Servant Leadership in a Large South African Business Organization

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Abstract

This report discusses a research project undertaken to investigate servant leadership and examine the extent to which its associated behaviours are implemented within two departments of a large South African petrochemical company, and how the mean scores for respondent’s perceptions on the degree to which their direct supervisors practice servant leadership behaviours correlate with perceptions of interpersonal trust and passive management-by-exception. Based on the results of extensive research conducted on servant leadership over the past 40 years, it is clear that this leadership philosophy has a strong grounding in ethics, with its value placed upon people based on their inherent humanity and beyond their utilitarian worth to businesses in meeting their objectives. The author hypothesizes that one of the departments investigated (SSSS) does experience a high prevalence of servant leadership behaviours, based on the high levels of employee engagement prevalent within this department according to a recent survey, and that the other department (GSS) does not experience a high prevalence of servant leader behaviours. Both departments were found to have a moderate level of servant leader behaviours, but neither was found to be servant led. The author also investigates the possible relationship between servant leadership and interpersonal trust (as measured by Nyhan and Marlowe’s OTI) and servant leadership (SL) and passive management-by-exception (MBEP) (as measured by Avolio and Bass’s MLQ). The author uses Sendjaya et al.’s SLBS to measure servant leadership. A moderate negative relationship was found between SL and MBEP and a moderately strong positive relationship between SL and interpersonal trust.
Acknowledgements

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Chapter 1: Orientation

1 Introduction and importance of the study

The modern large business enterprise is a complex, dynamic and adaptive socio-technical system consisting of many interacting and mutually dependent sub-systems and teams of people. Many factors contribute towards the success of a business. These include the attractiveness of the market the business is in, the sustainability and uniqueness of its resources and capabilities and the productivity, creativity and innovative spirit of its people.

The quality of its people is arguably a very important, if not the most important factor, that determines business success. Again, many factors contribute towards the effectiveness of the workforce. Of these factors, Yukl (2006) and Hughes et al., (2006) quote several studies have shown that effective leadership plays an especially important role. Besides improving the productivity and creativity of their people, effective leaders play a role in shaping the purpose, vision, mission, values and organizational structure of a business, each of which has an influence on its performance.

Various recent events point to a possible crisis of leadership, not only in businesses, but also in other private and public sector organizations. High profile corporate failures (such as Enron and Arthur Andersen), violence and crime in society, corruption by those in power, price fixing scandals, strikes, riots and injustices committed to others all beg the question: Are those that are in leadership positions effective and are they capable of realizing peace in society and the sustainable success of businesses? Could leadership failures have made a contribution to some of these problems? If so, if the way people have led in the recent past has resulted in such high profile failures and problems, might there be an alternative way of leading that promotes greater harmony and peace in society and the long term success of businesses? An answer to these questions seems to be urgent if we are to build a future for ourselves. This study attempts to investigate these questions in a business context. Specific research questions are discussed later.
The way a leader leads is dependent to a large extent on what his views are on the purpose of businesses. There are many views on the purpose of business organizations, but one view in particular that has gained prominence in recent times is that businesses exist to serve their stakeholders. Warren Bennis states (Bennis, 2004:xii):

“It is so easy for an organization to get completely consumed with the bottom line; with pleasing only the financial stakeholder, not the community, not the workers, not the entire cartography of people whose lives are affected by that organization….We’re there primarily to serve the people who have a connection to and are affected by the institution. It is very easy to forget that.”

More specifically, this entails understanding the needs of all stakeholders, balancing them and fulfilling them to the greatest extent possible. Here, “needs” refers to all levels of needs contained in Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (Hughes et al., 2006) and stakeholders include shareholders, customers, employees, managers, suppliers and the surrounding community. The underlying basis for the stakeholder service view of business is that the long term sustainability of business can only be ensured if all stakeholder’s needs are met.

Spears (2004:161) quotes the words of T Kiuchi a CEO of a Fortune 500 company on the purpose of business:

“Conventional wisdom is that the highest mission of a corporation is to maximize profits. Maximize return to shareholders. This is a myth. It has never been true…..Profits are not an end. They are a means to an end….Our business has a meaning and a purpose – a reason to be here….The whole essence of business should be social responsibility. It must live for a purpose. Otherwise, why should we live at all?”

Kiuchi’s views quoted above on the purpose of business seem compatible with the stakeholder service view, if society is considered a stakeholder of business.
James Autry, one-time CEO of a Fortune 500 company and respected author on the topic of leadership said “That’s not the real work, making profits. This is one of the great distortions in American business life. The real work is not making profits; making profits is the result of the real work” (Autry, 2004).

An analogy would be useful to illustrate that the eye should be on the process, not the outcome. A sportsman’s focus should always be on playing the game well. Victory is the result of playing well. If a tennis player has his eye on the scoreboard and loses focus on playing the ball well over a long period of time, he could lose the game.

The proposition of this research study is that the primary purpose of business is to serve its stakeholders. If this is the case, what are the implications for leaders and the process of leadership in businesses? It follows logically that leaders themselves probably need to adopt an attitude of service to others. An attitude only of self-service amongst leaders would weaken the ability of the organization to serve its stakeholders better, since such an attitude encourages leaders to make decisions based only on what is best for themselves, and not necessarily for their subordinates, customers and other stakeholders. Poor service to stakeholders leads in the long run to diminished performance of the business. The attitude of service needs to be combined with the activity of leading, which is discussed in greater detail later. In short business leaders need to serve and to lead. This is what servant leadership is all about.

This study focuses on servant leadership in business organizations, a leadership philosophy that is rooted in morality and ethics and which offers an alternative leadership approach that addresses the questions raised at the beginning of this section. The philosophical basis of servant leadership has been in existence for thousands of years in all cultures and religions (Sendjaya and Sarros, 2002); however the concept of servant leadership in businesses has only gained in prominence in the last thirty years or so.

Having been part of a successful transition to democracy, South African organizations need to consider carefully whether past leadership paradigms and approaches are suited to the modern South African business environment.
characterized by diversity, increase exposure to global forces, rapid technological development, a high rate of change and socio-economic challenges such as crime and HIV AIDS.

It is doubtful whether the complex, challenging and changing environment facing modern businesses is suited to hierarchical and autocratic models of leadership, where the leader decides and followers simply execute. One of the world’s most respected authorities in personal transformation, Steven Covey, emphasizes a leadership approach characterized by moral authority, humility, service and sacrifice (Covey, 2006) in order to foster trust and respect, the critical foundations of teamwork. He puts forward Nelson Mandela, as an example of such a leadership approach, called servant leadership, and offers servant leadership as an appropriate model for today.

This study investigates the servant leadership theory and evaluates the extent to which servant leadership is prevalent in a large publicly-listed company in South Africa, based on an opinion survey of employees of the organization, and investigates whether perceptions of servant leadership correlate with perceptions of organizational trust. The study builds upon extensive research conducted on servant leadership in the American context.

2 Statement of the problem and sub-problems

2.1 Main problem

This study will investigate what servant leadership is, how the characteristics (traits, skills and behaviours) of servant leaders compare with those of effective leaders identified in the literature to date, and review the results of research conducted to date on whether servant leadership correlates with desirable leadership outcomes such as increased employee trust, job satisfaction, motivation and commitment. The study will then investigate the extent to which servant leadership exists in two divisions of a large South African publicly-listed company and whether higher levels of perceived servant leadership correlate with higher levels of interpersonal trust and with the Passive Management by Exception leadership style (Avolio and Bass, 2008).
2.2 **Sub-problems**

The following sub-problems are identified:

Sub-problem 1: Define leadership and identify the traits, skills and behaviours of effective leaders that have been identified in the literature to date.

Sub-problem 2: Define servant leadership, identify the typical traits, skills and behaviours of Servant Leaders, and compare these to research findings obtained over the years.

Sub-problem 3: Review the latest empirical research to assess the impact of Servant Leadership traits and behaviours on employee motivation to perform work, satisfaction, trust and perceptions of organizational effectiveness.

Sub-problem 4: Conduct a survey on a random sample of employees of two procurement and supply management divisions of Sasol to assess the current extent of servant leader behaviours within the division.

Sub-problem 5: Investigate whether respondents’ perceptions of servant leadership correlate with their perceived levels of interpersonal trust.

Sub-problem 6: Investigate whether respondents’ perceptions of servant leadership correlate with Passive Management by Exception.

3 **Definitions**

**Servant Leadership:**

“As we near the end of the twentieth century, we are beginning to see that traditional autocratic and hierarchical modes of leadership are slowly yielding to a newer model – one that attempts to simultaneously enhance the personal growth of workers and improve the quality and caring of our many institutions through a combination of
teamwork and community, personal involvement in decision making, and ethical and caring behavior. This emerging approach to leadership and service is called servant-leadership." (Spears, 2007)

Trust: Willingness to ascribe good intentions to and have confidence in the words and actions of other people (Cook & Wall, 1980).

Passive Management by Exception: This is a type of leadership, where the leader passively waits for followers to make mistakes, then acts. No active monitoring of the follower occurs, where the leader checks for mistakes (Avolio and Bass, 2008).

4 Assumptions

The following assumptions apply to the proposed research problem:

- Leadership is an important process in organizations and has a major impact upon the performance of the organization.
- Higher levels of employee trust, satisfaction, motivation and commitment lead to improvements in objective measures of organizational performance such as financial results and customer satisfaction.

5 Delimitation of the study

This study does not include the following investigations:

- How to develop servant leaders.
- Whether servant leadership is more effective than other leadership theories such as transformational leadership, spiritual leadership or transactional leadership.
- Within which situations servant leadership may be more appropriate than others.

The study focuses only on two divisions of the Sasol group of companies and does not assess the preferences for Servant Leadership in other South African companies.
6 Outline of the research report

Chapter 1 contextualizes the problem of effective business leadership and describes the research problems sub-problems, assumptions and delimitations of this research project.

The theoretical background to business leadership is then discussed in general terms in chapter 2, followed by a discussion of three different servant leadership theories: Greenleaf’s, Blanchard and Hodges’ and Chibber’s. The research context is then discussed, firstly the general South African context, then the research context within Sasol.

Chapter 3 discusses the findings of research conducted in the field of servant leadership to date, specifically addressing sub-problems 1 to 3.

Chapter 4 then discusses the research methodology adopted in this study, including the hypotheses tested, measurement instruments used and data analysis techniques applied.

Chapter 5 presents the results obtained as part of the quantitative survey conducted, and chapter 6 discusses these results. Chapter 6 concludes with recommendations for further research.
Chapter 2: Foundation of the study

The following sections provide an overview of theory that has been developed as part of research on the subject of leadership, as summarized in the works of Yukl (2006) and Hughes, et al., (2006). The intent is not to provide a comprehensive analysis of the theories that have been presented so far, or research that has been conducted, but to provide a context for the discussions on servant leadership that follow, and to provide a basis for comparing and contrasting common leadership approaches and principles with those of servant leadership.

1 Leadership in General

1.1 The study of leadership

As a discipline, leadership has only received theoretical attention in the twentieth century (Yukl, 2006) although the subject of leadership has fascinated people for centuries. The main focus of studies on leadership has been on the determinants of leadership effectiveness, specifically what leader traits, skills, behaviours, sources of power, or aspects of the situation determine how well a leader is able to define and accomplish the mission of the organization.

1.2 Definitions of leadership

Nearly sixty years of research on the subject of leadership has still not resulted in consensus on the definitions of leadership, the nature of leadership and the determinants of leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 2006). Despite this, many useful insights have been gained over the years about leadership. There is also broad consensus among researchers that “leadership is a real phenomenon that is important for the effectiveness of organizations” (Yukl, 2006:3).

After reviewing various definitions of leadership presented in the literature, Yukl (2006) defines leadership as follows: “Leadership is the process of influencing others
to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives.” (Yukl, 2006: 9). This is a general definition that does not seek to limit the definition of leadership according to the purpose of the influence attempt, whether direct or indirect influence attempts are used, the use of reason or emotion, or any other such distinction. The value of Yukl’s definition lies in its generality and the possibility for it to be operationalized for research in a variety of ways.

Hughes, et al., (2006) define leadership as “the process of influencing others towards achieving group goals.” (Hughes, et al., 2006: 19).

Yukl’s (2006) definition is broader; however both definitions share the common aspect of influencing others to attain goals.

1.3 Leadership models

Conceptual frameworks assist greatly in understanding the leadership process. Hughes, et al., (2006) offer the conceptual framework given in figure 2.1 for understanding leadership. This framework consists of three elements: leader, follower and the situation, shown as overlapping circles. While each circle can be used to understand a particular leadership scenario, an improved understanding is obtained if the interactions amongst the elements, represented by overlapping areas, are also considered.
Overlapping areas represent interactions between the three elements. For example the overlapping area between the leader and situation includes the ways in which the leader affects the situation (by for example, changing the organization structure or organizational culture), or how the situation can constrain or facilitate the leader’s actions.

Yukl (2006) presents a sequence of causal relationships among the primary types of leadership processes, given in Figure 2.2. The frameworks given in figures 2.1 and 2.2 correspond closely with each other. The “leader traits and skills” and “leader behaviour” blocks fit into the “Leader” circle of figure 2.1. In figure 2.2, performance outcomes are shown to be only the result of follower attitudes and behaviours. These in turn are influenced by various situational factors and the influence processes used by leaders. In turn, the leaders influence processes are affected by the attitudes and behaviours of followers. Other interactions can be similarly interpreted from the figure.
Figure 2.2: Causal relationships among the primary types of leadership processes (Yukl, 2006:13)

Figure 2.2 is however a somewhat simplified framework which misses certain key interactions and influences. Later in the book, Yukl (2006) offers a more holistic conceptual framework that provides a better perspective of the leadership process and its interaction with other processes. This integrating conceptual framework is given in figure 2.3 and offers a useful basis for understanding the leadership process.
Figure 2.3: An integrating conceptual framework for the leadership process (Yukl, 2006: 447)

The success criteria circle in the model given in figure 2.3 encompasses three levels of success: individual success, group success and organizational success. The core assumption of this framework is that success as measured at these levels is determined by a core set of intervening variables. Table 2.1 shows examples of intervening variables that mediate the effect of leader behaviour on the three levels of success.
Table 2.1: Examples of intervening variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of success</th>
<th>Typical intervening variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual performance</td>
<td>Follower motivation, skills, role clarity, self-efficacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group performance</td>
<td>Cooperation and mutual trust, coordination, collective efficacy, collective identification</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational performance</td>
<td>Process efficiency, human and social capital, collective learning, product and process innovation, relevant competitive strategies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These intervening variables in turn, both are determined by, and influence, leader behaviour, depicted as two arrows between the two circles. The arrows between the “situational variables” and “leader behaviour” circles represent the interactions between these two concepts. Over time, leaders can influence situational variables such as the company culture, structure and strategy. The arrow from situational variables to leader behaviour represents the fact that situational variables can both act as substitutes for leadership, e.g. for tasks that are repetitive and which give immediate and direct performance feedback, and can also make the leader’s task easier (Yukl, 2006:446).

1.4 Effective leadership behaviours

Extensive research has been conducted on how effective leaders behave. Some of the results of this research are discussed in this section. While early research efforts on leadership identified two categories of leader behaviours, task or relations, a third category has recently been identified: change-oriented behaviours. A three-dimensional space defined by three axes measuring the extent to which a specific behaviour is task-, relations- or change-oriented may then be conceptualized as shown in Figure 2.4 for mapping different leadership behaviours.
This section briefly discusses each category of behaviour.

### 1.4.1 Task- and relations-oriented behaviours

Yukl (2006) describes the famous Michigan State University studies which identified three categories of leader behaviour: **task-oriented** behaviours, **relations-oriented** behaviours and **participative leadership**. Some examples of task-related behaviours include: organization of work, short-term planning of operations, setting goals and objectives for task performance, allocating work to followers, directing and coordination work and performance. Examples of relations-oriented behaviours include: providing support and encouragement to followers engaged in difficult tasks, building relationships, providing coaching and mentoring, consulting with subordinates and keeping followers informed.

According to the Michigan State studies, effective leaders focused to a greater extent than ineffective leaders on task-related behaviours such as **planning, scheduling, goal setting** and providing **resources**. Effective leaders also showed higher levels of...
relations-oriented behaviours such as support, development and recognition. Effective leaders were also different from ineffective leaders in that they exercised more group supervision instead of supervising each subordinate individually.

1.4.2 Change-oriented behaviours

Change-oriented behaviours typically include those forming part of the field of strategic management, such as understanding the environment and finding innovative ways to benefit from environmental trends. According to Yukl (2006), leading change is among the most difficult of leadership responsibilities.

Effective leaders develop and articulate a vision that describes a better future for the organization, is attractive to followers and appeals to their values, hopes and ideals. Effective leaders involve other stakeholders in developing the vision and ensure that it is credible and attainable. It is linked to core competencies and is continuously refined and re-assessed (Yukl, 2006). Such a vision assists leaders in implementing change programmes.

1.4.3 Participative leadership

Participative leadership involves the use of various decision procedures that allow the participation of others in the decision-making process of the leader. Research has shown that effective leaders use participative leadership to good effect, depending on the situation at hand (Yukl, 2006). Participative leadership is not effective in all situations and a leader needs to exercise good judgment in choosing what type of participative leadership behaviour to use. For example, crises are usually suited more to an autocratic style, whilst the supervision of knowledge workers in an environment where decisions are complex and require detailed information in order to arrive at the correct decision are suited to a more participative approach (Yukl, 2006).

1.4.4 Delegation
Delegation refers to the sharing of power with individuals. It includes assigning additional tasks with the authority to take task-related decisions, or changing authority levels associated with tasks already carried out by the subordinate.

Research shows that effective leaders delegate in accordance with the situation, such as the level of development of subordinates, the nature of the work, the amount of authority possessed by the leader and the amount of interdependence between jobs.

1.4.5 Empowerment

Empowerment refers to the extent to which people are intrinsically motivated and have a sense of self-efficacy about the work. Effective leaders empower their people in accordance with the situation and person’s skills and traits. Some of the ways in which facilitating conditions are created for empowerment are:

- Define tasks such that they are more complex and involve continuing relationships with customers.
- Dismantling hierarchical structures and creating more decentralized organizational structures.
- Creating an organizational culture characterized by flexibility, learning and participative leadership.
- Allow people an opportunity to assess their leader’s performance.
- Allow people an opportunity to influence decisions.
- Sharing leadership responsibilities.

1.5 Power

Hughes, et al., (2006) quote House’s definition of power as “the capacity to produce effects on others” (Hughes, et al., 2006:107) and Bass’s definition as “the potential to influence others” (Hughes, et al., 2006:107).

Raven developed a taxonomy of power based upon the source of power: expert power, referent power, legitimate power, reward power and coercive power (Hughes,
et al., 2006). Yukl (2006) adds to these five, information power and ecological power. A leader's power is not only determined by his or her own attributes, but is also affected by the situation and his / her followers.

Leaders differ in their motives for the use of power and such motives are grouped into two categories: socialized power orientation and personalized power orientation. Those with a personalized power orientation want to use power for their own selfish purposes, while those with a socialized power orientation use power to achieve selfless objectives such as doing good in society or helping the organization to attain its mission. People also differ in their need for power. Research has shown that a moderate need for power has predicted the attainment of leadership positions by people.

Effective leaders use all types of power depending on the situation, characteristics of followers and the needs of the task at hand (Yukl, 2006).

