapersonal, small- group work … inspired personal influence characteristics seem to arise from our spiritual nature or more essential self. These characteristics emerge through such practices as mediation, prayer reflective thought and service … individual influence can be expanded through a deeper understanding of self … an NTL workshop enables individuals to focus on the importance of positive influence characteristics and to overcome inner blockages (Hanna & Glassman, 2004) (religiousness)

> The central precept.. is that managers need to have an inner center to act as an anchor and source of gravity and calm through which they may acknowledge and accept the inherent tensions and paradoxes … by practicing "emptying of the mind" the manager may allow new insights and intuitions to emerge, be more attuned to others' reactions and become more effective by making less effort… being in the center requires a measure of inner vitality and strength as the basis of yielding. It is important for the manager to have this center … to support him or herself … colleagues and cope with changing situations and pressures (Shefy & Sadler-Smith, 2006) (interconnectedness)

8.15 Transforming Influence

Results of the content analysis across the sub-dimensions revealed that Empowerment (84.64%), Trust (70.80%) and Vision (42.34%) have a high occurrence; whereas Modeling (30.66%) and Mentoring (22.36%) has a low-moderate occurrence. As identified prior, the pervasiveness of transformational leadership in the field of leadership development has been identified (Ardichvili & Manderscheid, 2008; Day & Harrison, 2007), moreover empirical research on the relationship between empowerment, trust and vision with organizational and leadership outcomes has been established (Callahan, Whitener, & Sandlin, 2007; Lapidot, Kark, & Shamir, 2007; Pina e Cunha, Campos e Cunha, & Rego, 2009; Scandura & Pellegrini, 2008; Sosik & Dinger, 2007).

Hence, the findings of the study are consistent with that of the extant literature. With regards to Mentoring and Modeling, despite results from empirical research showing positive influence on developmental outcomes (Dixon, 2006; Hobson &

Sharp, 2005; Stead, 2005), adoption by practitioners is still lacking. A possible explanation would be from the perspective that these are hard to measure and evaluate, or that the organization may not have the resources to provide for mentors (Feldman, 1999; Ragins et al., 2000; Stead, 2005). Interventions addressing the development of this dimension were commonly found to be formal learning, 360° Feedback as well as action learning. Examples include:

> Development can be accelerated by increasing current leaders' recognition that they constitute one of the most powerful forms of interventions through role modeling the five developmental readiness factors to future leaders; as well as by training and equipping leader developers with the skills and techniques needed to practice strengths-based leadership and to create a learning- oriented context (Bruce J. Avolio & Hannah, 2008) (modeling)

> In order to accomplish a series of relatively demanding missions over a one- week period, the squad leaders will have to share risks and hardships in order to earn trust and confidence from their followers (idealized influence), they must be able to care for other team members (individualized consideration), effectively formulate and communicate goals and visions of the near future (inspirational motivation), and encourage innovation and creative problem solving of followers (intellectual stimulation) (Eid, Helge Johnsen, Bartone, & Arne Nissestad, 2008) (trust)

> The central premise of stretch or developmental work experiences is to provide challenging assignments to budding leaders that push them to construct new understandings of their more complex operating environment … essentially it must be something that stretches people, pushes out of the comfort zone and requires them to think differently … problems to solve, dilemmas to resolve, obstacles to overcome, and choices to make under conditions of risk and uncertainty … These assignments are useful because they place leaders in novel situations, requiring them to adapt and display new performance strategies … (leaders are) often required to develop new ways of understanding their environment and new ways of operating in more complex work contexts (Zaccaro & Banks, 2004)(empowerment)

8.16 Theoretical and Practical Contributions

Overall, we propose that the findings of this study contributes to the field of leadership development by providing a servant leadership perspective towards a holistic model of leadership development. It is clear from the content analysis that there is a clear imbalance in the focus of leadership development interventions prior to the 2008 Global Financial Crisis. Of particular note, is the apparent lack of intentional emphasis on the moral aspect of leadership development; thus contributing to one corner of the toxic triangle—by allowing for a conducive environment for destructive leaders to operate and develop in (Collins & Holton, 2004). This may enable destructive leadership theorists to further analyze and research on the implications of the lack of moral leadership development, as well as partially answering the question as to why there is a leadership crisis. Moreover, this also extends the destructive leadership theory by providing a developmental perspective which should be explored in future research. Last but not least, this study also answers the calls by practitioners and scholars alike in the need for a holistic, authentic and moral leadership development in the light of the leadership crisis we face today.