1.6 Influence

In Yukl's view, “influence is the essence of leadership” (Yukl, 2006:145), as indicated in the theoretical definition of leadership given in section 2.2. When leaders try to influence their followers, there could be one of three possible outcomes: commitment, compliance or resistance. Commitment is the best possible outcome for complex tasks. Compliance describes a situation where the target executes the task or implements the decision without internally agreeing to it, or being convinced that it is the best course of action.

Based on previous research conducted by others and his own research, Yukl (2006) has identified 11 proactive influence tactics. These are: rational persuasion, apprising, ingratiation, pressure tactics, inspirational appeals, personal appeals, legitimating tactics, coalition, collaboration, exchange tactics, and consultation. Each is suited to a specific situation and must be used in specific ways to attain success. It is beyond the scope of this study to discuss each of these in detail; however the tactics that seem compatible with the servant leadership philosophy will be discussed in the sections that discuss servant leadership theories.
1.7 Managerial traits and skills

Research on the traits and skills of effective leaders has the longest history and has been the most popular focus of leadership researchers over the years. Early research attempted to identify universal traits and skills in effective leaders that would predict their emergence, effectiveness and advancement as leaders. However, Stogdill found that the importance of traits and skills are determined by the situation and that no universal traits and skills exist. There are however, certain traits and skills which have had positive correlations with leadership effectiveness measures in various studies. These are discussed later.

1.7.1 General attributes and needs

Research conducted by the Centre for Creative Leadership (CCL) quoted in (Yukl, 2006) identified traits and skills that led to the derailment of managers. These were:

1. Poor emotional stability – inability to handle pressure, prone to anger and emotional outbursts.
2. Defensiveness – they were defensive about their failures and were more likely to blame others or cover up mistakes. Lack of ability to learn and adapt to change were also factors.
3. Lack of integrity – the managers that derailed were more likely to betray trust placed in them by others or break a promise.
4. A poor balance between technical and cognitive skills – some had excellent technical skills, which made them micromanage and become arrogant. Some had technical skills in only a narrow area of expertise and they advanced too quickly to learn skills needed at higher levels.

Several traits have been identified over the years that correlated with measures of effective leadership (Yukl, 2006). These include:

1. Energy level and stress tolerance. This refers to a leader’s physical vitality and ability to deal with stressful situations. Effective leaders stay calm and focused
when they are faced with crises and stressful situations. Physical vitality is important to be able to deal with strains such as long working hours and fast-paced modern leadership positions.

2. Self-confidence. A high level of self-confidence is required before a leader can engage in constructive behaviours such as making influence attempts, taking initiative to change the status quo, set challenging objectives and act confident in a crisis.

3. Internal locus of control. Those with an internal locus of control take more responsibility for their own actions and the performance of their group. They also exhibit other constructive behaviours such as thinking ahead, planning ahead, initiative and the use of persuasion as an influence tactic, rather than coercion or manipulation.

4. Emotional stability and maturity. One with a high level of emotional stability and maturity has well-balanced emotions and has no psychological disorders. They have a number of positive attributes, including being aware of their own strengths and weaknesses, orientation towards self-improvement, being less self-centred, having greater self-control and being less defensive. These qualities help them to build and maintain cooperative relationships with subordinates, peers and superiors.

5. Personal integrity. Integrity refers to behaviour consistent with values that are espoused, honesty and regard for ethical conduct. In other words, it refers to a correspondence between a person’s actions, their words and their thoughts. Integrity is a key determinant of trust, which has been called the “glue” that holds organizations together.

6. Power motivation. A strong need to exercise power to influence people and events has been shown by research to have a strong relationship with the advancement of managers up the management hierarchy in large organizations. However, how this need is exercised is also important. Those with a personalized power orientation seek to exercise their need for power for purposes of self-aggrandizement. Those with a socialized power orientation seek to exercise power for the benefit of others. They also tend to be more emotionally stable. Effective leaders have a strong socialized power orientation (Yukl, 2006).

7. Achievement orientation. Achievement orientation includes the following interrelated attitudes, values and needs: need for achievement, desire to excel, drive to succeed, willingness to assume responsibility and concern for task
objectives. Leaders with achievement orientation display several positive
behaviours that lead to effective leadership, such as a concern for task objectives,
initiative to solve problems, taking ownership of the process to solve problems,
organizing the work, taking moderate risks and setting challenging but realistic
objectives; however an excessively high achievement orientation is dysfunctional
in that it causes leaders to attempt everything themselves, not to delegate enough
and to pursue personal objectives at the expense of the team. Effective
leadership also requires that achievement orientation be subordinated to a
socialized power orientation.

8. Need for affiliation. Although studies have found a negative correlation between
need for affiliation and leadership effectiveness, a moderately low need for
affiliation is probably required in an effective leader. This will enable him to build
relationships and develop interpersonal skills. A leader with a very low need for
affiliation will be a loner and will not be able to interact with others in an effective
manner.

1.7.2 Skills and effectiveness

Researchers have categorised managerial skills into three categories (Yukl, 2006),
technical skills, conceptual skills and interpersonal skills. Figure 2.5 shows the
relative importance of the different types of skills at the different levels of
management and leadership.
Technical skills

Technical skills include:

- knowledge about methods, processes, procedures and techniques for conducting the task,
- factual knowledge about the organization,
- knowledge about the organization’s products, processes and services, and
- knowledge of products and services provided by competitors.

These skills enable leaders to plan and organize the work, guide subordinates, monitor their performance, improve the organization’s systems and processes and improve the organization’s competitive position. Research has shown that, especially at the lower management levels, good technical skills have enabled leaders to advance in their careers; however, technical skills become less important at higher levels of management.

Conceptual skills
The terms cognitive and conceptual skills are both used to refer to the same set of skills. Conceptual skills include (Yukl, 2006):

- big picture thinking,
- good judgment,
- foresight,
- intuition,
- creativity,
- ability to find meaning and order,
- analytical ability,
- logical thinking,
- concept formation,
- inductive reasoning, and
- deductive reasoning

The term cognitive complexity has been used to refer to combinations of these skills that enable leaders to see differences and categorize things, and be able to understand complex interrelationships and solve problems creatively. Cognitive skills are an essential component in the repertoire of skills of effective leaders, especially at higher levels.

**Interpersonal skills**

Interpersonal skills relate to the ability to deal effectively with people, and include specific skills such as:

- empathy,
- verbal communication,
- effective listening,
- social insight,
- persuasiveness,
- tact,
- understanding of human nature, and
- knowledge of group processes
Such skills help leaders to develop effective interpersonal relationships, enhance the relations-oriented behaviours of leaders and improve the ability of leaders to influence effectively. Interpersonal skills have been found to be important regardless of the situation and are a key skill of effective leaders. Effective leaders also have the ability to self-monitor, using cues from others as feedback on their behaviours, and adjusting behaviours accordingly.

**Emotional intelligence, social intelligence, systems thinking and ability to learn**

Other competencies that have been identified as being required for effective leadership are **emotional intelligence**, **social intelligence** and **ability to learn**. Some of the specific skills within these constructs have been discussed earlier.

Emotional intelligence involves being attuned to one’s own and other’s feelings, integrating emotion and reason so that emotions can be used to facilitate cognitive processes and cognitively managing emotions. Three skills involved in emotional intelligence are **self-awareness**, **empathy** and **self-regulation**.

Social intelligence involves the ability to understand aspects of the situation, determine the requirements for leadership and select an appropriate response. It involves two skills, **social perceptiveness** and **behavioural flexibility**.

One of the skills that is of vital importance to effective leadership is Peter Senge’s “systems thinking” skill, which requires the leader to see the organization as one large interrelated system, where decisions have impacts on each element, some decisions have delayed impacts, and the components of the system interact with each other in complex ways. A leader with systems thinking ability is able to develop an accurate mental map of the organization, which includes an understanding of the interdependencies between separate groups within the organization.

The ability to learn is especially important in the turbulent, fast-changing business landscape currently prevailing. It involves “learning how to learn” (Yukl, 2006:203), which involves introspectively analyzing one’s own cognitive processes and
modifying them as required. Also included is self-awareness, the ability to understand one's strengths and weaknesses.

1.8 Leadership in different cultural contexts

An issue that has attracted a significant amount of research attention in the recent past is that of leadership in a multi-cultural context. This topic has become more relevant due to the rapid spread of globalization to more and more businesses.

The GLOBE project (House, et al., 2001) is a study that was conducted during the 1990s in order to investigate the relationships between national culture, organizational culture and organizational leadership.

Hughes et al. (2006:153) present the results of the GLOBE project on leader attributes and behaviours universally viewed as positive. These are:

| Trustworthy | Positive | Intelligent |
| Just | Dynamic | Decisive |
| Honest | Motive arouser | Effective bargainer |
| Foresighted | Confidence builder | Win-win problem solver |
| Plans ahead | Motivational | Administratively skilled |
| Encouraging | Dependable | Communicative |
| Informed | Coordinator | Team-builder |
| Excellence oriented |

Attributes and behaviours universally recognized as negative include:

| Loner | Nonexplicit |
| Asocial | Egocentric |
| Noncooperative | Ruthless |
| Irritable | Dictatorial |

The following attributes and behaviours were culturally contingent:
Ambitious  Logical
Cautious     Orderly
Compassionate  Sincere
Domineering  Worldly
Independent  Formal
Individualistic  Sensitive

2 Servant leadership

Servant leadership theories deal mainly with the following questions: (1) What are the key traits and skills of servant leaders? (2) What are behaviours of servant leaders? and (3) How do servant leaders influence their followers?

The main emphasis in servant leadership theories is on what effective leaders ARE within (their values, beliefs, motives, assumptions, traits and skills), rather than on how they ACT (Frick, 1998).

One of the original proponents of the philosophy of servant leadership, Robert Greenleaf, was once asked by a student “What do I do?” He responded “That comes later. First, what do you want to be?” (Frick, 1998:354). The message here is that an attitude of servant leadership is primarily determined by what is inside the leader (his values, beliefs, assumptions, traits and skills). It will not be possible for leaders to display servant leader behaviours in a convincing manner unless they are servant leaders by nature. Acting in a manner different to one’s inner nature is bound to weaken the trust of colleagues, subordinates and superiors in oneself. This trait of the servant leader corresponds with Personal Integrity, one of the traits of effective leaders discussed in section 1.8. It also corresponds with the universally accepted attributes, Trustworthy, Honest and Dependable, identified by the GLOBE project and listed in section 1.9.

The importance of a leader’s internal makeup is also reflected in the words of Atwater and Yammarino quoted by Nkomo and Kriek (2004): “We not only need to know what the leader does but also who he or she is.” Nkomo and Kriek (2004) also state that there are increasing calls for leaders to look within.
The following sections discuss three different theories of leadership that share many similarities and can be broadly be described as conforming to the philosophy of servant leadership. The first two theories are both called “servant leadership” by their proponents, while the third does not carry the servant leadership label but has many similarities to the first two.

2.1 Greenleaf’s theory

2.1.1 The underlying basis for servant leadership

Robert K Greenleaf coined the term “servant leadership” in an essay he published in 1970 titled “The Servant as Leader” (Greenleaf, 1998a). Greenleaf drew inspiration for his ideas on leadership from many sources. He held the following fundamental belief (Greenleaf, 1998a:17) that shaped his ideas on servant leadership:

“I believe that caring for persons, the more able and the less able serving each other, is what makes a good society. Most caring was once person to person. Now much of it is mediated through institutions — often larger, powerful, impersonal; not always competent; sometimes corrupt. If a better society is to be built, one more just and more caring and providing opportunity for people to grow, the most effective and economical way while supportive of the social order, is to raise the performance as servant of as many institutions as possible by new voluntary regenerative forces initiated within them by committed individuals: servants”.

Although his ideas on leadership were inspired from several sources, he conceptualized the philosophy of servant leadership after reading a story written by Herman Hesse called Journey to the East (Greenleaf, 1998a). The story by Herman Hesse described a mythical journey and the central figure in the story was Leo, who accompanied the party as servant, doing all the menial chores. Leo sustained the rest of the party with his spirit and song, until he disappeared. On his disappearance, the journey fell into disarray. The narrator, one of the party, finds Leo many years
later and discovered that he was the Head of the Order that sponsored the journey. This story conveyed to Greenleaf the message that a good leader is first and foremost a servant who helps and supports the members of his team in the pursuit of their mission. He says, “this story clearly says that the great leader is seen as servant first, and that this simple fact is the key to his greatness” (Greenleaf, 1998a:2).

Greenleaf saw a crisis of leadership in the organizations of his time. He saw organizations that were slavishly adhering to rigid hierarchical structures (Greenleaf, 1998b) that were destroying the values of leaders that emerged. Such organizations were prone to manipulating and using their people, due mainly to the fact that their leaders were uncaring and given to the abuse of power. The manipulative and exploitative and “means to an end” way of thinking about people went totally against Greenleaf’s humanitarian and caring outlook.

The philosophy of servant leadership is rooted in the principle that human beings have and inherent worth beyond their utilitarian value in businesses. Shann Ferch states (Ferch, 2004:226):

“The idea of the leader as servant is rooted in the far-reaching ideal that people have inherent worth, a dignity not only to be strived for, but beneath this striving a dignity irrevocably connected to the reality of being human. Philosophically, if one believes in the dignity of the person, the ideas of servant-leadership and the experience of leading or being led from a servant perspective not only make sense, they contain the elegance, precision and will-power necessary for human development.”

### 2.1.2 Definition of leadership

Greenleaf (Greenleaf, 1998c) distinguished between management, administration and leading. To him management and administration connote control and maintenance functions. Although important, they are concerned mainly with conservation and preservation. His view was that management and administration
derive from delegated authority from trustees such as boards of directors of public companies.

To Greenleaf, leading means “going out ahead and showing the way” (Greenleaf, 1998c:191) and “can be undertaken by anybody”. It does not derive from delegated authorities from trustees. Leadership involves the “ability to set and articulate goals and reach them through the efforts of other people and the ability to satisfy the people whose judgment must be respected even under stress” (Greenleaf, 1996a:295).

The only test of leadership is that somebody follows. To Greenleaf, there is a distinction between following and compliance, in that following is voluntary. “Strong leadership can bring unity and clarity of purpose and uncertain leadership can bring disorder and chaos” (Greenleaf, 1998c:191). Although he sees management, administration and leading as distinct processes, he does agree that those who manage and administer can also lead (Greenleaf, 1998c). His view is that leadership is a process that involves venturing and risk taking since it involves going out ahead and showing the way, and the way ahead may not be clear.

Don Frick (Frick, No date) summarizes Greenleaf’s own words to add further perspectives on Greenleaf’s definition of leadership, stating as follows (words in quotation marks are Greenleaf’s own):

The leader is open to inspiration, but “the leader needs more than inspiration... He initiates, provides the ideas and the structure, and takes the risk of failure along with the chance of success.” The leader always knows the goal and “can articulate it for any who are unsure. By clearly stating and restating the goal the leader gives certainty and purpose to others who may have difficulty in achieving it for themselves....The word goal is used here in the special sense of the overarching purpose, the big dream, the visionary concept, the ultimate consummation which one approaches but never really achieves.”
2.1.3 Definition of servant leadership

Greenleaf defines servant leadership in terms of the motive of the servant leader as follows (Frick, No date):

The servant-leader is servant first . . . It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. That person is sharply different from one who is leader first, perhaps because of the need to assuage an unusual power drive or to acquire material possessions. For such it will be a later choice to serve—after leadership is established. The leader-first and the servant-first are two extreme types. Between them there are shadings and blends that are part of the infinite variety of human nature. . . The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant-first to make sure that other people’s highest priority needs are being served.

According to Frick (Frick, No date), Greenleaf’s servant leadership is not confined to a specific arena, but is applicable to any situation (the home, business, voluntary organizations, etc.). In addition, “servant leadership turns leadership into a territory, a field of action in which various people can operate depending upon their individual abilities and capacities to serve the mission of the enterprise and the people who make it all happen.” (Frick, No date:1). This parallels the notion of shared leadership discussed in section 1.

DeGraaf, et al. quote Larry Spears, CEO of the Greenleaf Centre, definition of servant leadership as follows (DeGraaf, et al., 2004:133):

“Servant-leadership is an approach that attempts to simultaneously enhance the personal growth of workers and improve the quality and caring of our many institutions through a combination of teamwork and community, personal involvement in decision-making, and ethical and caring behaviour.”

In summary, Greenleaf defines leadership as going out and showing the way, stating and explaining the goals of the organization, venturing and risk taking. Servant leaders focus on meeting the higher order needs of their followers and others while
leading, and are motivated by a need to serve. Leading is seen as an act of service, and they are not motivated to lead for personal gain.

2.1.4 Leadership effectiveness

As discussed above, Greenleaf’s definition of leadership effectiveness relates to the extent to which servant leaders are able to meet the development needs of those served, the effects upon the least privileged in society and the extent to which injury is caused to others. The test is: “do those served grow as persons; do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society; will he benefit, or, at least, will he not be further deprived? I would now add one further stipulation: No one will knowingly be hurt by the action, directly or indirectly.” (Greenleaf, 1998a:43). While conventional leadership theories recognize that the growth and development of people is important for organizational success, they view this as an intermediate step in attaining the real outcome for the organization of improved performance. This is sharply different to Greenleaf’s view.

The above definition is challenging and very universal. It goes way beyond the degree to which the leader’s unit is able to meet objective measures of performance such as profitability or return on investment and includes the effects of a leader’s actions on members of society. Non-injury is a universally valued human value and is not often taken into account in management decision-making. Neither is the effect upon those least privileged in society.

According to Greenleaf (Greenleaf, 1998a), successful businesses put their people first and their financial success is a result of its people voluntarily striving to meet the objectives of the organization with commitment and motivation. These are attained by following a servant leadership philosophy.

According to J.P. Shannon (Shannon, 1998), management consultants, when analyzing corporate strengths and weaknesses focus on resources and stakeholders other than employees. Greenleaf opted to focus his analyses on employees. In his
view, if employees received the care, training and attention they deserve, shareholder and customer satisfaction would inevitably follow (Shannon, 1998).

Effective leadership also relates to the extent to which an organization is unified by a great dream, an idea that inspires and unifies (Greenleaf, 1998b). Effective leadership entails the leader serving, and being seen as serving, the dream and searching for a better one. Effective leaders are open to persuasion by those in the organization who dream the greatest dreams. They also communicate faith in the dream in order to enlist the dedicated support needed to move people towards accomplishment of the organization’s mission.

In summary, effective leadership, as viewed by Greenleaf, occurs when leaders have a genuine interest and affection for their followers, develop and meet the higher order needs of those served, have a positive impact upon the least privileged in society, cause no harm, put people before financial success or selfishness, ensure that the organization has a great dream that unifies it, communicate faith in the dream and constantly search for ways in which the dream can be improved.

2.1.5 Servant leadership traits, skills and behaviours

Servant leader traits, skills and behaviours have been identified by many writers, including Greenleaf himself and Larry Spears, CEO of the Greenleaf Centre for Servant-Leadership. This section discusses those listed by Greenleaf and Spears in different works, as reference below, as they seem to be the most widely accepted, and those identified by Spears are determined from careful studies he conducted on Greenleaf’s writings.

Greenleaf states that the following are essential abilities required to lead – values, goals, competence and spirit (Greenleaf, 1996a).