From the results, we also argue that the servant leadership behavior dimensions identified by Sendjaya et al. (2008) provides a strong base for a holistic leadership development approach as it is a holistic approach that also includes elements that are often ignored or sidelined by popular leadership development approaches. For instance, given what we know about the importance of altruistic behavior and leaders' values (Sosik, Jung, & Dinger, 2009), as well as the key role that spirituality play in holistic leadership development (Quatro et al., 2007; Shefy & Sadler-Smith, 2006), it is essential that leadership development practitioners ensure that these are included when designing leadership development interventions.

Moreover, as the transfer of training should be an important outcome of any leadership development program (Conger & Benjamin, 1999), we propose that the SLBS may also be used as a back-end analysis in conjunction with other evaluative measures to evaluate the effectiveness of the program. In short, the findings of this study can guide the design of the leadership development programs.

The findings of the current study also provide the argument for the need of a holistic leadership development approach to ensure retention as well as succession of talents within the organizations. While organizations are investing a lot of money into leadership development, it is clear that more often than not, these programs are not holistic in nature. We argue that the servant leadership-driven holistic leadership development model presented in this study may be used to design a high-quality leadership development program. For HR practitioners and consultants, the findings of this study provide another developmental tool—the use of the SLBS as a front-end and a back-end analysis to measure training transfer. The results also provide a perspective on the need for the systematic development of the 22 sub-dimensions of the SLBS to ensure a holistic leadership development. Moreover, it provides an alternative approach to from the transformational-leadership dominated paradigm of leadership development.

8.17 Limitations and Future Research Directions

Although steps were taken to ensure that the content analysis was exhaustive and robust in both reliability and validity, caution must be used in the interpretation of the findings reported. As only interventions published in major journals were included, articles published in books or other journal titles that were not accessible at the time of the research were excluded. Furthermore, as the content analysis is qualitative in nature; and coupled with the fact that not all articles published detail their programs—several aspects of the interventions may not have been fully analyzed.

This study aims to provide a basis for investigating a holistic leadership development approach, specifically one that is rooted in servant-leadership. As the growing body of empirical findings continue to surface and the paradigm's theoretical rigor is strengthened; future researchers should consider developing and researching servant leadership—driven leadership development for organizations. Secondly, it would be interesting to see a longitudinal research on the development of servant leaders at college/university, as well as the organizational levels and their outcomes. Thirdly, a study of servant leadership development in not for profit organizations (e.g. charity, religion-based organizations) would greatly add on to the body of the literature on servant leadership development as these organizations espouse servant leadership as the tenet of their leadership practices. Such a study can be done across large organizational samples and may also provide an insight into religiousness in the workplace. Lastly, an international study looking at the cultural differences of servant leadership—driven leadership development will add on to the small body of international studies on servant leadership. Research could focus on whether cultural differences contribute to the differences in developmental levels or approaches.

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Chapter 9
‘Pergumulan’ as the Starter and Sustainer of Servant Leadership: A Case of Academic Leadership in an Indonesian Private University

Ricky

Abstract In the disruptive era, every organization is expected to cope with change. This includes the ones in the sector of higher education. Servant leadership is considered as the leadership approach that enables Higher Educational Institutions (HEIs) to deal with the inevitable changes. This research explores an academic leadership in a private university in Indonesia, which endorses servant leadership as its leadership approach. The case study involves the interview of twenty-six academic leaders who have asked to answer two fundamental questions: (1) How do they perceive the invitation to lead as an academic leader and (2) What did they do as they consider whether to take the offer to lead as an academic leader? The gathered data was processed using the Qualitative Data Analysis consisting data condensation, data display and drawing and verifying conclusion. Twenty-five academic leaders said no when they first offer and this initial refusal drives the researcher to find a term called ‘pergumulan’ as the common theme across the interviewees. ‘Pergumulan’ or a spiritual struggle happened during the pre-leadership journey and during the leadership journey of these academic leaders. The former suggests that ‘pergumulan’ is spiritual, intrapersonal and interpersonal. The latter indicates that pergumulan happens when the servant leaders search their motivation and figure out the way to improve themselves while serving their followers. Lastly, during their leadership, the servant leaders are also having the ‘pergumulan’ as they have to confront or rebuke their followers.

Keywords Servant leadership · ‘Pergumulan’ · Spiritual · Intrapersonal · Interpersonal

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9.1 Changes and Servant Leadership

Higher Educational degree is the currency in the knowledge economy. In this industrial 4.0, Higher Educational relevance and efficiency is the one. Irrelevance higher education has been left by its constituent gradually. There are top fifteen companies according to Purtill (2018) that have declared that college degree is no longer relevant for young professionals to be their employee. These multinational companies look more for the skill and competency that have been decoupled from the higher educational degree (Purtill, 2018). Although most of the organizations and countries around the world still use college degree as a requirement they also notice that a college degree is no longer a guarantee that its holder is as capable as expected. Organizations these days will demand further explanations on the origin of the degree and what sort of trainings or programs happened when its holder was pursuing it. The irony is that college degree has lost its value from one that can certify the competency of its holder into the one that only allow its holder to be accepted by an organization to be trained further (Tierney, 2014).