Values
A leader’s values determine what he seeks and how he behaves. As effective as they were as leaders, the values of Adolf Hitler and Al Capone made them leaders that brought great misery and suffering to many people. Servant leaders are characterized by the values of **honesty, love** and **responsibility** (Greenleaf, 1996b). Responsibility means acting in such a manner that people’s lives are moved towards greater nobility (Greenleaf, 1996b).

**Goals**

Greenleaf noted that the effective leader always has a goal (Greenleaf, 1996b). It may change from time to time, but the leader always knows what it is. Here “goal” refers to “the big dream, the overarching purpose, the visionary concept, the ultimate achievement that one approaches but never achieves” (Greenleaf, 1996b:299-300).

**Listening**

Listening is not an act that comes easily, especially to senior managers and leaders. It requires a humble attitude and recognition that the other person has something of value to share. Appreciation for listening also stems from a feeling that the other person’s feelings and ideas are important and deserve attention. Greenleaf states that effective listeners “learn about people in ways that modify, first the listener’s attitude, then his behaviour toward others, and finally the attitudes and behaviours of others” (Greenleaf, 1996b:303).

According to DeGraaf, *et al.* (DeGraaf, *et al.*, 2004), leaders should not only listen to what others are saying but also to their own inner voices or consciences. Effective listening involves not only hearing and understanding the words of the speaker, but also looking for nonverbal cues such as body language. Positive body language from the leader encourages the speaker to open up, but the leader needs to keep focused on what is being communicated in order to listen effectively.

**Language as a leadership strategy**
Servant leaders use language to articulate the goal or dream (Greenleaf, 1996b). Effective use of language to communicate means that the leader must first estimate the listener’s level of experience, because meaning only becomes apparent to the listener when he connects through his own imaginative ability, what is being said, to his own experiences (Greenleaf, 1996b). Effective use of language first requires that we listen. We should only say as much as will get the listener to the point of making the connection between the message and his experience. Saying too much causes the listener to switch off.

**Personal growth**

This involves growth in the leader’s understanding and personality to keep up with changes in the internal and external environment. It includes adapting one’s leadership style to external changes (Greenleaf, 1996b).

**Withdrawal**

Leadership can be filled with pressure and the challenges of leadership can lead to stress. Greenleaf (Greenleaf, 1996b) advises that leaders withdraw, cast off the burden for a while and relax, in order to defend themselves against psychological breakdown or burnout. The art of withdrawal also includes taking actions at the optimum pace, neither too fast, nor too slow. The optimum pace is that which gives one the best performance over a life time, and leaves the leader with a reserve of energy so that he can tackle emergencies when they occur.

**Tolerance of imperfection**

People are all imperfect. A leader needs to be tolerant of this and be accepting of his followers, and believe that even imperfect people are capable of great dedication and heroism (Greenleaf, 1996b).
Being your own person

This implies being authentic and true to one's own inner being. Trying to be someone you are not is bound to lead to failure. Eventually, followers catch the leader out and lose trust in the leader that puts up a façade or displays duplicity (Greenleaf, 1996b).

Acceptance

No follower should be rejected. The leader needs to create a comfortable environment similar to that prevailing in the home, where all can feel welcome and unconditionally accepted (Greenleaf, 1996b).

Foresight and Intuition

Foresight is one of the most important qualities of the servant leader (Greenleaf, 1996c). It refers to the ability to know with some degree of certainty what will happen in the future and when (Greenleaf, 1996e).

Greenleaf described foresight in these terms: “Foresight is a wholly rational process, the product of a constantly running computer that is regarding the events of this instant and comparing them with a series of projections made in the past, which are in turn being projected into the indefinite future, with diminishing certainty as projected time runs further and further” (Greenleaf, 1996c:318).

The quality of foresight develops with a person’s experience and knowledge of the job and varies from person to person based upon his or her level of training and experience.

Greenleaf saw the failure to foresee as an ethical failure, because serious problems can be prevented in the future if one can foresee them and can take action to prevent them now. An example of this would be the failure to act against the threat of global warming.
Foresight is part of the lead the leader has (Greenleaf, 1996c). The leader is constantly balancing the lessons of history, with the experiences of the present and the likely consequences in the future when making decisions. Leaders are able to tap into the subconscious mind and receive creative insights when they suspend the analytical process after taking it as far as they can. This enables them to receive answers to very difficult problems.

Closely related to the quality of foresight is that of intuition. Effective leaders are highly intuitive in making judgements (Greenleaf, 1998d). In deciding and making judgements, the servant leader draws on inspiration; however he uses careful analytical thought along with knowledge and reflection, as a check and a guide to intuition and inspiration, to give a solid basis for communicating with informed and prudent people, and to offer a framework for assurance to those who would follow.

**Awareness**

Awareness refers to use of ones senses of perception to a greater extent than many people do, to take in more information (Greenleaf, 1996c).

Leaders have a good intuitive sense and ability to know the unknowable by tapping into their subconscious minds. This may happen even without high IQ and is what gives the leader his “lead”. It allows the conscious and sub-conscious minds to store a great deal of information that can be used when required at a later stage. Awareness disturbs and awakens the leader rather than giving him solace (Greenleaf, 1996c).

**Spirit**

Greenleaf does not directly define this element but describes Spirit as the mystery before which he stands in awe (Greenleaf, 1996d). He states that when a leader has it, it enables him to build trust with followers, and when followers have it, it engenders trust between them. Greenleaf views trust as “the cement that makes possible
institutional solidarity, from the family to world solidarity” (Greenleaf, 1996d:336). However, he cautions against the extremes of blind trust and complete distrust, arguing that the optimum level of trust required for the healthy functioning of an organization is somewhere between these two. He hints at the characteristics of those who live by the spirit when he says “In the end nothing really counts but love and friendship” (Greenleaf, 1996d:338).

**Empathy**

DeGraaf, et al., discuss one of the qualities of servant leadership, empathy, identified by Larry Spears in (DeGraaf, et al., 2004) and define it as the capacity for participation in another’s feelings or ideas. Empathy also involves acceptance and recognition of a person for their special and unique spirits. An important first step in developing empathy involves knowing the expectations we hold for others, our jobs and ourselves. Servant leaders have empathy for their followers, peers, superiors and other stakeholders of the organization.

**Healing**

Servant leaders recognize that they have an obligation to help others heal from the broken spirits and emotional hurts they have suffered in the past and help them find wholeness (Spears, 1998). Servant leaders help to create a healing response to problems and crises.

**Persuasion**

In Greenleaf’s view, servant leaders seek to influence others through persuasion, not coercion or manipulation (Greenleaf, 1998a). Persuasion is the process of explaining the rationale and logic for a course of action until the person being persuaded is able to get to a feeling of rightness about the matter being discussed using their own intuitive sense, checked perhaps by the intuitive sense of others. Logical thought processes take a person as far as they can, but the person takes a final stand about
the rightness of the issue using intuition. Coercion, on the other hand, refers to the use of positional power or authority over a person to induce agreement through the threat of sanctions either overtly or covertly, the exploitation of weaknesses or the application of pressure (Greenleaf, 1998a). Manipulation refers to guiding people into beliefs or actions which they do not understand.

Servant leaders also attempt to persuade through their own personal example (Greenleaf, 1998a). They seek to build consensus on the purpose of the group and how to achieve it and do not seek to impose a view upon their followers that the followers themselves do not accept as valid and worthwhile.

Persuasion occurs through the art of dialogue, a type of conversation in which nobody is trying to win (Greenleaf, 1998a). The act of persuasion is assisted by helping others to understand the benefits of the act, product, service or decision.

While he favours the use of persuasion, Greenleaf does accept that in an imperfect society, the use of coercive power is sometimes necessary, as for example when governments use coercion to force compliance to the law (Greenleaf, 1998a).

Greenleaf held a somewhat controversial view that true persuasion is not possible to be used by people that hold coercive power (Greenleaf, 1998a:86) as those they are trying to persuade will often wonder where the hidden agenda is. He suggests that those who hold coercive power leave the act of persuasion to members of staff that have no coercive power over others, and that the institution has a great dream that it is striving towards, which makes persuasion much easier.

**Conceptualization**

DeGraaf, et al., define conceptualization as the ability to see things whole; to see the bigger picture (DeGraaf, et al., 2004). It requires the ability to see beyond day-to-day operational challenges. Servant leaders are able to maintain a balance between the short term and the “big picture” focus. Conceptualizers are defined as dream **makers**.
Stewardship

Larry Spears identified stewardship as one of the characteristics of servant leaders (Spears, 1998; Spears, 2004). This involves the feeling of holding something in trust on behalf of others, and is different from the feeling of ownership. It leads to a certain level of detachment from one’s position. Servant leaders consider themselves stewards of their positions and organizations and use their positions to serve their stakeholders. The sense of stewardship makes the leader search out win-win situations. An understanding that we also hold the world in trust for future generations encourages us to find ways of conducting business in a sustainable manner, without causing long term and irreversible harm to the environment.

Commitment to the growth of people

Servant leaders seek to foster the personal and professional growth of the people they influence, as well as to make a positive difference in the lives of other stakeholders (Spears, 1998; Spears, 2004). They understand that if the people in the organization grow and develop, the organization will prosper. They create an organizational culture that places a high emphasis on people growth and put in place formal and informal mechanisms to ensure that it happens.

Building community

A sense of community refers to a sense of liability for each other, meaning that the well-being of each member of the community is important to each other member, and that each member of the community seeks to improve the position of each other member (Spears, 1998; Spears, 2004). It includes a sense of community, not just within the organization, but also a sense that the organization needs to act in a socially responsible manner since it is part of a wider national and world community.

2.1.6 Overview
## Table 2.2 Overview of Greenleaf’s servant leadership theory

| Leader traits and skills | • Strong positive values – honesty, love and responsibility  
|                          | • Tolerance of imperfection  
|                          | • Awareness  
|                          | • Spirit  
|                          | • Selflessness  
|                          | • Empathy  
|                          | • Healing  
|                          | • Stewardship  
|                          | • Being own person  
|                          | • Foresight and intuition  
|                          | • Conceptual thinking skills  
|                          | • Commitment to personal growth |
| Leader behaviours        | • Living out and expressing faith in the organization’s great dream or goal.  
|                          | • Listening  
|                          | • Effective use of language  
|                          | • Growing and developing people  
|                          | • Building community  
|                          | • Withdrawal |
| Influence tactics        | • Persuasion instead of coercion or manipulation |
| Power orientation and sources of power | • Socialized power orientation  
|                                    | • Referent power; expert power; legitimate power |
| Influence of situational factors | • Very limited – universal theory  
|                                    | • In some situations, the use of coercive power is acceptable, e.g. imperfect societies, in which governments exercise coercive power. |

### 2.2 Blanchard and Hodges’ theory
2.2.1 The Heart

Ken Blanchard and Phil Hodges published a book titled “The Servant Leader Transforming your Heart, Head, Hands and Habits” in 2003 in which they describe a servant leadership philosophy that draws upon the life of Jesus Christ and the teachings of the Bible. According to them, leadership is first a matter of the heart (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003:15), i.e. the motivations and intentions of the leader. A servant leader is different from a self-serving leader, whose primary motive is self-advancement, sometimes to the detriment of others. Two ways in which self-serving leaders can be distinguished from servant leaders are that self-serving leaders handle feedback negatively and are not too active in succession planning (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003).

Servant leaders look at leadership as an act of service and welcome feedback as an opportunity to improve their service. They also prepare others to take over from them as leaders when their own season of leadership comes to an end (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003).

Drawing on the example set by Jesus Christ, Blanchard and Hodges point out two very significant attributes of servant leadership (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003):

- they set a personal example for others by themselves doing what they expect their followers to, and
- they spiritually condition themselves for leadership by defeating worldly temptations that encourage ego-centric behaviour, such as instant gratification, desire for recognition and applause, and improper use and lust for power.

Servant leaders are not victims of false pride and fear. These two qualities quickly erode the servant leader’s integrity of leadership (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003:27). False pride causes the leader to be boastful, take too much credit, show off, do all the talking and demand attention. Leaders that are fearful protect themselves. They hide behind their positions, withhold information, intimidate others, become “control freaks” and discourage honest feedback. False pride and fear are the opposites of selflessness and courage.
2.2.2 The Head

This aspect relates to the leader’s belief system and perspective on the role of the leader. Servant leadership encompasses two roles (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003):

- A visionary role – doing the right thing, comprising
  - Your statement of purpose / mission
  - Your preferred picture of the future
  - Your values
- An implementation role – doing things right

A good vision excites passion in the leader and commitment in followers. The vision also provides clear direction. Values drive people’s behaviour and provide indirect leadership in a similar way that the organization’s culture does. True success in servant leadership depends on how well values are defined, prioritized and lived by the leader (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003).

Setting and defining the vision for the organization is a top-down process where the leader, with consultation from within the organization, provides the organizations vision. As part of the implementation role however, the traditional organizational hierarchy is turned upside down so that those that are in contact with customers are at the top of the hierarchy. During implementation of the vision, servant leaders serve the needs of followers, helping them to accomplish the vision and mission of the organization. Both leaders and followers SERVE THE VISION (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003).

A servant leader point of view entails (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003):

- Elevating the growth and development of people from a “means” goal to an “end” goal of importance equal to the performance of the organization. This requires a high level of intimacy with and knowledge of the needs and aspirations of followers;
- Differentiating between “success” and “effectiveness”, where success connotes achieving short-term goals at the long-range detriment of followers and effectiveness implies achieving the long-term development of followers and the organizations objectives;
• Leading with a committed and convicted heart;
• Making the sacrifices involved in serving and living out the values of servant leadership.

2.2.3 The Hands

After the leader has developed the correct intentions, motivation, point of view and perspective on the role of the servant leader, the next phase is the implementation of the philosophy through the leader’s behaviour (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003).

Servant leaders understand the levels of change: changing knowledge, changing attitudes, changing behaviours and organizational change, know that each level is progressively more difficult to achieve than the previous level, understand the ways in which people react to change and ease the transitions involved in implementing the vision for the organization (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003).

Servant leaders consider the development of their people to be of equal importance to the performance of the organization, i.e. both PEOPLE AND PERFORMANCE matter (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003).

Developing followers to carry on the mission of the organization after the leader has left, by leaving a legacy of servant leadership, is a key part of servant leadership.

Servant leaders practice the Situational Leadership II® model (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003:69), whereby the servant leader changes his influencing behaviour according to the needs of the follower and which involves three skills: diagnosing the development level of the follower, flexibility in leadership style according to the follower’s development level, and partnering for performance.

Diagnosis involves assessing the development of the follower on two dimensions: Competence and Commitment, in accordance with Table 2.3.
Table 2.3: Situational Leadership II behaviours

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Follower Development Level</th>
<th>Follower Characteristics</th>
<th>Leadership Behaviours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Competence</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D1 - Enthusiastic beginners</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D2 - Disillusioned learners</td>
<td>Low to Some High</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D3 - Capable but Cautious Performers</td>
<td>Moderate to High Variable</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D4 – Peak Performers / Self-Reliant Achievers</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the development level of the follower has been diagnosed, the servant leader adopts a flexible leadership style, where the leadership style adopted is a blend of directive behaviours and supportive behaviours (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003). Directive behaviour involves telling WHAT to do, WHEN, WHERE and HOW to do it. Directive behaviour also involves closely tracking performance and providing feedback on results. Supportive behaviour involves listening, involvement of followers in decision-making, encouraging, praising progress, and facilitating interactions with others. The four leadership styles are listed in Table 2.3. The coaching style involves explaining the reasons for tasks / instructions, soliciting suggestions, praising progress and providing directions. Delegating involves empowering people to act independently, with appropriate resources.

Finally, servant leaders partner for performance with their followers by agreeing on how they will interact, and following through on agreements. A key activity of the servant leader is to act as performance coach.
2.2.4 The Habits

According to Blanchard and Hodges (2003), the habits of servant leaders help them to firmly entrench servant leader traits, skills and behaviours and help them to stay on course with the practice of servant leadership. The habits of servant leaders involve a strong spiritual dimension and include (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003):

- Solitude - spending some time alone, away from worldly distractions.
- Prayer – regular communion and communication with God.
- Remembering religious and spiritual teachings (God’s Word).
- Faith in God’s unconditional love for oneself, and unconditionally loving the people around you. Servant leaders understand that everyone needs to be heard, praised, encouraged, forgiven, accepted and guided back to the right path when they drift off course.
- Involvement in accountability relationships with trusted others (“truth-tellers”) who provide an outside perspective on how we are doing as servant leaders. Growth takes place when we are open to feedback from others and when we are willing to disclose task-relevant vulnerabilities as a leader. Truth-tellers should preferably be people that are not directly impacted by what servant leaders do.

2.2.5 Overview
Table 2.4: Overview of Blanchard and Hodges’ Servant Leadership theory

| Leader traits and skills | • Selflessness  
| | • Integrity  
| | • Honesty  
| | • Fearlessness  
| | • Humility  
| | • Values-driven behaviour  
| | • Faith in unconditional love  
| | • Openness to feedback  
| | • A sense of community and self-acceptance instead of separation  
| | • Servant leaders consider their positions as being on “loan”  
| | • Never asks anyone to do anything they would not want to do.  
| | • Holds lightly the things of the world. Sees oneself as the STEWARD of the time, talent and treasures God has put at one’s disposal for His purposes. |

| Leader behaviours | • Setting the vision  
| | • Defining, prioritizing and modeling values  
| | • Serving the needs of followers and helping them achieve the vision  
| | • Change management  
| | • Development of subordinates as an equally important objective as the performance of the organization  
| | • Leaving a legacy of servant leadership  
| | • Diagnosing the development level of subordinates on two dimensions – commitment and competence  
| | • Adopting a flexible leadership style, depending on development level of follower  
| | • Partnering for performance with followers |
- Acting as performance coach for followers
- Spiritual habits (prayer, solitude, remembering religious teachings)
- Involvement in accountability relationships
- Servant leaders validate and affirm their followers in their roles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence tactics</th>
<th>Influence tactics depend on the level of development of the follower and vary between Directing, Coaching, Supporting and Delegating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Influence of situational factors</td>
<td>The key situational determinant that influences the behaviour of the leader is the level of development of the follower on two dimensions: competence and commitment.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.3 Chibber’s theory

Another theory of leadership that bears a close resemblance to that of servant leadership is described by Lieutenant General (Retired) Dr. M. L. Chibber in his book, “Sai Baba’s Mahavakya on Leadership” (Chibber, 1999). The word Mahavakya is a Sanskrit word can be translated to mean “great utterance”. Dr Chibber is a retired General of the Indian Army and has conducted extensive research on leadership (Chibber, 1999). He also has accumulated years of practical experience as a leader himself, commanding India’s counter-offensive military forces.

Although it is not called servant leadership, Dr Chibber’s leadership philosophy is based upon selflessness, service to others and caring for followers, and has numerous similarities to Greenleaf’s and Blanchard and Hodges’ servant leadership philosophies. Dr Chibber’s theory is based upon the teachings of one of India’s foremost and world-renowned spiritual masters, Sri Sathya Sai Baba, the Chancellor of a University in India and a spiritual leader with a following of millions on all continents. Dr Chibber’s theory is a useful perspective on leadership based on Eastern spiritual thought and draws on the experiences and example of various great leaders in the world’s history, such as Benjamin Franklin, Mahatma Gandhi and Winston Churchill. It is also an intensely practical philosophy and is grounded in
numerous historical examples of effective leadership. The theory is developed according to the qualitative school of research, specifically the case study method; however the results of quantitative research studies are quoted in some parts of the book to support specific ideas.