The relevance of HE is very important given that the industrial changes including the 4.0 have created a new form of what McAfee (2013) called as technological unemployment. The previous industrial revolution, the advancement of industrial technology has created a massively technological unemployment as labors in the factories were laid off. In the current industrial revolution 4.0, technological unemployment happens in the form of the loss of jobs of those who work in the retail and service sector (Schwab, 2016). These changes should be dealt with by organizational leaders using a leadership approach that is known to be the one that is transformative and adaptive like servant leadership.

Servant leadership is well known as a leadership that enables people to cope with changes as servant leaders lead with the focus of serving their followers. Serving their followers means that servant leaders should understand and meet the need of their followers (Greenleaf, 1977; Wheeler, 2012). The served followers for (Van Dierendonck, 2011) are expected to be the ones who will grow holistically and be able not only to contribute to their organization but also to their society. Servant leaders expect that changes that happen to their organization can be treated as opportunities and facilitators for growing their followers. Servant leaders are expected to enable their followers to handle the orders or demands from ‘above’ related to the changes (Wheeler, 2012; Barret & Barret, 2007).

The disruptive technology is another term after globalization and financial austerity that should be dealt by various sectors including the higher education (HE) sector (Kubler & Sayers, 2010). These three challenges have caused colleges and universities to do more with less without sacrificing their academic sanctity. The sector of higher education needs a leadership approach that enables transformation from within and it has been suggested that *servant leadership* is the best approach for the HE sector. Farnsworth (2007) suggests that servant leadership is a leadership for the HE sector given that the sector needs professionals who know how to provide creative yet dignified solutions. These solutions are the ones that can meet the demands of the students and the industries without compromising the absolute necessity of academic purposes like the holistic development of the students, critical thinking, and rigid research. Servant leadership is known as a leadership that transforms the followers to be a whole-rounded person who is enabled to provide meaningfully creative solutions (Wheeler, 2012).

It was Robert K. Greenleaf who developed a paradoxical approach to leadership called servant leadership (Northouse, 2010). Greenleaf (1977) posits that anyone working in an organisation has a 'dual being', that is, s/he is both servant and leader. For Greenleaf, this dual being is not only possible but also imperative for an effective leadership. Servant leadership is a leadership approach that requires the leader to serve the followers by meeting the needs of the followers (Spears, 1998). In contrast to authoritarian leadership approaches, in which what the leader does is determined by their desire to be leader first, servant leadership theory holds that the true leader is motivated by their desire to be a servant first. This leadership approach, based on the philosophy of service, is needed to promote creativity among the people within the sector in dealing with the sector's challenges (Farnsworth, 2007; Wheeler, 2012).

The idealistic expectations of servant leadership do not come without some strings attached. Wheeler (2012) argues that researching servant leadership is difficult since true servant leaders will not declare themselves. Research as the best way to know more about servant leadership is not an easy endeavor. The fundamental question that still begs for an answer is about the antecedent of servant leadership. What can make an individual willing to be the servant of his or her followers? Research show that sense of calling-to-serve (Wheeler, 2012), need to serve (Van Dierendonck, 2011) and compassionate love (Van Dierendonck and Patterson, 2010) have been suggested as the reason for serving for servant leaders. Unfortunately, these studies do not explain the thought process of the servant leaders as they were willing to serve as part of their being.

Servant leadership scholars tend to refer spiritual values and corporate values as the ideals within the servant leaders that drive them to put their interests behind the ones of their followers. Christian servant leader scholars suggest that spiritual transformation is considered as the corner stone of the sense of calling-to-serve of servant leaders (Reinke, 2004; Page & Wong, 2000). These scholars argue that for a servant leader to serve he or she would need to have a transcendental being who calls and sustain them (Page & Wong, 2000). The transcendental being is the one who caused a servant leader to have what Sendjaya (2015) called as 'transcendental spirituality' which has a strong association with these servant leaders' voluntary willingness to serve. Scholars also carefully mention that servant leadership that comes from the nature of a leader (as a servant) is not a simple process. It takes the continuous renewal of commitment (to serve) of the servant leaders to be able to humble themselves to serve their followers (Spears, 1998; Russell & Stone, 2002; Barbuto & Wheeler, 2007).

This research has two fundamental aims: to explore the concept of the antecedent of servant leadership and to understand the internal thought process of servant leaders. These aims will be achieved by answering these research questions: (1) How do they perceived the invitation to lead as an academic leader? (2) What did they do when they consider the invitation to take the academic leadership position? Theoretically, these questions will guide the researcher to explore the considerations of servant leaders when they were asked to lead (serve) and practically, the understanding the internal thought process of the leaders will enable the organization to strengthen its leadership development program.

9.2 The Servant Leadership Case

This research is about exploring the internal thoughts of academic leaders of a private university who have been trained to lead their academic unit using the principles of servant leadership. In reviewing a decade of research related to higher educational leadership, Lumby (2012) suggests that research in this field is complex, contingent, and contested. The difficulty in researching this field is due to both methodological and ethical issues. Methodologically, it is difficult to disentangle leadership from other social processes (Middlehurst, 1993) and ethically, it is complex to detach researchers from their university affiliation (Bryman & Lilley, 2009). Research on higher educational leadership requires more robust methodology and more authentic and objective researchers. The researcher has the opportunity to use a case study as one of such research methodologies, to advance knowledge in the area of higher educational leadership.

The context of this case study is a private university situated in one of the major cities in Indonesia. The private campus, which has been providing HE for more than five decades, has a name that reveals the campus' identity as a faith-based (Christian) campus. The existence of the Christian university cannot be separated from the earlier establishment of a Christian Education Board which governs Christian schools. This organisation was founded by Chinese Christian Indonesians who believe that Christians in Indonesia need to be educated in Christian schools (PPPK, 2014).

Most of the members of the board eventually established the case campus to provide higher education for students graduating from the Christian schools. The Christian campus, which started its higher educational service with one undergraduate programme under one faculty, today serves more than seven thousand active students distributed in more than twenty undergraduate academic programmes and two master programmes (BAAK, 2014). The following table describes the establishment timing of these academic programmes.

Table 9.1 shows a fluctuation in the number of programmes being opened in the first five decades of the case campus. It took two decades for the case campus to establish its fourth academic programme whereas nine new academic programmes were offered in its fourth decade. The case campus needed more than three decades to open its first post graduate programme (a Master's degree programme). This is unlike the founding fathers of the case campus when they established the university after just a decade of providing secondary education for the community.

There are currently 300 active lecturers distributed in six different schools and one General Education department. The records show that there are still 26 lecturers

Table 9.1 The timing of the establishment of academic programmes (UKP, 2012)

Period	Number of established academic programmes
The first decade	3 Undergraduate programmes
The second decade	0 Undergraduate programmes
The third decade	3 Undergraduate programmes
The fourth decade	9 Undergraduate programmes and 1 post graduate programme
The fifth decade	4 Undergraduate programmes and 1 post graduate programme

Table 9.2 Lecturers' academic rank (BAUK, 2014)

No	Academic rank	Lecturer	
		Number	Percentage
1	None[a]	75	25
2	Instructor	101	34
3	Assistant professor	65	21.67
4	Associate professor	52	17
5	Professor	7	2.33

[a]In Indonesia, an academic rank is awarded by the Directorate General for Higher Education. This HE Educational body is under the Minister of Research-Technology and Higher Education. Sometimes, those appointed to teach by the university have not yet attained a formal academic rank

(8.7%) who have only a Bachelor qualification. There are 229 lecturers with a Master's degree (76.3%) and 45 with a Doctoral degree (15%) (BAUK, 2014). There are currently 159 lecturers who used to be students of the case campus or in other words, more than 50% of the full-time lecturers are alumni of the case campus (BAUK, 2014).

As well as their qualifications, the lecturers' quality can be indicated from their academic rank. Table 9.2 describes the case campus' lecturers' academic rank. Most of the lecturers are at instructor level, only seven already have their Professor status and seventy-five are still without their academic rank.

Besides the academic rank, the latest indicator introduced by the government to measure a lecturer's quality is his/her professional certification. To obtain a professional certification, a lecturer should have a Master's degree and an Instructor academic rank. Based on this regulation, the case campus has yet to certify their seventy-five full-time lecturers. Further investigation shows that there are more than 50% lecturers who are late in getting their academic rank (BAUK, 2014). These lecturers' academic ranks do not reflect their academic working years; there are times when they either did not achieve their academic rank or did not have the academic results necessary for a higher academic rank. In summary, the case campus' lecturers

Table 9.3 The distribution of students and lecturers in six faculties (BAAK, 2014)

No	Faculty	Active students		Full-Time lecturers	
		Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
1	Social science/SS—A	231	3.1	32	11
2	SS—B	3,082	41.42	71	24
3	SS—C	1,299	17.46	39	13
4	SS—D	460	6.18	19	7
5	Natural science/NS—A	1,139	15.31	69	24
6	NS—B	1,229	16.52	62	21

need to improve their academic qualifications and academic ranks and thereby obtain their professional certification.