2.3.1 Definition of leadership

As his definition of leadership, Chibber adopts that developed by Lord Moran, who became the President of the British Medical Council in 1939 and personal physician to Winston Churchill during World War II ” (Chibber, 1999):

“Leadership is the capacity to frame plans that will succeed and the faculty to persuade others to carry them out in the face of all difficulties – even death.”

(Chibber, 1999:14)

In simpler terms, leadership amounts to knowing what to do + getting it done (Chibber, 1999).

The definition has two parts, the first relating to determining plans for the success of the organization and requiring a sound knowledge of the leader’s field of work, the environment and his available resources. The second part involves the ability of a leader to persuade others to implement the plans effectively even in the face of the inevitable challenges, hardships and obstacles that normally present themselves when complex plans are implemented. This requires character from the leader and is a much more difficult task than framing the plans. The notion of persuasion parallels Greenleaf’s idea of persuasion as being different from manipulation or coercion. According to Greenleaf, servant leaders use persuasion rather than manipulation or coercion as an influence tactic, as contained in Moran’s definition.

2.3.2 Leadership effectiveness

Chibber states that “the yardstick to measure good leadership is the culture of enduring excellence which a leader leaves behind after he is long gone from the
scene” (Chibber, 1999:6). This relates to the leader’s legacy. The difference between a “great” and a “good” leader is: “A great leader is for himself, a good one is for others.” (Chibber, 1999:6). The word “great” is used in this context to connote a leader that is not necessarily good, but may have achieved momentous results in the pursuit of his or her mission. For example, Hitler had the whole German nation doing what he wanted them to do. German industry and technology reached new heights during his rule and he nearly conquered the whole of Europe and North Africa (Chibber, 1999:6). This makes him a great leader, but not good, since he was driven by his ego and self-interest. In the end he brought untold misery and suffering upon the German people. It is the virtue of sacrifice, selflessness and renunciation of self-interest which enables a leader to achieve the impossible (Chibber, 1999) through others, as opposed to self-centredness and egocentricity.

The belief that good leaders put the interests of their followers and those they serve through their organizations ahead of their own, is the same as the core of servant leadership as described by Greenleaf and others.

According to Chibber, “ninety percent of leadership depends on our character” (Chibber, 1999:7). The remaining ten percent is knowledge about the chosen field of work. In support of his view, Chibber quotes the results of a Stanford Research Institute study that attempted to pinpoint the reasons for the Japanese forging ahead of the Americans in almost every field in the 80’s. The Stanford study found that 12% of effective leadership depends on the leader’s knowledge and 88% on the leader’s ability to deal with people. Being able to deal with people effectively requires a sound character ” (Chibber, 1999).

According to Chibber, true leadership is a by-product of spirituality (Chibber, 1999), since a spiritual outlook engenders a spirit of sacrifice and selflessness and an attitude of service and caring for others. Spirituality involves rising above the doctrines and regulations that characterize religions to the living of the essence contained in all religions, i.e. selfless love.
2.3.3 The leadership process

Dr Chibber develops his ideas on leadership around the words of Sathya Sai Baba that the leadership process is: TO BE : TO DO : TO SEE : TO TELL (Chibber, 1999:17), where:

TO BE is the source of leadership
TO DO is the style of leadership by personal example
TO SEE and TO TELL are the functions, tools and techniques of leadership.
(Chibber, 1999:17)

TO BE is the sum total of all there is in a person and determines his potential and effectiveness as a leader. This is the major part of the leadership process and ninety percent of a leader’s TO BE is his character and ten percent his knowledge (Chibber, 1999).

TO DO means setting a personal example as a leader; however, this is only effective if the TO BE of a leader is worthy of emulation. Leading by personal example is said to be one of the most potent techniques of influencing people and is also known as the method of silent persuasion (Chibber, 1999).

TO SEE implies that a leader must be fully aware of the realities of the environment in which he is working and should have a complete understanding of the problem or task being handled, including all information having a bearing upon the task or problem (Chibber, 1999). This allows the leader to develop options, make a decision and develop a realistic implementation plan. TO SEE also includes being in proximity with followers and the execution of work to get firsthand information on the problem or task being executed.

Part of TO SEE involves decision-making. The essential ingredients of effective decision-making are: (1) having a clear understanding of the goal to be achieved, (2) collecting and evaluating all available information on the resources available, the task environment, possible risks and obstacles, and time available, (3) identifying and evaluating the different options available and (4) selecting an option and developing an implementation plan. However, the correct or best option is not always clearly
apparent from the available information and a leader often has to make a decision in the absence of complete information. This requires a high level of intuition, foresight and courage to make decisions.

TO SEE also involves monitoring the process of the work timeously so that the leader can provide feedback to followers, decide on changes to the plan or reallocate resources.

TO TELL means communicating to others what the leader would like to get done. It also includes providing feedback on the follower’s performance (Chibber, 1999). The process of communication is more effective when it is from the heart and the effectiveness of a leader’s communication depends on the strength of his character, knowledge and the extent to which he leads by personal example. People are unlikely to willingly and enthusiastically heed the instructions of a leader lacking in these aspects.

2.3.4 The functions of leadership

The primary function of leadership is to complete the task or meet the objective. This requires that the leader understand and harmonize task needs, individual needs and group needs, depicted as three overlapping circles in figure 2.6 (Chibber, 1999).

Figure 2.6: Functions of leadership (Chibber, 1999:26)
Functions for task needs include clearly defining the task, developing a plan, allocating work and resources and monitoring the work. Functions for individual needs include development, praise, recognition and attending to personal problems. Functions for group needs include building team spirit, setting a personal example, encouraging, motivating and giving a sense of purpose, maintaining discipline and correcting mistakes, providing training, appointing sub-leaders and ensuring effective communication within the group.

### 2.3.5 Leader traits, skills and behaviours

While effective leaders throughout history have differed in several respects from each other, according to Chibber, effective leaders have displayed similar characteristics. They have all been persons of **character**, and they share certain universal qualities (Chibber, 1999:30). Chibber defines character as the “resulting individuality of a person from (the) balance sheet of good and bad qualities.” (Chibber, 1999:30).

Here, “qualities” refer to a leader’s virtues and weaknesses of **head** and **heart**. Character is the most important factor which makes for effective leaders and the main features of a person of character are:

- Unity of thought, word and deed. There is no duplicity in a leader whose thoughts, words and deeds are in unison with each other. Unity of thought, word and deed engenders trust in the leader, which is a critical requirement for a constructive relationship between leader and follower.
- The practice of “human values”, such as truth, right conduct, selfless love, non-injury and equanimity (a calm/peaceful disposition in the face of challenges and obstacles).

As discussed earlier, the other part of effective leadership is **knowledge** (Chibber, 1999). Chibber’s study of the lives of effective leaders throughout history has revealed that they all possess a few qualities of knowledge and character that are universal. He depicts these in the form of a balanced structure shown in figure 2.7.
Figure 2.7: Universal Inner Structure of Good Leaders (Chibber, 1999:33)

Unity of thought, word and deed

According to the teachings of Sathya Sai Baba, only a person whose thoughts, words and deeds are in harmony can become a good and effective leader (Chibber, 2003:16). This involves acting in accordance with one’s words and speaking in accordance with what is in one’s thoughts. This makes the leader sincere, transparent and straightforward. Such a person earns the trust of others. Leaders who are hypocritical and insincere do not earn the trust of their followers.

Selflessness

At the core of the inner structure is Selflessness, which corresponds with the servant leader’s motivation to put the interests of others before self, and serve others (Chibber, 1999). The concept of selflessness based on an ideal or vision is the same as that of Greenleaf’s who believed that service to a higher vision is part of servant leadership.
The strength and balance of this structure determine the effectiveness of the leader. According to Chibber (Chibber, 1999), Faith in God is central to the virtue of selflessness. Furthermore, selflessness contains five human values, Truth, Right Conduct, Love, Equanimity and Non Injury. Between themselves, truth and right conduct contain virtually the entire distillate of morality.

Selflessness leads to various virtues (Chibber, 1999). For example, since a selfless person seeks no unfair advantage over others, honesty (defined as the absence of lying, cheating or stealing) comes naturally to him (Chibber, 1999). Also, since a selfless person is not greedy or looking for shortcuts to success, integrity comes naturally to him (Chibber, 1999). A selfless person is also loyal since he is not a self-seeker (Chibber, 1999). Selflessness also leads to harmony between thought, word and deed, which, as discussed earlier, builds credibility (Chibber, 1999). Credibility in turn leads to trust between leader and follower.

**Courage**

Courage is the most admired human virtue in all societies (Chibber, 1999). In leadership, the main act of courage involves making decisions, especially when the correct decision is not absolutely clear (Chibber, 1999). Those lacking in courage are scared to make decisions, to set high standards of performance for fear of being unpopular, to reject unethical acts and to punish acts of omission or commission. Courageous leaders administer punishment with a view to attaining improvement, similar to the motive of a mother when punishing her child. Courage also involves a risk-taking attitude; the willingness to take responsibility for decisions; sharing the rewards of decisions with subordinates; and the nerve to maintain equanimity in the face of turmoil or disappointments, neither dwelling on successes nor being discouraged by failures (Chibber, 1999).

A leader that is supposed to go out and show the way for followers or take his/her organization to unfamiliar and different places, charting new courses in the process, can never be effective if he/she is affected by cowardice, the antithesis of courage. In the modern, globalized business world characterized by cultural diversity, rapid change, more demanding stakeholders and rapid information flows, courage is an
especially important virtue that equips leaders to deal with change and the unknown effectively and fearlessly.

Will Power

Will power has been referred to as the king of all faculties, being the source of all other faculties (Chibber, 1999). It involves the determination, perseverance and tenacity to persist with a chosen course of action or plan in the face of set-backs, difficulties and challenges arising from a variety of sources (Chibber, 1999). Extraordinary feats of human endurance are achieved only through the exercise of will power (Chibber, 1999). Will power helps leaders stay the course when taking their organizations to new places through, for example, the implementation of a new business strategy, or implementing major organizational change. It is grounded in firm conviction and faith in the correctness of the chosen course of action and desirability of the goal being sought. However, it is important that a leader has the flexibility and initiative to change the method of implementing a plan without forsaking its purpose (Chibber, 1999). There is a fine line between obstinacy and determination (Chibber, 1999). The effective leader needs to balance strength of will with flexibility of mind (Chibber, 1999).

Initiative

A leader with initiative is also referred to as a “self-starter” (Chibber, 1999). This involves anticipating future events by using one’s intuitive sense, and by analyzing and interpreting information from the environment. Initiative also involves identifying and taking advantage of opportunities to further the mission of the organization. Taking initiative also involves the quality of foresight and a leader with foresight is more willing to show initiative. Initiative is also developed by fixing the mind on ideals higher than the job, for example on thinking every day about what one can do to contribute to the excellence of one’s organization (Chibber, 1999).

Knowledge of the job

Knowledge of the leader’s field of work, the internal organizational environment and the external environment give the leader great strength and improve his ability to deal with people (Chibber, 1999). Constantly updating one’s knowledge also allows one
to deal effectively with changes in one’s field of work. In-depth knowledge in his field of work, coupled with extensive experience help the leader to develop his intuition. Intuition is the ability to immediately discern the truth of a situation without extensive reasoning or analysis. The leader needs to be able to use common sense in his acquisition of knowledge, i.e. sweeping aside trivial matters and getting to the core of what really matters (Chibber, 1999).

**Knowledge of Self**

Since leadership involves the interaction of leader with follower, effective leadership requires a sound understanding of both parties (Chibber, 1999). Having a good understanding of his strengths and weaknesses helps a leader to deal effectively with others and embark on a course of self-development (Chibber, 1999). Imagining that he has only strengths puts a leader on a self-deceiving, self-justifying path often involving rationalization to self and others. Such a delusion also causes the leader to blame others for troubles or failures, since the belief persists that ‘I can do no wrong’ and that ‘the problem was caused by someone else, or something else. (Chibber, 1999)

Carefully and honestly conducting a self-appraisal exercise and acting upon the results assists the leader in identifying and addressing his weaknesses and understanding how better to deal with others (Chibber, 1999). For example, a leader that has a desire to control others will more than likely experience conflicts with a person that does not like to be controlled. If faced with such a follower, the leader has to develop a sound strategy for dealing with the follower in an effective manner. Being unaware of the nature of leader and followers is likely to lead to a high level of frustration in interpersonal interactions due to a lack of understanding of the causes of conflicts (Chibber, 1999).

**Ability to deal with people**

Dealing appropriately with people is the crux of the entire leadership process (Chibber, 1999:81). The ability to deal effectively with people is dependent on the strength and balance of the entire inner structure of effective leaders (Chibber, 1999). A leader should therefore attempt to strengthen his inner structure in order to enable
him to deal more effectively with people. The ability to deal with people effectively encompasses the following capabilities (Chibber, 1999):

- **Dealing effectively with people at different levels.** The effective leader knows how to deal with people at different levels, i.e. subordinates, peers and superiors. In dealing with subordinates, the objective is to build an effective and cohesive group, motivated to achieve the objectives of the organization. The objective in dealing with peers is to win their support and cooperation. The objective in dealing with superiors is to maintain a purposeful, constructive and harmonious relationship with them.

- **A good understanding of human nature.** Chibber’s view is that a good understanding of human nature requires an understanding of two concepts: Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and the nature of the individual as being a mixture of three natural characteristics – the dull, lazy and inert quality; the active, passionate aspect of nature; and the pure and ethical aspect of nature aiming at harmony and balance. An understanding of a person’s needs helps the leader to motivate the person by responding to such needs.

- **A leader knowing his people very well and caring about them.** This involves knowing follower’s needs, strengths and weaknesses, and personality types. Caring is different from indulgence, which typically involves giving material things. Caring is a matter of attitude and derives from the quality of selfless love.

- **Communication skills.** This comprises the skill of expression and the skill of listening. The skill of expression involves 30% of skill in verbal expression and 70% of skill in expressing oneself through body language. Effective expression requires being sincere in one’s communication. The skill of listening means understanding and knowing the other person and involves hearing, comprehending and remembering what the other person says (Chibber, 1999:88). Effective communication is a key means of building trust in a team.

- **Leadership styles.** This refers to an intuitive variation in the mix of influencing people by personal example, persuasion and compulsion based upon the needs of the task, the situation and the characteristics of the group being led. “Setting the correct personal example is the secret of leading people” (Chibber, 1999:91).
- Leadership in the global context. The globe is characterized by a high level of diversity of languages and cultures. As we move towards greater globalization, effective leadership will require the ability to harness diversity, manage diversity and sustain a vision of unity in diversity.

2.3.6 Overview

Table 2.5 Overview of Chibber’s Leadership Theory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leader traits and skills</th>
<th>Task functions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• A spiritual outlook</td>
<td>• Defining the task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Commitment to a higher ideal or vision</td>
<td>• Making the plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Unity of thought, word and deed (speaking what is in the mind and acting in accordance with what is said, e.g. practicing stated values, being open and transparent, etc.). (Authenticity, Integrity)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Selflessness based on an Ideal or Vision;</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Courage to decide;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Will power;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Initiative to be a self-starter;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Knowledge of the job;</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Ability to deal with people;</td>
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<tr>
<td>o Caring for subordinates</td>
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<tr>
<td>o Knowing subordinates well</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Knowledge of self;</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Sacrifice and renunciation of self-interest</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Treating others justly</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Being considerate to the weak</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Having a strong sense of duty and the obligations of one’s position</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Loyalty</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Faith in selfless love</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
3 Comparison between servant leadership and the findings of general research on leadership

This section discusses some of the similarities and differences between servant leadership theories and the findings of research and other theories of leadership.
3.1 Definition of leadership and leadership effectiveness

Greenleaf’s definition of leadership (Greenleaf, 1998c; Greenleaf, 1996a) differs from those of Yukl (2006) and Hughes, et al. (2006) in that Greenleaf conceptualizes leadership as the process of showing the way ahead for others (Greenleaf, 1998c). Yukl (2006) and Hughes et al. (2006) conceptualize leadership as an influence and facilitation process. The influence aspect of leadership corresponds with the second part of Chibber’s definition of leadership (Chibber, 1999), i.e. the capacity to persuade others to carry out plans.

According to Greenleaf (Greenleaf, 1998c), the true test of leadership is that somebody voluntarily follows, whilst both Yukl and Hughes, et al., do not make voluntary following a test of leadership (Yukl, 2006; Hughes, et al., 2006). According to the latter, leadership can be defined as such when it induces reluctant compliance in followers.

In Greenleaf’s view (Greenleaf, 1996b), the overarching vision or dream is central to the process of leadership and leadership cannot be effective unless such a vision exists. Yukl and Hughes, et al., (Yukl, 2006; Hughes, et al., 2006) do not make the vision central to the leadership process, although they do agree that is a requirement for effective leadership.

A major point of agreement between servant leadership and conventional theories of effective leadership appears to be the importance of the role of the leader in influencing and facilitating the performance of followers (Yukl, 2006; Hughes, et al., 2006; Greenleaf, 1996b).

The definition of leadership effectiveness is another key way in which conventional definitions of leadership differ from that of Greenleaf. According to Greenleaf, effective servant leadership occurs when leaders have a genuine interest and affection for their followers, develop and meet the higher order needs of those served, have a positive impact upon the least privileged in society, cause no harm, and put people before financial success or selfishness (Frick, No dat; Greenleaf, 1996b; Greenleaf, 1996a; Greenleaf, 1998c). Yukl (2006) believes that leadership effectiveness can be measured in many ways, including: (1) objective measures of...
the performance of the leader’s group, such as profitability or return on investment, 
(2) the attitude of follower’s towards the leader, e.g. their respect and admiration for 
the leader, or (3) the contribution of the leader towards the effectiveness of group 
processes, such as problem solving and decision making (Yukl, 2006). In his 
integrating conceptual framework given in figure 2.3 follower motivation, skills, role 
clarity and self-efficacy are part of the intervening variables that impact upon the 
success criteria (Yukl, 2006). Follower growth and development is not seen as a key 
outcome of the leadership process.

According to Hughes, et al. (2006) common ways in which leader effectiveness is 
measured include superiors’ effectiveness and performance ratings, subordinates’ 
ratings of satisfaction, organizational climate, morale, motivation and effectiveness, 
and unit performance indices. They too do not mention the growth and development 
of followers as a key measure of leader effectiveness.

Servant leadership on the other hand, places the development and growth of people 
at a higher level as an objective than organizational performance. As discussed, 
developing and growing people naturally leads to higher performance, provided the 
organization’s mission and vision are clear.

3.2 Leader traits and skills

The inner motive of the servant leader appears to be another key differentiating factor 
between servant leadership and other leadership theories. Servant leaders are 
**motivated by a need to serve** (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003; Frick, No date). Other 
leadership theories do not necessarily place a high emphasis on what the leader’s 
inner motive is as a major determinant of his or her effectiveness (Yukl, 2006; 
Hughes, et al., 2006).