The Christian campus currently has six schools/faculties with arguably unequal distribution of student numbers, let alone the distribution of lecturers. Table 9.3 shows that one of the Faculties educates 41.42% of the total students and the distribution of the active students does not match the distribution of the full-time lecturers.

Despite the faith-based nature of the case campus, the private University is open for any students from any background to study. However, given the unique history, most of the students of the case campus are either Indonesians of Chinese (CCIS, 2014) descent and/or Christians (UKP, 2012). Given the private status, the campus relies for almost all its funding on the students who are mainly being funded by their parents, who unfortunately perceive the case campus as an expensive campus in spite of its good facilities (Fitriya, 2012).

This situation has caused parents to some extent to regard their child's higher educational expenses as an investment for the future. Due to President Soeharto's programme of assimilation and social discrimination in the period 1967–1998, Chinese Indonesians tend to prefer to remain invisible, to keep silent and go their own way (Koning, 2007). One of their ways is to be independent economically, where they believe that their financial strength will enable them to stand against the discrimination. Their focus on the economy has made Chinese Indonesians relatively strong in their financial capacity which leads politicians to state that the minor ethnic group of just 5% is able to control 75% of the nations' economy (Suryadinata, 1999).

This brief description explains the family background of the students studying in the case campus. Students of the case campus tend to aim for the practical aspect of HE rather than critical thinking and knowledge generation. The background of the students might influence their perspective and aspiration when they enter the case campus. These students for Walujono (2014) might have the pragmatic thinking that ideas and concepts are not implementable as they seek more current secure environment, network, and degree which they perceive valuable for their future.

Table 9.4 Stages of Qualitative Data Analysis

No	Stage	Explanation	Outcome
1	Data collection	The process of collecting the data using methods that will enable the researcher to understand the depth of a phenomena	Interview records
2	Data condensation	The process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, and transforming the data appear to in the full body of the written data	Field-notes, interview transcripts
3	Data display	The process of making an organized, compressed assembly of information that allows conclusion drawing	Analytical grid that is relevant to the research questions and theory
4	Drawing and verifying conclusion	The process of making an interpretation of the data by noting patterns, explanations, causal flows, and propositions	Themes that are relevant for answering the research questions

Source Miles et al. (2014)

9.3 Methodology

This research uses case study methodology because the researcher would like to explore the truth from the agents or the leaders themselves when they are in the act of doing their leadership. Case study has the power to research a phenomenon without having to detach the research participants from their context (Thomas, 2011). This is important since leadership is a phenomenon that is difficult to be separated from the leader (Ribbins & Gunter, 2002).

Twenty-six academic leaders were interviewed using a semi-structured interview. These leaders consist of two presidential leaders, six decanal leaders and eighteen departmental leaders. They were asked to explain the starting point of their appointment as an academic leader and to describe how did they eventually decided and got the leadership position. The data gathering and analysis follow the Qualitative Data Analysis procedures (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014). The QDA involves four interrelated processes, namely: data collection, data condensation, data display, and drawing and verifying conclusion. The following Table 9.4 explains every step and its outcomes.

The stages in a QDA are not purely sequential. The process of data analysis happens when the researcher collects the data and the next stages are stages that are interrelated and done in an iterative way (Bryman, 2012; Yin 2014). Every

Table 9.5 The pre-leadership journey of academic leaders of the case campus

No	Stage	Explanation	Outcome
1	Invitational	The upper level leader invites minimum two candidates to consider the leadership position	Minimum two leaders who are willing to be the candidates
2	Candidacy	The willing candidates are going through the necessary candidacy process which involves background check, health check and candidacy presentation.	The recommendation from the members of the senate for every candidate.
3	Election	The board and the upper level leader are choosing one of the recommended candidates	One elected academic leader for every position

Source YPTK (2004)

interviewee is given a pseudonym to ensure that his or her name is untraceable. This is part of the commitment of the researcher to the ethical standard of the research.

9.4 'Pergumulan'

When asked about their pre-leadership journey, the academic leaders of the case campus told the researcher that they were reluctant or not willing to accept the invitation extended by the Board (for the presidential leaders) or the Presidential leader (for the decanal leaders) or the Decanal leaders (for the departmental leaders). The case campus is running a system of democratic-participatory approach (YPTK, 2004). This approach involves three stages: the invitation stage, the candidacy stage and the election stage. The following Table 9.5 explains each stage of the pre-leadership journey of an academic leader of the case campus.