Hughes, et al. (2006) state that a leader’s values have a major impact on his or her 
behaviour and effectiveness, and they discuss various values common to leaders. 
For example, they indicate that a leader with strong Commercial values is motivated 
by financial success. Such a leader is unlikely to place a higher emphasis on the 
growth and development of followers, except as required in order to attain financial
success (Hughes, et al., 2006). On the other hand, those with Altruism values believe in actively helping others who are less fortunate and want to make a difference in society (Hughes, et al., 2006). The Altruism value is emphasized in servant leadership theory (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003; Greenleaf, 1998a).

Yukl (2006) discusses the different traits and skills of leaders in a general way, without giving much emphasis to which is the most important motive of the leader that is likely to lead to effective leadership. He does however state that those with a “socialized power orientation (as opposed to a personalized power orientation), strong integrity and a high level of moral development” (Yukl, 2006:445) are primarily concerned with the welfare of followers and the organization, not their own career advancement or personal gain, and are important traits for effective change-oriented leadership and relations-oriented leadership.

The selflessness of a leader is seen as a key part of servant leadership in all three theories discussed earlier (Greenleaf, 1998a; Blanchard and Hodges, 2006; Chibber, 1999); however, apart from discussions of selflessness within the contexts of values and power orientation, selflessness is not emphasized in other theories as an important basis for effective leadership (Yukl, 2006; Hughes, et al., 2006).

A number of the universally endorsed traits of effective leaders identified by the GLOBE project (House, et al., 2001) are common with those of servant leaders. These include foresight, decisiveness, planning ahead, trustworthiness, honesty, dependability, communicativeness, and motivational (House, et al., 2001), which correspond with servant leader traits such as foresight, initiative, integrity, listening and commitment to the growth of people (Greenleaf, 1996b; Spears, 1998).

### 3.3 Leader behaviours

In contrast to major findings of research on leader effectiveness conducted to date, servant leadership theories places a much higher emphasis upon the relations-oriented behaviours of leaders, as opposed to task- and change-oriented behaviours (Blanchard and Hodges, 2006; Spears, 1998; Greenleaf, 1996b; Greenleaf, 1998a).
The research described by Yukl (2006) and Hughes (2006) places a great deal of importance on all three categories of behaviour for effective leadership.

In addition, a far greater level of importance is given to the traits and skills of servant leaders in servant leadership theory, as opposed to their behaviours (Blanchard and Hodges, 2006; Spears, 1998; Greenleaf, 1996b; Greenleaf, 1998a). Although it encompasses elements of trait, behavioural and situational types of leadership theories, servant leadership theory appears to be more of a trait-based theory, wherein traits and attributes are given greater importance.

3.4 Power and influence

Of the 11 proactive influence tactics described by Yukl (2006), servant leadership theory emphasizes specific types of influence tactics, specifically rational persuasion and inspirational appeals (Greenleaf, 1998a; Blanchard and Hodges, 2006), but does not give much attention to what types of leader power have the greatest effect upon leader effectiveness. An underlying assumption in servant leadership theory appears to be that human nature is essentially good, hence that compulsion or the use of coercive power or position power is only necessary in exceptional cases to deal with rebels or criminals who try to disrupt the organization. The use of such forms of power is however seen as dysfunctional in the long term (Greenleaf, 1998a).

4 The research context

The context for this research project is a South African multinational, publicly-listed corporation, Sasol. The South African research context is discussed with reference to the nine dimensions of national culture identified by the GLOBE project and listed in section 1.12.

4.1 The South African context

This section discusses the South African cultural and leadership context.
4.1.1 National Culture

Ngambi (2004) quotes Hofstede’s definition of national culture as “the collective mental programming of people in an environment”, consisting of a “set of values, attitudes, beliefs and norms shared by the majority of the inhabitants of the country. National culture is conditioned by the same education and life experiences, or shared reality.” (Ngambi, 2004:109).

Unlike countries in other parts of the world, South Africa has been a melting pot of many diverse cultures for many centuries, based on the religious, racial and ethnic diversity of its population. Due to this diversity of culture, research has shown that ethnicity has no impact upon management culture and perceptions of management effectiveness (Thomas and Bendixen, 2000).

Nkomo and Booysen (2006) discuss three models that are used to understand national culture: the high/low context model of Edgar Hall, Gert Hofstede’s six dimensions of national culture and the nine dimensions of national culture used as part of Project GLOBE and discussed earlier in this chapter.

Africa is characterized as a high context culture, meaning that the environment, situation and non-verbal behaviour are essential to interpreting and creating communications and in which the spoken word carries only part of the meaning (Nkomo and Booysen, 2006). In high context cultures it is for effective communication necessary to first establish social trust (Nkomo and Booysen, 2006). Such cultures also value personal relations and good will, achieve agreement by general trust and are characterized by slow and ritualistic negotiations. People have a more central role.

Some aspects of African and South African culture discussed by Nkomo and Booysen (2006), especially amongst the black population, are:
- A higher level of collectivism than individualism. A higher level of collectivism applies within black managers than white managers.
- High power distance.
- High in-group institutional collectivism.
- High uncertainty avoidance.
- Highest score in humane orientation after Southern Asian countries, indicating a belief people are fair and altruistic.

Apart from that of high power distance, cultural attributes such as collectivism and humane orientation are compatible with the servant-leadership philosophy.

Another aspect of African culture is that of *Ubuntu* (Nkomo and Kriek, 2004). Ubuntu’s basic tenet points to human inter-relatedness and is based on the belief that “I am because we are” (Nkomo and Kriek, 2004). This interdependence between people “can be defined as humane-ness – a pervasive spirit of caring and community, harmony and hospitality, respect and responsiveness” (Nkomo and Kriek, 2004). Archbishop Desmond Tutu defines Ubuntu as follows, as quoted by Nkomo and Kriek (2004): “It embraces hospitality, caring about others, being willing to go the extra mile for one another. We believe a person is a person through other persons; that my humanity is caught up, bound up inextricably in yours.” The notion of Ubuntu is also compatible with the servant-leadership philosophy.

Jackson (1999) presents the interaction between Western and non-Western management practices as an interaction between instrumental and humanistic views of people in organizations. He suggests that the humanistic view of people in organizations is reflected in the word *Ubuntu*. The difference between these two approaches is conceptualized as shown in Figure 2.8.

The Humanism approach is the underlying philosophy for servant leadership.

### 4.1.2 Leadership traits and behaviours

This section examines some traits and behaviours that have been identified in research on effective leader traits and behaviours within the South African cultural context.
Figure 2.8: Instrumentalism and humanism in the management of people (Jackson, 1999:308)

According to Nkomo and Kriek (2004), transformational change is the most critical leadership issue for organizations in South Africa. The process of change in South Africa started in 1994 with the first democratic elections in the country.

Transformational change is more challenging in South Africa given the dual challenge that South African organizations face, viz. the global fast-changing external business environment and local pressures such as the need to transform, poor social capital and HIV/AIDS (Nkomo and Kriek, 2004).

To lead transformational change in South Africa requires leadership that is characterized by extraordinary personal will, influence and courage (Nkomo and Kriek, 2004), the same qualities of effective leaders described by Chibber (1999). Nkomo and Kriek (2004) identify five leader roles that have emerged as part of the African Change Leadership Project conducted by the School of Business Leadership at the University of South Africa. Some of these that are relevant to the study of servant leadership are:
• Leaders have to be dealers in hope by helping employees envision an attractive future, not only for their organizations but also for themselves. This also requires, inter alia, leaders to provide a supportive and empathetic climate (Nkomo and Kriek, 2004).

• Field facilitator: “The notion of Ubuntu can be the field filling the void and providing a sense of belonging within organizations...The challenge for leaders is to facilitate the expansion of such a field where collective brother- and sisterhood are emphasized and to create an opportunity where differences are tolerated.” (Nkomo and Kriek, 2004:99)

• Change embracer: “The role of the leader as communicator will become evermore important as the responsibility of organizations is increasingly seen as extending beyond the 'bottom line'. In this regard focus on our responsibility towards the ecology, future generations and emphasis on valuing relationships become more important.” (Nkomo and Kriek, 2004:100)

Ngambi (2004) outlines the pathetic condition that much of Africa finds itself in, with widespread poverty, corruption, natural disasters and war, and asks whether the adoption of Eurocentric and Western leadership approaches, coupled with the destruction of traditional African leadership models have contributed to this crisis. Ngambi (2004) discusses various case studies on African leadership and attempts to draw lessons from these case studies for the leadership of business organizations in the African context. Her departure point is that Eurocentric or Western management approaches cannot be adopted and applied to the African context without carefully considering the uniqueness of the African culture and context, as confirmed by research that has found that the national culture of a country has a bearing upon the types of leadership styles that bring success (Ngambi, 2004). Her research has revealed that the servant-leadership approach most closely resembles that of traditional African leadership and will be an appropriate approach for businesses operating in the African context (Ngambi, 2004). According to her, the application of the principles of servant leadership in organizations “could transform an organization from a mere economic entity based on exclusive relationships into an enterprising community with inclusive relationships based on trust and intimacy of an African village.” (Ngambi, 2004: 126).
Some of the traits and behaviours of African traditional leaders studied by her, that bear close resemblance to those of servant-leaders as conceptualized by Greenleaf, are as follows (Ngambi, 2004):

- Building communities, by nurturing and entrenching human values in subjects.
- Empathetic listening and sound knowledge of communal values.
- Selflessness and a strong work ethic.
- Clear sense of vision and mission.
- Ability to create a common sense of identity.
- Leadership from the front (by example).
- Ability to challenge the status quo.
- Risk taker.
- Celebrate accomplishments.
- Value the role of women in governance.
- Wisdom, a sense of civic responsibility and logical persuasiveness.
- Consensus-building through dialogue and participative leadership.
- Stewardship.
- Love for their people.
- Maintains a very clear, consistent position; reconsiders position when presented with new evidence. Inspires trust because of his consistency.
- Maintains integrity.
- Aware of themselves and others; understand themselves and others.
- Understand the lessons of the past, realities of the present and the likely consequences of a decision for the future.
- Believe that people have an intrinsic worth beyond their tangible contributions to the work of the community.
- Genuine care for the well-being of all stakeholders.

Given that servant-leadership bears a close resemblance to traditional African leadership, it is likely to be a viable model for institutions operating in Africa, especially those with a large proportion of Africans within them.

Ferch (2004) describes the servant-leader, Nelson Mandela. He discusses how Mandela created a vision of hope for South Africa, based on reconciliation and non-violence, and how he had an enduring and deep belief in the basic goodness of
human nature, which prevented him from seeking vengeance on his captors and oppressors (Ferch, 2004). Mandela sought as a leader for consensus in his decision-making, practiced forgiveness and restorative justice (Ferch, 2004). His conciliatory leadership approach has largely spared South Africa from a violent and bloody civil war (Ferch, 2004). Inspired by Mandela, the government, under the leadership of Archbishop Desmond Tutu, formed the Truth and Reconciliation Commission, based on the fundamental cultural notion of *Ubuntu* (Ferch, 2004).

### 4.1.3 The leadership context within Sasol

The leadership survey forming part of this research project is conducted in the Sasol organization. The survey specifically focuses on the Procurement and Supply Management department of Sasol Secunda Shared Services and the Group Strategic Sourcing department of Sasol Group Services.

Sasol is an integrated oil and gas company with substantial chemical interests. The company is listed on the Johannesburg and New York Stock Exchanges and is headquartered in Johannesburg, South Africa. Sasol has operations throughout the world, with its main manufacturing sites located in South Africa, North America, Germany, Qatar, Italy, Iran and Malaysia (Sasol, 2006). Sasol’s main products are transport fuels, bulk chemicals, natural gas, waxes, fertilizers, and coal (Sasol, 2006). As at 30 June 2006, Sasol had directly employed approximately 31500 people and its turnover for the 2006 financial year was R63.85 billion (Sasol, 2006). Sasol’s market capitalization at June 2006 was R187.83 billion (Sasol, 2006). Sasol’s production is derived either from the processing of coal or feedstocks derived from petrochemical plants.

Sasol has identified five core values that have been rolled out groupwide: Safety, Winning with People, Excellence in All We Do, Continuous Improvement and Customer Focus (Sasol, 2007). Sasol has also started a process to implement “values-driven leadership” throughout the group as part of its Project Enterprise organizational renewal initiative, discussed in greater detail in a later section. The role of values in servant leadership will be discussed in the literature review chapter.
Of specific interest to the study of servant leadership is the Winning with People value. This value is discussed in greater detail in a later section.

**Sasol’s business environment**

The environment within which Sasol and its service providers operate is turbulent and fast-changing. The rapid rate of change characterizing the modern business environment is driven by factors such as globalization, technological development and high speed communications infrastructure. Some key workplace trends in such an environment are listed below (Hughes, *et al.*, 2006: From “The Herman Trend Alert”, by Roger Herman and Joyce Gioia, Strategic Business Futurists):

1. *Employment Market Turbulence.* More secure employees will stimulate unprecedented churning in the labour marketplace. This turbulence will threaten corporate stability and capacity to serve customers, particularly for employers who took employees for granted in recent years.

2. *Shift to Seller’s Market in Labour.* Employers will facilitate the most severe shortage of skilled labour in history. Corporations will become more aggressive to attract and hold top talent. People will change jobs to find their personal Employer of Choice.

3. *Fluid International Job Movement.* Economic issues and skilled labour shortages will move even more jobs to other countries. However, employers will discover that some situations are unsatisfactory and jobs will be returned.

4. *Retirement will Evaporate.* Traditional retirement will continue its metamorphosis. Retirees will move into jobs in other fields, start their own businesses, and engage in other activities to remain active and productive.

5. *Training and Education Will Accelerate.* Corporate development programmes will reach out to new employees and existing staff. Demand for vocational education will grow. Educators will be challenged to make major changes to produce graduates ready to be productive in a fast-moving world.

6. *Leadership Deficit will be Crippling.* As employees discover serious inadequacies, leadership development will take on more importance. Up and coming managers will be expected to learn and practice leadership skills before assuming new positions.
7. **Flexible Employment will Gain Popularity.** As more people work flexible hours, work from home, and use technology to work for employers in distant locations, traditional work arrangements will erode.

8. **Casual is Here to Stay.** Despite some movement to return to more formality in the workplace, informality will dominate in clothing, culture, office décor, and workplace structural design.

9. **Advantage of Agility.** Companies will re-create themselves to be more agile, nimble, and responsive to customers and employees. Relationships, resources, knowledge, and speed will become strategic weapons.

10. **Workers Become Independent.** More people will become independent contractors, selling their services on a project, contract or set-term basis. This movement will stimulate the emergence of specialized staffing firms and electronic communities to connect workers with employers.

Many of these challenges are currently being experienced by Sasol. In such an environment, the correct leadership approach and philosophy are paramount. In response to its skills development and retention challenge, Sasol recently launched Project TalentGro (Sasol, 2007) aimed at ensuring that it has the required human capital to support its sustainable growth strategy.

**Winning with People**

Sasol (No date) state that the purpose of the winning with people value is to encourage the emergence of “Employees who exemplify the desired behaviours applicable to the Sasol Value - Winning with People” (Sasol, No date:1). Criteria used to identify such employees are: “We reward performance and the promoting and harnessing of diversity. We respect and encourage individuals to grow as unique contributors both to their teams and the entire organisation.” (Sasol, No date:1). These statements seem to reflect a blend between Jackson’s (1999) Instrumental and Humanistic views of people in the Sasol organization.

Sasol (No date:1) list the following behaviours as being compatible with the Winning with People value:

- “We leverage and manage diversity to the benefit of Sasol and all our people
- We seek to create stimulating work environments and are committed to the principle of fair and equitable employment practices, including those relating to employment equity
- We treat all people with dignity and respect and do not tolerate any discriminatory practices
- We are sensitive to the needs and circumstances of our colleagues and thrive on team-based behaviour
- We ensure that systems are in place to encourage and reward performance
- We empower people so that they can manage their own activities and encourage them to engage in a lifelong process of self-learning and development"

Some examples of these behaviours are listed as follows by Sasol in (Sasol, No date:1)
- “Applies discretion fairly in dealing with people
- Treats each person as an individual (considers the individual, but does not exclude the team)
- Regarded as an influencer – walks the talk
- Inspires people – envisages people to walk with him/her
- Empowers people to take responsibility for actions - personal development and innovation”

The statements above reflect the concern and regard for the wellbeing of its people that are desired by Sasol; however, as discussed later, some challenges still remain in adapting the behaviour of Sasol’s leaders to align with the above objectives.

Many of the objectives listed above by Sasol as relates to its people are compatible with the philosophy of servant leaders discussed earlier, especially being sensitive to the needs of its people, treating people with dignity and respect, empowering people and leveraging diversity. However, Sasol lists as one of its examples of effective behaviours that of treating each person as an individual. This may conflict with the prevailing African culture within South Africa, which is characterized more by communalism and collectivism (Ngambi, 2004; Nkomo and Booysen, 2006; Jackson, 1999). This may become more of a challenge as Sasol’s workforce diversifies and starts to incorporate members of African cultural groups to a greater extent.
According to (Sasol, 2007), representation from Black Males and Females in South African management and higher positions was 32% and for all employees, 56% as at the end of 2006. These figures reflect the increasing diversity of Sasol’s workforce in South Africa and the need to adapt its leadership styles accordingly.

In addition to increasing its South African diversity, Sasol is rapidly globalizing. It has recently completed construction of operating plants as part of joint ventures in Qatar, Malaysia and Iran, has acquired a company with operations in Europe and the United States and is currently busy with investigations to construct plants in China, India, Australia and the United States (Sasol, 2006). Such geographical diversity increases Sasol’s leadership challenge. As discussed earlier, many of the universally endorsed attributes of leaders as part of the GLOBE project are compatible with the servant leadership model and servant leadership attributes and behaviours may become more relevant and useful in the future to Sasol. However, apart from one qualitative study that has found that servant leader attributes and behaviours are indeed applicable in the African context (Ngambi, 2004) limited empirical research exists to date on this aspect of servant leadership. As will be discussed in the next chapter, servant leader attributes and behaviours have been found to be effective in the Western context. This points to the possible universal effectiveness of servant leadership since it is rooted in basic humanity, which is constant globally.

**Project Enterprise**

Project Enterprise was launched by Sasol in 2005 in order to implement a culture of values-driven leadership and reinvent Sasol’s culture to be better aligned with its corporate strategic intent (see appendix 1). In appendix 1, Sasol’s CEO described Sasol’s change imperative in the following terms:

1. “We have created a great organization within a complex environment, based on several well entrenched values
   a. Genuine pride and focus on performance.
   b. A passion and deep capability in developing technology.
   c. Independent business units.

2. Within this culture, being successful at Sasol has depended largely on
   a. Technical ability.
   b. Significant commitment to the company.
d. Pro-actively managing one’s own career.

3. However, our business context and growth strategy require new ways of working, interacting and leading
   a. Relationship with SA government.
   b. More robust and well-communicated commitment to transformation.

4. And in several areas we are poorly prepared for these challenges
   a. BU culture shaped by individual personalities.
   b. We struggle to retain young and diverse talent.”

Project Enterprise was launched as the vehicle to implement this change and make Sasol a values-driven organization. Values-driven leadership is seen as the foundation of Sasol’s strategic agenda, which will help it to realize its vision, as depicted in figure 2.9.