The fact that twenty-five academic leaders said no when they were first during the invitational process tells that there must be process these academic leaders went through before eventually willing to participate in the nomination process. The academic leaders who were asked to lead using a servant leadership approached mentioned that they underwent a process that is in bahasa called as 'pergumulan'.

9.5 Pergumulan as the Starter of Servant Leadership

Pergumulan is an internal process that is crucial for servant leaders. In this internal process, servant leaders compare-and-contrast dilemmas related to their willingness to serve. Servant leaders are leaders who should influence their followers through their genuine service. In providing service for their followers, servant leaders have to decide on the prioritizing issues. Theoretically, servant leaders are in the constant battle between prioritizing themselves and those under their leadership (Perry, 1983). This is a very delicate matter, which can be known only by the servant leaders themselves. This is an intrapersonal relationship matter, which for MacArthur (2004) concerns the attitude of their heart.

In their pre-leadership stage, academic servant leaders did their pergumulan as they consider different factors, which affect their willingness to be nominated in their current leadership position. The case campus follows a semi-democratic system in which a candidate will be suggested by his or her influential peers as these peers answered the questions asked by the president or the higher-level leader of certain position. For example, in order to elect a dean, the Rector or the President of the University will ask the current dean as well as the influential lecturers of the suitable candidates. The Rector then will approach the candidates suggested by their peers and offer these candidates a leadership position. The Rector normally will ask these candidates to consider the offer. The Rector will ask these candidates to go through the process of 'pergumulan'. This research is about trying to understand the concept of 'pergumulan'.

The academic servant leaders of the case campus stated that pergumulan is a spiritual process where they consider the offer as an offer from the Divine Being who they believe as the One who is in control for their lives both on this earth and beyond. These academic leaders will try to answer one 'simple' question: 'Is being a leader the will of the Divine Being?' Ella, one of the academic leaders stated her story when she tried to answer the question:

> At first, it was really a 'No'. I just finished my PhD program. I wanted to 'just' become an ordinary lecturer: teaching, researching, and publishing. However, my colleagues asked me to think it over given the condition of our academic program. These long-time colleagues of mine during a lunch time map the potential leaders and they said that they see nobody else suitable for the job. I perceived that lunch as one of the ways God spoke to me. I said to them that I will 'bergumul' about it. I was in doubt at that time. Not so much because of the administrative matter but it is more because I will have to deal with colleagues or have a friction with them. I really do not like this part of the leadership role. When I was still thinking about it, the campus was inaugurating the higher-level officers. During that time, I was still praying and thinking about it and one day, as I went to an inauguration day and listened to the sermon. It was about 'Who is willing to be assigned by God?' I feel that it was God who talked directly to me… (G10, Ella).

Another academic servant leader who leads a Social science school described his thoughts during his nomination period:

> I know that it will be very administrative. I will have to deal with report making, signing letters, deciding through bureaucracy. If you came to my house you would immediately agree that I am not an administrator. I happen to be a person who is not tidy. My wife can tell you that and she would just use my messy working table for it. But, then, I believe that serving as a suffering academic leader is my way of returning God's kindness. I came from a very poor family [Crying] and only by the kindness of God that I my family could move one after my father left us. God was the one who restored my family and allowed me to pursue my education until the level of Doctorate. His kindness is my fundamental reason for being willing to be an academic leader. (G3, Robert)

The statements of the academic servant leaders above are the evidence that 'pergumulan' is a spiritual matter. This means these academic leaders were doing spiritual activities so that they can be convinced in accepting the invitation of the President or Dean to be an academic leader. This confirms the spiritual nature of servant leadership suggested by Spears (1998) and Sendjaya (2015). The next section will explain the considerations of the academic leaders.

The academic servant leaders mentioned that when they were asked to decide on their nomination, they were weighing their capability and the needs of their organization. One of the considerations of their 'pergumulan' is related to the perception of themselves on their own capability. Alex, one of the heads of department shared his thoughts:

> I don't think I have the skill to be an academic leader. I don't like to speak in public. Doing so is such a huge pressure for me. However, I was also being convinced by many that I was the most appropriate candidate as I was the one who could be accepted by the seniors and the juniors. I finally said yes because I believe that I will be able to fulfill what is needed of me. The main role of an academic department head is to be the one who could manage the academic processes. This means s/he should be able to assist his or her colleagues to advance their academic career. (G18, Alex)

Besides 'bergumul' or thinking deeply of whether one can contribute to his or her academic unit. The servant leaders of the case campus also mentioned that their 'pergumulan' is related to the people who will work above and with them. Dan, one of the presidential leaders mentioned:

> I was approached multiple times and kept saying no to these approaches. However, the vision and mission of the President cause me to rethink the offer. The shared vision was so compelling. I guess it was because of the trustworthiness of the leader. I perceived that sharing of vision as a spiritual event of my life. I feel that God was moving me to support this leader. I can feel that the sharing of vision of the President moves me to the one who support me. My job is to make him successful in fulfilling the vision that He has received from God. (G2, Dan).