![Figure 2.9: The Journey of Sasol (from Appendix 1, Sasol, 2007)](image)

Project Enterprise seeks to achieve the 5 “priority behaviour shifts” depicted in figure 2.10.
Figure 2.10: Five Priority Behaviour Shifts (Appendix 1, Sasol, 2007)

Of note with respect to the five priority behaviour shifts is that all of them are characteristic of servant-leaders, especially the behaviour third from the top, “Place care and development at the core of what we do” and “Create meaning and make a difference”. Associated with this theme, columns 2 and 3 show that people’s ways of thinking within Sasol should shift from “Shareholder” to “Stakeholders”. As discussed above, servant leaders try to balance the interests of all stakeholders, especially those of the employees, and recognize that the business exists for a purpose higher than simply meeting financial objectives that are of interest to shareholders.

However, an important aspect of servant leadership, i.e. “creating a great dream that unifies members of the organization” appears not to be prominent on the Project Enterprise agenda. Such a dream is alluded to by the fifth priority behaviour shift in figure 2.10 but does not appear to be clearly articulated, although it appears to some extent in the vision statement given in figure 2.10.

As part of Project Enterprise, Sasol seeks to change its culture to one based on values-driven leadership. In order to assist in this endeavour, it has adopted the model of organizational culture developed by the Barrett organization and given in figure 2.11.
The seven levels of organizational consciousness that represent the prevailing culture at a macro level are described in column 2 above and are shown associated with Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. Of interest is that “Service” to society and the “Common Good” are shown right at the top of this model, and as discussed earlier, Service to society is one of the key motives of the servant-leader. Typical perspectives characteristic of organizations at each of the seven levels are given in Figure 2.12. The fifth priority behaviour shift listed in figure 2.10 suggests that Sasol would like to shift its culture to a blend between levels 5 and 6 in the Barrett model. This may evolve over time to the Service to society culture and mindset as the organization matures. Later sections discuss the prevailing cultures as assessed by the Barrett survey within the two divisions of Sasol selected for the survey discussed later in this report.

Figure 2.11: Organizational Culture Model in the Barrett Survey (Appendix 1, Sasol, 2007)
As discussed earlier, businesses exist to meet the needs of their stakeholders in a balanced manner. A short term focus on financial results and shareholder value creation is characteristic of the lowest level (Level 1) of corporate consciousness in the Barrett model.

**Sasol Secunda Shared Services**

The Sasol Secunda Shared Services (SSSS) department of Sasol was formed in 2006 and focuses on providing the following services to Sasol Synfuels (Pty) Ltd and Sasol Mining (Pty) Ltd, two business units forming part of the Sasol Energy Cluster:

- Finance and Accounting;
- Human Resources;
- Information Management;
- Maintenance Support;
- Facilities (Emergency & Medical Services, Buildings, Terrains and Housing, Laboratories & Protection Services);
- Procurement and Supply Management;
- Corporate Affairs

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**Figure 2.12: The Seven Levels of Consciousness (Appendix 1, Sasol, 2007)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corporate Consciousness</th>
<th>Organisational Focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SERVICE TO SOCIETY</td>
<td>7: LONG TERM VIABILITY &amp; SERVICE TO HUMANITY Long term perspective, Future generations, Ethics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAKING A DIFFERENCE</td>
<td>6: COLLABORATION, STRATEGIC ALLIANCES Strategic Alliances, Employee fulfilment, Environmental Awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INTERNAL COHESION</td>
<td>5: SHARED VISION, STRONG COHESIVE CULTURE Positive, creative corporate culture, Shared vision and values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRANSFORMATION</td>
<td>4: CONTINUOUS RENEWAL &amp; LEARNING Learning and innovation, Growth through employee participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELF-ESTEEM</td>
<td>3: BEST PRACTICE, HIGH PERFORMANCE SYSTEMS Productivity, efficiency, quality, systems and processes Bureaucracy, Complacency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RELATIONSHIP</td>
<td>2: RELATIONS THAT SUPPORT THE ORGANISATION Good communications between employees, customers and suppliers Manipulation, Blame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SURVIVAL</td>
<td>1: FINANCIAL STABILITY, SHAREHOLDER VALUE Financial soundness, Employee health and safety Exploitation, Over control</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Inflection between internal & external focus*
This study focuses specifically on the Procurement and Supply Management (P&SM) division of SSSS. The P&SM division consists of the following departments: Procurement Management, Material Synfuels & Reclamation, Material Mining & Inventory, Supplier Accreditation, Supply Chain Efficiency and Master Data. The P&SM division deals with all aspects involved in the procurement and management of goods and services obtained from external suppliers.

According to data provided by their Human Resources department to the researcher, SSSS employs approximately 2500 people on a full-time basis, all based close to the Sasol Synfuels plant in Secunda. As is evident from the list above the SSSS department provides mission-critical services to its business partners, some of which are core to their value chains. As such, SSSS needs to be a highly customer-focused business that responds rapidly to the requests and requirements of its customers. The complex nature of the services it offers means that its staff need to be competent, committed and effective. The staff also need to be empowered to make decisions in a manner that ensures optimum customer service. Such an environment seems especially suited to the application of servant leadership principles.

The results of the Barrett organizational culture assessment survey conducted in 2007 within P&SM are given in figures 2.13 and 2.14 (Sasol, 2007a). Figure 2.13 gives the top 10 values identified in each of the following categories: Personal Values, Current Culture and Desired Culture, while figure 2.14 gives the total responses received for all culture descriptors.

Figure 2.13 indicates that there is some alignment between employees’ desired culture and the current culture, with the following cultural values common to both: continuous improvement, customer satisfaction and employee recognition. There is a major mismatch between personal value and current culture values indicating that people are not able to bring themselves to work, i.e. they need to adapt their personal value system to the prevailing paradigm within SSSS P&SM. Figure 2.14 indicates an “entropy” of 27%, where entropy denotes the number of potentially limiting values identified, as a percentage of total values identified. This is a high figure indicating that significant problems exist that require attention.
In 2008 an “Employee Engagement” (appendix 2) survey was conducted by SSSS within their business unit and the results for the P&SM division are given in appendix 2. SSSS defined employee engagement in appendix 2 (slide 2) as follows:
“Employee engagement is the means or strategy by which an organization seeks to build a partnership between the organization and its employees, such that:

- Employees fully understand and are committed to achieve the organisation’s objectives, and
- The organisation respects personal aspirations and ambitions of its employees
- It is seen largely the organisation’s responsibility to create an environment and culture conducive to this partnership.”

The concept of employee engagement seems similar to the “psychological contract” construct studied as part of organisational behaviour studies and is measured through 12 questions listed in slides 5 and 6 of appendix 2.

According to SSSS, research has shown that higher levels of employee engagement increase the levels of motivation, job satisfaction, performance and values driven behaviour. Turnover and absenteeism are reduced the higher an organization scores on employee engagement.

The results of the February 2008 engagement survey for the P&SM division showed that 80.3% of respondents are “engaged” as opposed to 49.8% in July 2007, a remarkable improvement of 30.5%. A total of 242 persons responded in February 2008 as opposed to 114 in July 2007. Figures 2.15 and 2.16 show the results of the engagement survey for P&SM and point to the possible existence of a positive leadership style and culture within the division. The extent of servant leader behaviours will be measured as part of the survey conducted by the writer within P&SM.

The high employee engagement score seems to suggest an improvement in the culture since the Barrett survey was conducted.
Procurement and Supply Management - Engagement Score - February 08

Figure 2.15: SSSS P&SM Engagement Score Summary (Appendix 2)

Sasol Secunda Shared Services PSM - Engagement Dimensions

Q12 - Over the past six months I have made progress at work
Q11 - I have opportunities to learn and grow at work
Q10 - At work, my opinions seems to count
Q9 - I do know what this company wants to achieve
Q8 - I share a sense of commitment to the work we do with my colleagues
Q7 - I have really good friends at work
Q6 - At work, I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day
Q5 - In the last seven days, I have received recognition or praise for doing good work
Q4 - I know that there are people at work that care about me
Q3 - Someone at work encourages my development
Q2 - I know what is expected of me at work
Q1 - I have the materials and equipment to do my work right

Figure 2.16: SSSS P&SM Engagement Score per Dimension (Appendix 2)
Sasol Group Services: Group Strategic Sourcing

Sasol Group Services (SGS) is the holding company within the Sasol group of which the SSSS forms a part. In addition to SSSS, other SGS departments render services such as finance, insurance services and shared human resources management functions to the rest of the Sasol group. The Group Strategic Sourcing (GSS) division of SGS renders a service aimed at reducing Sasol’s total cost of ownership of goods and services procured from external suppliers. This includes understanding and optimizing costs that arise during the complete life cycle of the goods and services within Sasol’s operations. Also forming part of GSS’s service offering is the creation and management of group contracts for goods and services that have a high spend or impact upon Sasol’s operations. As at the end of June 2007, GSS managed a total direct external spend of approximately R 8 billion on behalf of the Sasol group. The GSS value proposition incorporates the extraction of maximum long-term value out of this spend.

Group Strategic Sourcing comprises approximately 98 full-time employees, spread across three geographical regions, Secunda, Sasolburg and Johannesburg. GSS implements its value proposition through a careful understanding of Sasol’s businesses and identifying various opportunities for total cost of ownership reduction. This is done through extensive interaction with stakeholders in the form of cross-divisional and cross-functional networks, and carefully understanding and analyzing the needs of its stakeholders.

During the course of 2007 a leadership survey was conducted within the Group Strategic Sourcing division and the survey listed the following top 10 behaviours to increase (Horn, 2007):

- give positive rewards to others
- involve subordinates in decisions
- enjoy their work
- resolve conflicts constructively
- think in unique and independent ways
- be supportive of others
- treat people as more important than things

During the course of 2007 a leadership survey was conducted within the Group Strategic Sourcing division and the survey listed the following top 10 behaviours to increase (Horn, 2007):

- give positive rewards to others
- involve subordinates in decisions
- enjoy their work
- resolve conflicts constructively
- think in unique and independent ways
- be supportive of others
- treat people as more important than things
- show concern for the needs of others
- help others to grow and develop
- be open, warm

Group Strategic Sourcing personnel were requested to complete questionnaires rating their leaders on the above behaviours. Most leaders scored an average of 3 out of 5 on these behaviours, many of which are the same as the recommended behaviours for servant leaders, especially “treat people as more important than things” and “help others grow and develop”. The relatively low scores on these behaviours point to the need for a change in leadership style.

The following top 10 behaviours were listed to be decreased (Horn, 2007):
- please those in positions of authority
- switch priorities to please others
- play “politics” to gain influence
- follow orders… even when they’re wrong
- compete rather than cooperate
- win against others
- accept goals without questioning them
- never challenge superiors
- use the authority of their position
- treat rules as more important than ideas

Here again, leaders and the general culture within group strategic sourcing were rated on average 3 out of 5 for the extent to which team members experience the frequency of such behaviours.

As part of Project Enterprise a Barrett survey was conducted by Sasol across the entire company in 2007 (Sasol, 2007a). The results for Group Strategic Sourcing are given in appendix 1 and summarized in figure 2.17 below for the top 10 values found. Figure 2.18 gives the results for all values.
Figure 2.17: Results of Barrett Survey for Group Strategic Sourcing: Top 10 values (Appendix 1)

Figure 2.18: Results of Barrett Survey for Group Strategic Sourcing: All values

A mismatch is noted between respondent’s personal values, their desired culture and the current culture within GSS. Several cultural values identified as potentially
limiting (PL) in figure 2.17 are identified within GSS, including bureaucracy, arrogance and control. Such findings are compatible with the findings of the leadership survey conducted within GSS and discussed above, which identified the top 10 behaviours to decrease. Several of the personal values identified by respondents are compatible with that of servant leadership, such as integrity, making a difference, balance and personal growth, although few personal values form part of the “Service” level discussed in the section describing Project Enterprise. A disturbing finding is the relatively high level of Entropy, with approximately 31% of all values identified being classified as potentially limiting.

An earlier survey conducted within GSS in 2005 serves to further illuminate the organizational culture prevalent within GSS. The results are given in figure 2.19.

Figure 2.19: Results of Organizational Culture Survey within GSS (Appendix 3)

GSS scores relatively low (average score of 69%) on dimensions of culture considered constructive by its management. Of note is the low scores on the Humanistic-Encouraging and Affiliative dimensions and the relatively higher scores on the Achievement and Self-Actuating dimensions. These dimensions are defined by GSS as follows in Appendix 3:

1. An Achievement Culture: characterises organisations that do things well and value members who set and accomplish their own goals.
2. Self-Actuating Culture: characterises organisations that value creativity, quality over quantity, and both task accomplishment and individual growth.
3. Humanistic-Encouraging: culture that characterises organisations that are managed in a participative and person-centred way.

4. Affiliative: characterises organisations that place a high priority on constructive interpersonal relationships.

The results of a similar survey conducted in March 2006 are given in figure 2.20 below. Again, it is notable that GSS score low on people-oriented culture elements such as self-actualization, affiliative and humanistic-encouraging. It is clear in figure 2.20 that employees prefer a far higher level of people-oriented styles than was prevalent in March 2006.

Figure 2.20: Results of Organizational Culture Survey within GSS (March 2006)

Servant-leader led organisations are probably higher than what GSS scored on the humanistic-encouraging and affiliative culture dimensions. GSS appears to be a performance-drive organisation that sets challenging goals and emphasizes these at the expense of other cultural dimensions. Of note is the relatively low score on the Trust culture dimension. The extent of servant-leader behaviours will be measured for GSS and compared with the culture scores listed above. It is likely that the adoption of servant-leader behaviours will result in an increase in dimensions of constructive culture for GSS.
Chapter 3: Literature Review

The previous chapter provided the theoretical foundation for this study but did not discuss the results of empirical research on the subject of servant leadership. This extends the discussions in the previous chapter by discussing such research and by reviewing some of the views of researchers on servant leaders and servant leadership.

1 The philosophical basis for servant leadership

Several writers have expounded on the philosophical basis for servant leadership. Stephen Covey, one of the world’s foremost thinkers on personal transformation and leadership, writes (Covey, 2006) that organizations are “founded to serve human needs” and that there is “no other reason for their existence”. This view echoes that discussed in chapter 1 that business organisations do not merely exist in order to meet the financial needs of their owners, but to serve the needs of all their stakeholders. Covey (2006) states that the top people of great organizations are servant-leaders, characterized by traits such as humility, reverence, openness, ability to teach, respectfulness and caring. He contends that leaders should not use their positions to influence others since this prevents the development of moral authority and builds weakness in oneself. Moral authority is gained by service, sacrifice and contribution (Covey, 2006).

Riverstone (2004) proposes that servant leadership is a sign of a value shift termed “post-materialism” which began to occur in America and other industrialized countries after World War II as political and economic needs of people became met, and people began to seek new types, or higher levels of, satisfaction. She describes how the human relations school of thought challenged orthodox views on how people should be treated within organisations, such as Taylor’s scientific management school of thought, which viewed people mechanistically, in a “cog-like” manner. She discusses how human relations scholars proposed that peoples’ satisfaction and happiness have an impact upon organisational efficiency and how this view has manifested in greater participation of people in improvement programmes such as
total quality management, empowerment and participative leadership. She writes that servant leadership allows leaders and followers to meet higher level psychological, mental, emotional and spiritual needs in addition to ensuring improved organizational performance.

Sendjaya and Sarros (2002) discuss the philosophical basis of servant leadership and state that servant leadership is distinguished from other theories of leadership by the primary intent and self-concept of servant leaders. The servant leader’s primary intent is to serve others first, not lead others first and his self-concept is servant and steward, not leader or owner. They reveal that although Robert K Greenleaf is credited with a widely used conceptualization of the concept of servant leadership, it has been in practice for thousands of years. There is a strong tradition of servant leadership in various religions such as Christianity, Buddhism and Hinduism. Monarchs and political leaders have often acknowledged that they are in service of their countries and their people. The leadership of the African National Congress for example, believe that they are there to serve their people. So the principle that the leader exists to serve the interests of his/her followers is ancient and can be traced back to ancient texts and writings of many communities in the world.

Spears (2004) states that interest in the practice of servant-leadership is now at an all-time high. Many books have been published on this subject, various organizations have adopted the principles of servant leadership and hundreds of journal articles have been published on this topic in accredited leadership and management journals and magazines. Among the leading organizations in the US that have adopted the principles of servant leadership are Toro Company, Synovus Financial Corporation, ServiceMaster Company, the Men’s Wearhouse, Southwest Airlines and TDIndustries. TDIndustries has consistently ranked in Fortune magazine’s 100 Best Companies to Work for in America. Sendjaya & Sarros (2002) reveal that three of the five best places in Fortune’s January 2000 “Top 100 Best Companies to Work for in America” were held by Southwest Airlines, TDIndustries and Synovus Financial.

Sendjaya and Sarros (2002) quote the words of Chairman and CEO of Synovus Financial Corporation, Jimmy Blanchard as follows: “The heart of the servant-leader brings order, brings meaning to employees. When employees feel order and meaning and that they are a part of a team that stands for something good, that there
is a higher calling than just working to get a paycheck, that they are improving mankind, there is an energy level that explodes and great things happen.”

2 Attributes of servant leaders

This section discusses the attributes of servant leaders that have been identified as part of general research on servant leadership. The discussions in this section supplement the discussions on servant leader attributes given in the previous chapter.

2.1 Russell and Stone

Russell (2001) discusses the role of values in servant leadership and reveals that values play an important role in the choices we make. A leader’s values affect his relationship with followers, his moral reasoning and personal behaviour. Servant leaders are characterized by the following values: humility, respect for others, honesty, integrity, equality and love. Honesty and integrity are especially important in ensuring interpersonal and organizational trust and “trust holds together servant-led organizations” (Russell, 2001:81).

Russell and Stone (2002) identified at least 20 distinguishable attributes of servant leaders in the literature. They classified these into functional and accompanying attributes, where “functional attributes are the operative qualities, characteristics and distinctive features belonging to leaders and observed through specific behaviours” while “accompanying attributes appear to supplement and augment the functional attributes” (Russell and Stone, 2002: 146-147). Table 3.1 lists the attributes identified by Russell and Stone.

Table 3.1: Servant leader attributes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Functional attributes</th>
<th>Accompanying attributes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Vision</td>
<td>1. Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Honesty</td>
<td>2. Credibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Integrity</td>
<td>3. Competence</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Trust</td>
<td>4. Stewardship</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Service</td>
<td>5. Visibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Pioneering</td>
<td>7. Persuasion</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Appreciation of others</td>
<td>8. Listening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. Teaching</td>
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<td></td>
<td>11. Delegation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Each attribute is briefly discussed below (Russell and Stone, 2002):

1. **Vision.** This refers to the “great dream” that leaders need to have for their organizations that Greenleaf identified, as discussed in chapter 2.

2. **Communication.** The ability to communicate, live, role model and share the vision in an inspiring and uplifting manner.

3. **Honesty and integrity.** These include truth-telling, keeping promises, being fair and having respect for the individual.

4. **Credibility.** This is the “quality, capability or power to elicit belief” from followers (Russell and Stone, 2002:148).

5. **Trust.** This refers to firm reliance on the integrity, ability or character of a person or thing and is one of the most significant factors that underlie effective leader-follower relations. As discussed earlier, honesty and integrity are essential to build trust.

6. **Competence.** This refers to a leader’s demonstrated competence in their jobs by possessing the requisite skills, knowledge and abilities.

7. **Service.** Russell and Stone (2002) quote Fairholm’s (1998) definition of service as “...making available to followers information, time, attention, material and other resources and the higher corporate purposes that give meaning to their work”.

8. **Stewardship.** This involves managing the property or affairs of another person and is a position of trust and service. It also encompasses empowerment in that it recognizes that both leaders and followers must be stewards.

9. **Modelling.** Setting a personal example for followers.

10. **Visibility.** This is the “public presence, behaviour and interactions of leaders with their followers” (Russell and Stone, 2002:150).

11. **Pioneering.** This involves risk taking, creating new paths, shaping new approaches to old problems, initiating and innovating. It requires that a leader
have courage. This quality is similar to Chibber’s Taking Initiative and Courage, discussed in chapter 2.

12. Influence. This means the exercising of a determining effect on the behaviours of group members and on activities of the group.

13. Persuasion. Being able to convince followers about the correctness of the leader’s request without the use of manipulation or coercion.

14. Appreciation of others. Visibly demonstrating appreciation, care, value and encouragement of others. It also means showing unconditional love in the workplace, demonstrating empathy, warmth, giving, healing, involvement and enrichment of others.

15. Listening. Actively asking, listening and hearing what others say. This is a crucial part of delegating and empowerment.

16. Encouragement. Encouraging, communicating and “cheerleading”. Also includes giving recognition and making people feel valuable.

17. Empowerment. Entrusting others, investing with power and authorizing people. Servant leaders should establish vision and direction, but empower others to determine how to reach goals. Also involves delegation, but with abdicating accountability.

18. Teaching. Involves bringing forth and developing the talents of others, questioning in order to facilitate learning, coaching and role modelling.

19. Delegation. Involves offering choices and encouraging followers to take ownership of responsibilities. Also includes sharing responsibility and authority.

2.2 Wong and Page


1. Character-Orientaton (Being: what kind of person is the leader?). Concerned with cultivating a servant’s attitude, focusing on the leader’s values, credibility and motive.
   - Integrity
   - Humility
Servanthood

2. People-Orientation (Relating: How does the leader relate to others?). Concerned with developing human resources, focusing on the leader’s relationship with people and his/her commitment to develop others.

- Caring for others
- Empowering others
- Developing others

3. Task-Orientation (Doing: what does the leader do?). Concerned with achieving productivity and success, focusing on the leader’s tasks and skills necessary for success.

- Visioning
- Goal setting
- Leading

4. Process-Orientation (Organizing: How does the leader impact organizational processes?). Concerned with increasing the efficiency of the organization, focusing the leader’s ability to model and develop a flexible, efficient and open system.

- Modeling
- Team building
- Shared decision-making

Wong and Page (2003) depict the above model graphically in figure 3.1 below, showing that the servant leader is primarily determined by his character, which encompasses a servant heart. The last circle in figure 3.1 indicates the wider impact of servant leadership on society and culture.

The notion that character, and what a leader is within, determines in large part how he behaves and relates to others corresponds closely with the views of the proponents of the three servant leadership theories discussed in chapter 2. Wong and Page (2003) further discuss two obstacles that prevent the emergence of servant leadership: authoritarian hierarchy and egoistical pride.

Authoritarian hierarchy prevents the emergence of servant leadership, since it is more likely to result in the authoritarian style flourishing. Organizations need to change from hierarchical to horizontal and participatory for servant leadership to

Figure 3.1: Expanding Circles of Servant Leaders (Wong and Page, 2003:4)

Egoistic pride prevents the emergence of servant leadership since it encourages selfish and self-centred behaviour amongst leaders. Egoistic pride is especially prevalent in individualistic and competitive cultures such as the United States. To practice servant leadership, leaders need to “empty themselves and their pride, their selfishness and worldly aspirations” (Wong and Page, 2003:7).

Wong and Page (2003) developed a Revised Servant Leadership Profile (RSLP), based on their findings that authoritative hierarch and egoistic pride block the emergence of servant leadership. The RSLP is an extension of their previous work which includes items that measure these two negative attributes of leaders.

The RSLP initially included 10 subscales – 8 representing the presence of servant leadership characteristics and 2 representing authoritarian hierarch and egotistic
pride. Field-testing of the RSLP through an online survey involving 165 respondents yielded 8 distinguishable factors:

- Developing and empowering others
- Power and pride (Vulnerability and Humility)
- Visionary leadership
- Servanthood
- Responsible leadership
- Integrity (honesty)
- Integrity (authenticity)
- Courageous leadership

Wong and Page (2003) describe how the implementation of servant leadership in an organization is made more effective through community building, one of the behaviours of servant leaders identified by Robert Greenleaf and discussed in chapter 2. They list ten characteristics of community in the workplace.

### 2.3 Sendjaya, Sarros and Santora

Sendjaya and Sarros (2002) elaborate on the concept of stewardship as being a key facet of servant leadership. Stewardship can be likened to the modern concept of a trustee, i.e. someone to whom something of value is trusted. This is distinct from the concept of “ownership”. Block (1993) has elaborated that the concept of stewardship is essentially one that involves being accountable for the well-being of the larger community by operating in the service of those around us.

Sendjaya, et al. (2008) discuss the attributes of servant leaders and the development of an instrument, the Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale (SLBS), to measure servant leadership behaviours. They discuss other leadership approaches that are complementary to servant leadership, such as transformational leadership, authentic leadership and spiritual leadership and extend these and other servant leadership theories by showing that servant leaders emphasise service, follower, and moral-spiritual dimensions. Their theoretical framework is provided in figure 3.2.
Sendjaya, et al. (2008) introduce into the description of the servant leadership construct the central role of spirituality and morality-ethics. They argue that “the intent to serve others does not naturally emerge in leaders, nor does it happen in a vacuum. Instead serving others is driven by the leaders’ spiritual insights and humility” (Sendjaya, et al., 2008:410). In contrast, other instruments developed by researchers to measure servant leadership omit these two important dimensions.
Each of the six different dimensions of servant leadership behaviour identified by Sendjaya, et al. (2008) is briefly discussed below.

1. **Voluntary subordination.** This refers to “the willingness to take up opportunities to serve others whenever there is a legitimate need regardless of the nature of the service, the person served, or the mood of the leader.” (Sendjaya, et al., 2008:406). Self-seeking leaders only serve others when it is convenient or in their own interests. The voluntary nature of service that servant leaders exercise implies that servant leadership is more about being a servant than doing acts of service, i.e. it is about a leader’s character or ‘being’.

2. **Authentic self.** “Since their leadership flows out of ‘being’, servant leaders are capable of leading authentically, as manifested in their consistent display of humility, integrity, accountability, security and vulnerability” (Sendjaya, et al., 2008:407). They have a secure sense of self which enables them to receive criticism without becoming defensive, be held accountable and make themselves vulnerable to others.

3. **Covenantal Relationships.** Servant leaders accept people for who they are, engage with others as equal partners and build covenant-based relationships, characterized by shared values, open-ended commitment, mutual trust and mutual concern for the other person’s wellbeing.’

4. **Responsible Morality.** Servant leaders seek to ensure that both the ends they seek and the means they employ to achieve these ends are morally legitimized, thoughtfully reasoned and ethically justified. Servant leadership also promotes others to engage in post-conventional moral reasoning in the organization, which “relies on internalized principles of justice and right rather than the expectations of others, attainment of reward, or avoidance of punishment” (Sendjaya, et al., 2008:407). Servant leadership also fosters behaviours which improve the ethical climate of the organization.

5. **Transcendental Spirituality.** The servant leader is attuned to basic spiritual values and, in serving them, serves others. They also restore a sense of wholeness to people and foster a ‘holistic, integrated life’ to individuals in the modern workplace whose lives are often disconnected, compartmentalized and disoriented. They are attuned to a sense of interconnectedness between the internal self and the external world, the awareness of which enables them to engage in meaningful and intrinsically motivating work.
6. *Transforming influence.* This notion is central to the concept of servant leadership, and servant leadership is demonstrated through the transformation of those served on dimensions such as emotional stability, intellect, social relationships and spirit. The personal transformation servant leaders bring about eventually brings about positive changes in organizations and society. The transforming influence occurs through behaviours such as role modelling, mentoring, empowering and trust.

The validity and reliability of the SLBS were verified through a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods, including interviews with 15 senior executives, judgement-quantification analysis by content experts, confirmatory factor analysis and internal consistency reliability estimation by calculating Cronbach’s alpha scores for each sub-scale and the overall instrument. Internal consistency reliabilities of all six factors exceeded the recommended level of 0.70, ranging from 0.72 to 0.93 (Sendjaya, *et al.*, 2008). The verification of predictive and concurrent validity of the SBLS was not conducted and offers opportunity for further research.

### 2.4 Winston, Patterson and Dennis

Winston (2003) presents an extension to Patterson's servant leadership model, by developing a circular model that includes aspects of how the follower responds to servant leadership behaviours from the leader. The model is given in figure 3.3. The first part of the model is that developed by Patterson, and the second part refers to Winston’s extensions. The model is circular in that the leader’s behaviours modify those of the follower and vice versa in a self-reinforcing cycle, dependent on the level of maturity of the follower.

The different elements of the model are briefly discussed below.

1. *Agapao Love.* This refers to loving followers in a moral or social sense. It embraces considering others with a sense of value and humaneness, not just as a means to an end. Winston (2003) identifies seven background values for Agapao Love: humility (or ‘teachableness’), concern for others, controlled discipline, seeking what is right and good for the organization, showing mercy in
beliefs and actions with people, focusing on the purpose of the organization and the well-being of followers, creating and sustaining peace in the organization.

2. **Humility.** The absence of self-glorification, the ability to keep one's talents and accomplishments in perspective, being focused on others instead of self, and recognising that one can learn from others.

3. **Altruism.** Having concern for others and making personal sacrifices (when required) to care for and improve the welfare of followers without concern for personal reward.

4. **Vision.** The leader’s vision of the role of the follower in the organization. The leader seeks to know what the follower would like to do in the organization, and what and how he would like to improve. This may involve the leader modifying the organization’s procedures and methods to suit the wishes of the follower.

5. **Trust.** Belief by the leader in the followers ability to accomplish goals.

6. **Empowerment.** Providing the follower with power, authority, accountability, responsibility and resources to achieve what the follower wants to achieve. It also involves clarifying expectations, goals, responsibilities and allows for the possibility of failure so that the follower can learn and develop. It occurs in stages to facilitate the gradual growth and development of the follower. The leader empowers the follower in accordance with the level of concordance between the
follower’s vision and the organization’s vision together with the level of trust the leader has in the follower (Winston, 2004).

7. *Service.* Providing the follower with what is needed so that the follower can accomplish tasks.

8. *Commitment to the leader.* The level of a follower’s positive belief towards a leader.

9. *Self-efficacy.* A follower’s perception of his level of capability, i.e. what he can and can’t do. This quality has an influence upon several aspects, such as the actions people undertake, how much effort they exert, how long they persevere when faced with difficulties, their resilience to adversity, their thought patterns (self-hindering or self-aiding), their level of stress and depression and the level of accomplishment they realize. A person’s level of self-efficacy is influenced by their self-concept (either positive or negative). The follower’s self-efficacy increases as a result of the leader’s trust and empowerment (Winston, 2004).

10. *Intrinsic motivation.* The innate propensity to engage one’s interest and exercise one’s capacities. The individual is self-motivated, not by rewards or punishments but by the fulfilment of the individual’s own needs and desires, e.g. the will to succeed. The follower’s intrinsic motivation increases since he is working in line with his own vision, purpose and self-concordance (Winston, 2004).

Winston (2004) conducted a case study on servant leadership at Heritage Bible College to test the model discussed above. The Servant-Shepherd Leadership Indicator was used to measure the extent of the leader’s conformance with servant leadership and the other data for the study were collected in a qualitative manner using structured interviews. The results of the case study support the variables of the model presented above.

Dennis & Bocarnea (2005) attempted to develop a measurement instrument to measure Patterson’s theory of servant leadership. The seven component concepts, agapao love, humility, altruism, vision, empowerment, trust and service, were used to build items for a servant leadership instrument, using DeVellis’ “Guidelines in Scale Development” (Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005). A jury of experts was gathered to review each item and items were added, deleted and modified as required. A survey was then conducted, which obtained 300 usable responses. After factor analysis, five factors for servant leadership: *empowerment, love, humility, trust,* and *vision,*
were identified using the 42-item survey instrument. Dennis and Bocarnea (2005) wrote that this could be due to the questionnaire items used to measure altruism and service were not specific enough to measure these distinctly from the other factors of the model. It was also possible that these qualities were not present in the leaders that were rated. They recommend that these two factors be retained and that other surveys be conducted in organizations that have been identified as servant-led to test for these two factors.

2.5 Barbuto and Wheeler

Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) developed an integrated construct of servant leadership. Based on the work of Greenleaf and Spears, subscale items were developed to measure 11 potential dimensions of servant leadership: Calling, listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, growth, and community building. They added the dimension of “calling” to the ten characteristics of servant leaders identified by Spears (2004). They used data from 80 leaders and 388 raters to test the internal consistency, confirm factor structure, and assess convergent, divergent, and predictive validity of these 11 dimensions and their results produced five servant leadership factors – altruistic calling, emotional healing, persuasive mapping, wisdom, and organizational stewardship. They found strong factor structures and good performance in all validity criteria, which indicate that their servant leadership assessment instrument offers value for future research on servant leadership.

Barbuto and Wheeler (2006:304-309) operationalized the 11 potential dimensions of servant leadership as follows:

- **Calling.** “a desire to serve and willingness to sacrifice self-interest for the benefit of others.”
- **Listening.** The “ability to hear and value the ideas of others.”
- **Empathy.** The “ability to appreciate the circumstances that others face.”
- **Healing.** An “ability to recognize when and how to foster the healing process.”
- **Awareness.** An “ability to notice what is happening by picking up cues in the environment.”
• **Persuasion.** “An ability to influence others by means outside of formal authority.”
• **Conceptualization.** “Fostering an environment that uses mental models and encourages lateral thinking.”
• **Foresight.** “An ability to anticipate the future and its consequences.”
• **Stewardship.** “Believing organizations have a legacy to uphold and must purposefully contribute to society.”
• **Growth.** “An ability to identify others’ needs and provide developmental opportunities.”
• **Community building.** “An ability to instill a sense of community spirit in an organization.

Research quoted by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) confirm that all these dimensions are positively related to various commonly used measures of leadership effectiveness. Their research identified the five factors listed above and derived from the 11 potential servant leadership characteristics, which all appear to be conceptually and empirically distinct. Barbuto and Wheeler (2006: 318-319) describe these factors in greater detail as follows:

• “Altruistic calling describes a leader’s deep-rooted desire to make a positive difference in others’ lives. It is a generosity of the spirit consistent with a philanthropic purpose in life. Because the ultimate goal is to serve, leaders high in altruistic calling will put others’ interests ahead of their own and will diligently work to meet followers’ needs.
• “Emotional healing describes a leader’s commitment to and skill in fostering spiritual recovery from hardship and trauma.” Such leaders are empathetic, good listeners and create environments that are safe for employees to voice personal and professional issues.
• “Wisdom can be understood as a combination of awareness of surroundings and anticipation of consequences, similarly described by classic philosophers. When these two characteristics are combined, leaders are adept at picking up cues from the environment and understanding their implications. Leaders high in wisdom are characteristically observant and anticipatory across most functions and settings. Wisdom is the ideal of perfect and practical, combining the height of knowledge and utility.”
• “Persuasive mapping describes the extent that leaders use sound reasoning and mental frameworks. Leaders high in persuasive mapping are skilled at mapping issues and conceptualizing greater possibilities and are compelling when articulating these opportunities. They encourage others to visualize the organization’s future and are persuasive, offering compelling reasons to get others to do things.”

• “Organizational stewardship describes the extent that leaders prepare an organization to make a positive contribution to society through community development, programs and outreach. Organizational stewardship involves an ethic or value for taking responsibility for the well-being of the community and making sure that the strategies and decisions undertaken reflect the commitment to give back and leave things better than found. They also work to develop a community spirit in the workplace, one that is preparing to leave a positive legacy.”

The above five factors seem to fit under the “change” and “relations” behavioural categories given in figure 2.4. It is unclear from Barbuto and Wheeler’s (2006) research which task-related behaviours are favoured or characteristic of servant leaders. This is an opportunity for further research; however it is likely that the task-related behaviours of servant leaders do not differ significantly from those of other leadership theories.

2.6 Laub

Laub (2005) discusses the results of research he started in 1999 aimed at developing an operational construct for servant-leadership and an associated measurement instrument suitable for empirical research. His research, which involved a Delphi panel of leading experts in servant leadership and other quantitative techniques, led him to conceptualize and define servant leadership and the attributes of servant leaders as indicated in figure 3.4.
Servant-leadership is …

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

The Servant-Leader…

| Values People | • By trusting and believing in people.  
|               | • By serving others’ needs before his or her own.  
|               | • By receptive, non-judgmental listening.  
| Develops People | • By providing opportunities for learning and growth.  
|                | • By modeling appropriate behaviour.  
|                | • By building up others through encouragement and affirmation.  
| Builds Community | • By building strong personal relationships.  
|                 | • By working collaboratively with others.  
|                 | • By valuing the differences of others.  
| Displays Authenticity | • By being open and accountable to others.  
|                   | • By a willingness to learn from others.  
|                   | • By maintaining integrity and trust.  
| Provides Leadership | • By envisioning the future.  
|                    | • By taking initiative.  
|                    | • By clarifying goals.  
| Shares Leadership | • By facilitating a shared vision.  
|                   | • By sharing power and releasing control.  
|                   | • By sharing status and promoting others.  

The Servant Organization is …

an organization in which the characteristics of servant-leadership are displayed through the organizational culture, and are valued and practiced by the leadership and workforce.

Figure 3.4: Servant-leadership and a servant organization (OLA) model (Laub, 2005:160)

His research showed that the leadership choice is basically one of three approaches shown in figure 3.5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Autocratic</th>
<th>Paternalistic</th>
<th>Servant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leader as Dictator</td>
<td>Leader as a Parent</td>
<td>Leader as a Steward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Putting your needs as the leader first</td>
<td>Putting the needs of the organization first</td>
<td>Putting the needs of the led first</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treating others as your servants</td>
<td>Treating others as your children</td>
<td>Treating others as your partners</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.5: Laub’s Leadership Choices (Laub, 2005:163)

He conducted research (Laub, 2005) which showed that respondents rated most of the organizations at which they work as Paternalistic. He also discusses how the the
results of several surveys conducted using the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) instrument he developed in 1999 has revealed that organizations fall into one of six categories:

- **Autocratic leadership**
  - Org$^1$: Toxic Health
  - Org$^2$: Poor Health

- **Paternalistic leadership**
  - Org$^3$: Limited Health
  - Org$^4$: Moderate Health

- **Servant-leadership**
  - Org$^5$: Excellent Health
  - Org$^6$: Optimal Health

Moving from one of the three higher-order levels to the next, e.g. Autocratic to Paternalistic requires a fundamental change in mindset of leaders. He provides the descriptions of each health level given in figure 3.6.