The sharing from the presidential leader is one of the evidence that servant leaders consider the potential colleagues within their leadership structure. This is also confirmed by Heather, one of departmental leaders as she said in her following statement:

> When I was approached to be an academic leader, I was considering it by recalling stories of some of my colleagues who had to work under the 'wrong' leader. The unethical leader would 'shift' his jobs to my colleagues. These lazy leaders did not do the job and transferred it to their vice or deputy instead. I have to make sure about who will be my direct leader and indirect leaders. When I feel that my leader-to-be is somebody who I can trust then I feel that It is a confirmation from above that I can take the leadership position (G9, Heather).

The evidence above shows that 'pergumulan' tends to be an intrapersonal process of the academic leaders as they process internally things of their past and things currently presented before them. However, these academic leaders also suggested that these academic leaders also tried to get the second opinion on these offers. Some of them and mostly female leaders talked to their families and some were consulting to their reliable friends. Emma, one of the departmental head of an engineering program shared:

> My greatest consideration is my family. My husband was very supportive as he believes that competencies will be added to the called ones. However, I was concerned with my children's education. Previously, when I was still a vice head, I was already called by the headmaster of the school of my children. My son's academic results were deteriorating. I was thinking that I can't imagine what will happen to my son's academic results if I decided to be an academic leader. Eventually, I said yes, because my spouse promised me to fully support my decision (G25, Emma).

The evidence above suggest that 'pergumulan' is a spiritual process which for Winston (2002) involves the servant leader's spiritual dialogue with a Divine or Transcendental being who these leaders have believed to have called them to be a servant leader. Furthermore, 'pergumulan' is also evident to be a process of self-dialogue as servant leaders weigh in whether they are capable to carry the responsibility of a leadership position. This self-dialogue is an important process of servant leaders who according to scholars need to listen to their own inner voice (Greenleaf, 1977; Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Lastly, this research through its data gathering also confirmed that 'pergumulan' is an intrapersonal process, which involves rational dialogues servant leaders do with their family and friends. This confirms what Page and Wong's (2000) called as relational process of servant leaders. These three characteristics of 'pergumulan' have been indicated as the ones that eventually confirmed the lecturers of the case campus to be academic leaders who have to serve their colleagues and students.

9.6 Pergumulan as the Sustainer of Servant Leadership

Every servant leader has his or her personal plan and this does not necessarily mean that the servant leader is selfish in doing so. In this research, servant leaders of the case campus should improve themselves and this professional improvement is part of their identity as a scholar. An academic leader who leads a social science program shares her story:

> It is really tough to be an academic leader. You must manage your program, dealing with its main issue, which in my case is the low student intake. On top of these managerial and marketing issues, an academic leader still has to manage his or academic qualification. A colleague of mine who works in Singapore told me that academics in Singapore should choose between academic track or managerial track. In Indonesia, every lecturer including an academic leader has to improve his or her qualification. They have to be good at both academic and administrative roles of them. This is really a tough struggle for an academician. I have to think about every aspect of my department and also the triad roles of my profession (G9, Heather).

These personal aspirations to be excellence scholars are not selfish at all since the servant leaders' excellence is needed by the organizations where they serve. One of the presidential leaders confirms this from his following statement:

> Every academic leader also has to pursue his or her academic qualification. This is not just for his or her own financial rewards but also for his and her organizational performance. Every lecturer should research and publish his expertise. It is not easy, but it is like a double benefit if you may call it. When they are advancing their career, the reputation of their campus will be lifted as well. This is really a 'pergumulan' for every academic leader. They should be wise in managing their time and able to utilize their resources to develop their followers as well as their own academic credentials (G2, Dan).

In practice, some interviewees also mentioned that pursuing excellence should also be genuinely done. A lecturer who pursues for a progression on his or her professional qualification should not only achieve what is required by the standard. This research finds that an advancement of professional qualification does not always reflect the progress a lecturer should achieve in his or her basic function of teaching. Demi, one of the departmental leaders stated in her following statement:

> As an academic leader, I have to ensure that the research of the lecturers is relevant to their students learning. I got the sense that quite many lecturers do research solely for their own 'on-paper advancement' which has nothing to do with their other function like teaching. In other words, research that should be the root of teaching was not there. I should evaluate my colleague's scholarly activities and to justify my evaluation, I also must have academic activities that are of quality. Besides improving my own qualification, I also must ensure that when I criticize the research of my colleagues, I did it with my integrity and not out of like and dislike (G26, Demi).

'Pergumulan' in servant leadership in the context of higher education involves a clear motivation of the academic servant leaders on their professional advancement. They should excel in their scholarly requirements, but they do so to achieve a higher academic rank so that these leaders could better their service. Most of the academic servant leaders mentioned that it is almost impossible to increase their professional qualification while leading or administering their academic unit. One of the issues is about seniority. Dayton who leads an engineering program shared his struggle in the following statement:

> I have heard complaints from the students on the performance of my senior lecturers. There was a time when I should be in the middle between a student and a lecturer who just had a dispute. The root of the problem is on the lecturer's lack of transparency in relation to the mark of the student. The student was not happy with his mark and has failed to meet the lecturer to question it. Apparently, the lecturer did not keep the student's paper work very well and fail to provide a proper feedback. I must try my best to resolve the case without offending the senior lecturer. There are many cases related to the attitude of the seniors that I can't handle. This is one of my 'pergumulan' and honestly I can only pray for these seniors hoping that God will tell them that they need to change (G24, Dayton).

The previous evidence enables the researcher to confirm that pergumulan also happens when the academic leaders were enacting their leadership. They should struggle or 'bergumul' in achieving their higher qualification and this is not just for strengthening their legitimation as a leader, but it is also for improving their quality of service. This is another 'pergumulan' of servant leaders that concerns with their motivation of their personal advancement.

Despite the innate nature of the process, 'pergumulan' also involves a rational dialogue between the servant leader and his or her inner circles. These empirical dialogues are used to validate and to stimulate the practise of self-listening and internal reflection. In other words, ‘pergumulan’ involves a reiterative process of internal reflection which includes transcendental listening, and empirical and rational conversation with the people. This research confirms that a servant leader cultivates his or her ‘natural willingness’ to serve (Greenleaf 1977, p. 7) and reminds him or herself on the values (Wheeler, 2012). This research argues that servant leadership actions might begin with a ‘pergumulan’ or spiritual struggle within the servant leader him or herself. This sense of spiritual struggle starts from the moment the servant leader contemplated his or her decision to take the leadership position and continues as the servant leader engages in meeting and serving his or her followers.

Lastly, ‘pergumulan’ also happens when servant leaders should deal with their followers. Servant leaders should consider deeply when they should reprimand or confront their followers. They should ensure that when they confront or rebuke their followers is really for the goodness of the followers. After all, the main tenet of servant leadership is that every servant leader should meet the needs and not the wants of his or her follower (Mayer, Bardes, & Piccolo, 2008).

9.7 Conclusion and Recommendation

This research claims that servant leaders have to go through a process that in Indonesian is called ‘pergumulan’. Servant leaders go through this process as they have a spiritual dialogue based on their conviction. Scholars of servant leadership suggest that servant leaders may have different convictions on their fundamental reasons for being a servant. Some servant leaders might use humanity or values as their fundamental reasons and some like in the academic leaders of the case campus confess that a Transcendental Being, which these leaders know as Lord Jesus is their fundamental reason for them to be a servant.

This research also confirms that ‘pergumulan’ to be sure that they were called by the Divine being involves both intrapersonal and interpersonal process. The former means that the servant leaders weigh their own capability and the latter means that these leaders have rational dialogues with their closed ones. The spiritual, intrapersonal, and interpersonal aspects of the pergumulan encourage them to say yes as they were offered by their superior to be an academic leader. Pergumulan is not only happened in the life of servant leaders prior to their leadership journey.

This research confirms that ‘pergumulan’ happens as these leaders enact their servant leadership. The ‘pergumulan’ is related to the way and the motive of their effort in advancing their qualification. Servant leaders sacrifice in the sense that they serve their followers without neglecting their own qualifications. Furthermore, servant leaders advance their qualification with the motive of service; so that they can serve better. Lastly, ‘pergumulan’ is also needed by the servant leaders as they must rebuke or confront their followers. They should do so with a pure motive that they are meeting the needs of their followers.

Besides clarifying the internal thought-process of servant leaders, this result is useful for institutions, especially the ones in the sector of higher education. Colleagues and universities need to develop leadership development programs based on their understanding of the 'pergumulan' of their potential future leaders. Understanding the anxieties and aspiration of these future leaders will enable the HEIs to create leadership training programs that understand and meet their needs. This kind of leadership training is inherently practicing the tenet of servant leadership.

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