As a suggestion for future research, Laub suggests correlating perceptions of the level of servant leadership with perceptions of organizational health level in different cultural contexts to assess the generalizability of the findings in figure 3.6.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Servant-leadership</th>
<th>Optimal Health</th>
<th>Workers experience this organization as a servant-minded organization characterized by authenticity, the valuing and developing of people, the building of community, and the providing and sharing of positive leadership. These characteristics are evident throughout the entire organization. People are trusted and are trustworthy throughout the organization. They are motivated to serve the interests of each other before their own self-interest and are open to learning from each other. Leaders and workers view each other as partners working in a spirit of collaboration.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Servant-leadership</td>
<td>Excellent Health</td>
<td>Workers experience this organization as a servant-oriented organization characterized by authenticity, the valuing and developing of people, the building of community, and the providing and sharing of positive leadership. These characteristics are evident throughout much of the organization. People are trusted and are trustworthy. They are motivated to serve the interests of each other before their own self-interest and are open to learning from each other. Leaders and workers view each other as partners working in a spirit of collaboration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Servant-leadership</td>
<td>Moderate Health</td>
<td>Workers experience this organization as a positively paternalistic (parental-led) organization characterized by a moderate level of trust and trustworthiness along with occasional uncertainty and fear. Creativity is encouraged as long as it doesn’t move the organization too far beyond the status quo. Risks can be taken, but failure is sometimes feared. Goals are mostly clear, though the overall direction of the organization is sometimes confused. Leaders often take the role of nurturing parent while workers assume the role of the cared-for child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Servant-leadership</td>
<td>Limited Health</td>
<td>Workers experience this organization as a negatively paternalistic (parental-led) organization characterized by minimal to moderate levels of trust and trustworthiness along with an underlying uncertainty and fear. People feel that they must prove themselves and that they are only as good as their last performance. Workers are sometimes listened to, but only when they speak in line with the values and priorities of the leaders. Conformity is expected, while individual expression is discouraged. Leaders often take the role of critical parent while workers assume the role of the cautious child.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Servant-leadership</td>
<td>Poor health</td>
<td>Workers experience this organization as an autocratic-led organization characterized by low levels of trust and trustworthiness and high levels of uncertainty and fear. People lack motivation to serve the organization because they do not feel that it is their organization or their goals. Leadership is autocratic in style and is imposed from the top levels of the organization. It is an environment where risks are seldom taken, failure is often punished, and creativity is discouraged. Most workers do not feel valued and often feel used by those in leadership. Change is needed but is very difficult to achieve.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Servant-leadership</td>
<td>Toxic</td>
<td>Workers experience this organization as a dangerous place to work—a place characterized by dishonesty and a deep lack of integrity among its workers and leaders. Workers are devalued, used and sometimes abused. Positive leadership is missing at all levels and power is used in ways that are harmful to workers and the mission of the organization. There is almost no trust and an extremely high level of fear. This organization will find it nearly impossible to locate, develop, and maintain healthy workers who can assist in producing positive organizational change.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3.6: Organizational Health Level Descriptions (Laub, 2005:180)

2.7 Other research
Washington, Sutton & Field (2006) investigated the relationships between followers’ perceptions of the extent to which their leaders are servant leaders and four values of servant leaders that have been identified in the literature, empathy, integrity, and competence and the five-factor model’s personality factor of agreeableness. In addition to agreeableness, the five factor model includes traits such as Surgency, Conscientiousness, Adjustment and Intellectance (Yukl, 2006). The agreeableness factor includes traits such as altruism, sympathy, generosity and eagerness to help others (Washington, et al., 2006), which are consistent with the qualities of servant leaders.

Washington, et al. (2006) used Dennis and Winston’s servant leadership scale (a revision of Page and Wong’s servant leadership instrument), Braithwaite and Law’s Goal and Mode Values Inventories, Mayer and Davis’ integrity scale, and Costa and McCrae’s NEO Five-Factor Inventory with 288 followers and 126 leaders in three organizations in order to measure relationships between followers’ ratings of leaders’ servant leadership, followers’ rating of leaders’ values of empathy, integrity, and competence and leaders’ rating of their own agreeableness. The study found that followers’ ratings of leaders’ servant leadership were positively related to followers’ ratings of leaders’ values of empathy, integrity, and competence. Followers’ ratings of leaders’ servant leadership were also positively related to leaders’ ratings of their own agreeableness. These findings provide support for the views that the values of empathy, integrity, competence and agreeableness are inherent in servant leadership, and that leaders that possess these values are more likely to emerge as servant leaders.

2.8 Summary

Table 3.2 overleaf summarises the attributes identified by researchers as part of servant leadership research to date.
Table 3.2: Summary of attributes of servant leaders

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Greenleaf and Spears</th>
<th>Blanchard and Hodges</th>
<th>Sendjaya</th>
<th>Laub</th>
<th>Wong and Page</th>
<th>Russell and Stone</th>
<th>Winston, Patterson and Dennis</th>
<th>Barbuto and Wheeler</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Strong positive values – honesty, love and responsibility</td>
<td>• Selflessness</td>
<td>• Voluntary</td>
<td>• Values People</td>
<td>• Integrity</td>
<td>• Vision</td>
<td>• Humility. Altruism.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Tolerance of imperfection</td>
<td>• Integrity</td>
<td>• subordination</td>
<td>o Trust</td>
<td>• Honesty</td>
<td>• Honesty</td>
<td>• Altruism.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Awareness</td>
<td>• Honesty</td>
<td>o Being a servant</td>
<td>o Service</td>
<td>• Integrity</td>
<td>• Integrity</td>
<td>• Trust.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Spirit</td>
<td>• Fearlessness</td>
<td>o Acts of service</td>
<td>o Listening</td>
<td>• Trust</td>
<td>• Service</td>
<td>• Trust.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Selflessness</td>
<td>• Humility</td>
<td>• Authentic self</td>
<td>o Develops People</td>
<td>• Empowering</td>
<td>• Visioning</td>
<td>• Service</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Empathy</td>
<td>• Integrity</td>
<td>o Humility</td>
<td>o Opportunities</td>
<td>• Developing others</td>
<td>• Goal setting</td>
<td>• Empowerment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Healing</td>
<td>• Accountability</td>
<td>o Integrity</td>
<td>o Role modelling</td>
<td>• Visioning</td>
<td>• Leading</td>
<td>• Service</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Stewardship</td>
<td>• Security</td>
<td>o Authentic self</td>
<td>o Encouragement</td>
<td>• Modelling</td>
<td>• Modelling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Being own person</td>
<td>• Vulnerability</td>
<td>• Responsibility</td>
<td>• Be real and unique</td>
<td>• Team building</td>
<td>• Team building</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Foresight and intuition</td>
<td>• Covenants</td>
<td>• Morality</td>
<td>• Values People</td>
<td>• Shared decision making</td>
<td>• Shared decision making</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Commitment to personal growth</td>
<td>• Social contract</td>
<td>o Moral reasoning</td>
<td>o Trust</td>
<td>• Power and pride</td>
<td>• Power and pride</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Living out and expressing faith in the organization’s great dream or goal.</td>
<td>• Service</td>
<td>o Moral action</td>
<td>o Service</td>
<td>• Vision</td>
<td>• Humility.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• The principle of systematic neglect – prioritizing as part of time management</td>
<td>• Change management</td>
<td>• Transcendental spirituality</td>
<td>o Vision</td>
<td>• Trust</td>
<td>• Service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Listening</td>
<td>• Development of people</td>
<td>o Religiousness</td>
<td>o Modelling</td>
<td>• Modelling</td>
<td>• Service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Effective use of language</td>
<td>• Leaving a legacy of servant leadership</td>
<td>o Interconnectedness</td>
<td>o Mentoring</td>
<td>• Empowerment</td>
<td>• Service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Growing and developing people</td>
<td>• Diagnosis of follower development</td>
<td>o Sense of mission</td>
<td>o Trust</td>
<td>• Visioning</td>
<td>• Service</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Building community</td>
<td>• Flexible leadership style</td>
<td>o Wholeness</td>
<td>o Empowerment</td>
<td>• Role modelling</td>
<td>• Pioneering</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Withdrawal</td>
<td>• Partnering for performance with followers</td>
<td>• Transcending Influence</td>
<td>• Personal relationships</td>
<td>• Empowerment</td>
<td>• Appreciation of others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instrument</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>• o Vision</td>
<td>o Building strong personal relationships</td>
<td>• Organizational stewardship</td>
<td>• Empowerment.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>• o Modelling</td>
<td>o Collaboration</td>
<td>• Valuing diversity</td>
<td>• Leadership</td>
<td>• Empowerment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes (SLBS)</td>
<td>o Mentoring</td>
<td>• Responsible</td>
<td>• Builds Community</td>
<td>• Community</td>
<td>• Listening</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes (OLA)</td>
<td>o Trust</td>
<td>• Morality</td>
<td>o Acceptance</td>
<td>• Collaboration</td>
<td>• Encouragement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes (HSLP)</td>
<td>o Service</td>
<td>• Selflessness</td>
<td>o Availability</td>
<td>• Valuing diversity</td>
<td>• Teaching</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>o Listening</td>
<td>• Humility</td>
<td>o Equality</td>
<td>• Displays</td>
<td>• Delegation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>• Empathy</td>
<td>• Integrity</td>
<td>o Collaboration</td>
<td>• Authenticity</td>
<td>• Altruistic calling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes (SLAI)</td>
<td>• Empowering</td>
<td>• Service</td>
<td>• Being own person</td>
<td>• Openness</td>
<td>Emotional healing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes (SLQ)</td>
<td>• Developing others</td>
<td>• Vision</td>
<td>• Foresight and intuition</td>
<td>• Accountability</td>
<td>• Wisdom</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- 116 -
Table 3.2 shows that there are many similarities in the ways in which different researchers have conceptualized servant leadership and operationalized it for measurement as part of research. However, there are also differences. For example, the use of persuasion as an influence tactic appears to be missing from the conceptualizations offered by Sendjaya, Laub, Wong and Page, and Winston, Patterson and Dennis discussed earlier in this chapter. In the remaining paragraphs of this section, the writer summarises a conceptualization of servant leadership that draws on the works of each of the researchers discussed in this chapter and those of the founder of the servant leadership construct, Robert Greenleaf.

A Servant Heart

As discussed earlier, servant leadership begins with a natural feeling that one wants to serve. Sendjaya, et al. (2008) describe this under the dimension ‘voluntary subordination’ and Laub (2005) under ‘values people’. Wong and Page (2003) refer to this quality as ‘servanthood’. More specifically, the servant heart manifests as follows:

1. Placing the interests of others above one’s own self-interest (Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006).
2. Making available to followers information, time, attention, material and other resources and the higher corporate purposes that give meaning to their work (Russell and Stone, 2002).
3. Willingness to voluntarily take up opportunities for service to others whenever there is a legitimate need, regardless of the nature of the service, the person served, or the mood of the servant leader (Sendjaya, et al., 2008).
4. Having concern for others and making personal sacrifices (when required) to care for and improve the welfare of followers without concern for personal reward (Winston, et al., 2003).
6. They do not become defensive when criticised (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003; Sendjaya, et al., 2008).
7. They are constantly developing others to take over from them when they leave (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003).
8. Is humble about his / her accomplishments (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003).
**Authenticity**

Authenticity is a concept that captures whether a leader is “genuine”, i.e. do his actions and words reflect his inner being or character or are they “superficial” in the sense that they do not correspond with his character. Authentic leaders are those who have a deep awareness of their own and others’ values/perspectives and the context within which they operate, and who have positive outlooks (Sendjaya, *et al*., 2008). It manifests as follows:

1. They display humility (Sendjaya, *et al*., 2008).
2. Their words and actions are aligned with each other, i.e. they “walk the talk”
4. Deliver on their commitments.
5. Being dependable.

**Values, Appreciates and Develops People**

This attribute of servant leaders manifests in the following ways:

1. Acceptance of others for who they are (Greenleaf, 1996b).
4. Serving as a role model to facilitate the development of followers in visible and tangible ways (Sendjaya, *et al*., 2008).
5. Providing encouragement to people in their daily tasks (Laub, 2005; Russell, 2001).
6. Provides mentorship to subordinates and people from other parts of the organization (Sendjaya, *et al*., 2008).
7. Facilitate healing of emotions from broken spirits and emotional hurts experienced in the workplace (Spears, 1998; Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006).
9. Embraces and values diversity.
10. Is keenly aware of the needs and aspirations of followers.
11. Allows people to make mistakes and learn from them.
Visionary leadership

Servant leaders are visionary leaders who have a sense of the unknowable and are able to foresee the unforeseeable (Russell and Stone, 2002). Some of the attributes inherent in the construct visionary leadership are: Vision, Conceptualization, Foresight, Awareness, Courage and Initiative (Greenleaf, 1996c; Russell and Stone, 2002; Wong and Page, 2003). It manifests in the following behaviours:

1. Set and articulate clear goals (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003).
2. The ability to inspire others with their enthusiasm and confidence in what can be accomplished (Wong and Page, 2003).
3. The ability to present a vision that is readily and enthusiastically embraced by others (Wong and Page, 2003).
5. Having the moral courage to do what is right, regardless of the consequences (Wong and Page, 2003).
7. Constantly using the lessons of the past and current circumstances to foresee the likely outcomes of decisions (Greenleaf, 1996c).
8. Seeing the bigger picture (DeGraaf, et al., 2004).
9. Seeing beyond day-to-day operational challenges (DeGraaf, et al., 2004).
10. Having a good sense of what is happening in the environment (Greenleaf, 1996c).
11. Is prepared to take risks in order to take the work unit forward (Greenleaf, 1998c).
12. Maintains a balance between a short term and a long term focus (Greenleaf, 1996c).

Participative leadership

Servant leaders practise a participative leadership style, characterised by Consultation, Empowerment, Delegation and Persuasion as an influence tactic. This attribute manifests in the following behaviours:

1. Consulting others when making decisions.
2. Entrust others with power and authority to make decisions and act independently (Russell and Stone, 2002).
3. Emphasizing teamwork (Russell and Stone, 2002).
4. Offer choices to followers and encourage them to take ownership of responsibilities (Russell and Stone, 2002).
5. Rely on persuasion rather than coercion or manipulation as an influence tactic (Greenleaf, 1998a).

**Building of community**

Chapter 2 discussed how servant leaders build community in their organizations. This manifests in the following behaviours:
1. Encouraging teamwork (Spears, 1998; Blanchard and Hodges, 2003).
2. Encouraging a sense of interdependence, wherein team members feel responsible for each other’s wellbeing and seek to improve the positions of other team members (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003).
5. Continuously monitoring and providing feedback to correct the team’s performance against agreed objectives (Wong and Page, 2003).

**Stewardship**

The concept of stewardship in servant leadership was discussed in chapter 2 and involves the following behaviours:
1. Viewing their leadership roles as a means of discharging their responsibilities to the organization’s stakeholders.
2. Preparing the organization to make a difference in society.
3. Creating meaning and purpose in the work of their followers.
4. Considers the impact of the organization’s activities on surrounding communities.
5. Considers the impact of the organization’s activities on the environment.
Responsible Morality

Servant leaders have a strong sense of ethics and morality, which permeates their relationships with others and guides their decision-making process. Specific behaviours associated with this sense are:

1. Ensuring that both the ends they seek and the means they employ are morally legitimized, thoughtfully reasoned and ethically justified (Sendjaya, et al., 2008).
2. Engage in good moral dialogue with followers (Sendjaya, et al., 2008).
3. Fostering reflective behaviours which bring about positive changes in the ethical climates of organizations that may be ethically compromised (Sendjaya, et al., 2008).

3  The impact of servant leader behaviours on follower motivation, trust, satisfaction and commitment

Several attempts are reported in the literature to develop theoretical constructs and measurement instruments for servant leadership and to conduct empirical investigations of the relationships between servant leadership behaviours and measures of employee motivation, trust, satisfaction and commitment.

Barbuto, et al., (2006) found that the five servant leadership factors of altruistic calling, emotional healing, persuasive mapping, wisdom, and organizational stewardship were significantly related to transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, extra effort, satisfaction, and organizational effectiveness.

Reinke (2004) explored the relationship between perceptions of servant leadership and the level of trust between employees and supervisors. The results of the use of an instrument introduced in this investigation on a survey of 651 employees in a suburban Georgia county show that one component of servant leadership, stewardship, is a determinant of trust level, indicating that “service before self” is not just a slogan, but a powerful reality that builds trust between employees and supervisors.
Using Laub’s Organizational Leadership Assessment along with Nyhan and Marlowe’s Organizational Trust Inventory, Joseph & Winston (2005) aimed to explore the relationship between employee perceptions of servant leadership and leader trust, as well as organizational trust. They found that perceptions of servant leadership correlated positively with both leader trust and organizational trust. The study also found that organizations perceived as servant-led exhibited higher levels of both leader trust and organizational trust than organizations perceived as non-servant-led. The findings lend support to Greenleaf’s view, discussed in chapter 2, that servant leadership is an antecedent of leader and organizational trust, and to aspects of other servant leadership models.

4 Comparisons between servant leadership and other leadership theories

This section compares and contrasts servant leadership with the following leadership theories: charismatic leadership, transformational leadership and transactional leadership.

Two theories have been proposed to explain charismatic leadership (Yukl, 2006). These are Conger and Kanungo’s attribution theory of charismatic leadership and Shamir, House and Arthur’s self-concept theory of leadership (Yukl, 2006). Due to the similarity of these theories, this section discusses only the attribution theory of Conger and Kanungo. According to Weber, charisma is a term used to describe a form of influence based not on tradition or authority, but upon follower perceptions that the leader is endowed with exceptional qualities (Yukl, 2006:249). According to Conger and Kanungo’s theory, charisma is attributed to leaders by followers, based on specific leader traits and behaviours and characteristics of the situation (Yukl, 2006). The dependence on the situation differs from most conceptualizations of servant leadership, wherein servant leader behaviours are assumed to be universally applicable and effective regardless of situational factors. The attribution theory states that attribution of charisma to leaders by followers is most likely when the leader displays the follower traits and behaviours (Yukl, 2006:250):

- “Advocates a vision that is highly discrepant from the status quo.
- Acts in unconventional ways to attain the vision.
• Make self-sacrifices, incur high costs and take personal risks to attain the vision.
• Appear confident about their proposals.
• Use emotional appeals rather than authority or participative decision-making.
• Have the ability to see opportunities others do not.”

The above behaviours sketch a picture of a passionate visionary who believes strongly in his vision, and is able to rouse the emotions of followers. The intent is to mobilize followers to attain the vision. The creation of a vision is similar to the servant leader behaviour of persuasive mapping discussed earlier; however the servant leader’s intent is to foster the growth and development of followers, with attainment of the vision being a secondary objective. This differs from the charismatic leadership approach.

Another area in which servant leadership differs from charismatic leadership is in the influence process used. As discussed earlier, charismatic leaders tend to appeal to the values of their followers and use highly emotive language to influence their followers (Yukl, 2006). Charisma is unlikely to be attributed to leaders that use a participative decision-making approach (Yukl, 2006). However, servant leaders are more likely to use a participative decision-making approach.

Stone, Russell & Patterson (2004) examined transformational leadership and servant leadership to determine what similarities and differences exist between the two leadership concepts. The authors found that the primary difference between transformational leadership and servant leadership is the focus of the leader. The transformational leader’s focus is directed toward the organization, and his or her behaviour builds follower commitment toward organizational objectives, while the servant leader’s focus is on the followers, and the achievement of organizational objectives is a subordinate outcome. The extent to which the leader is able to shift the primary focus of leadership from the organization to the follower is the distinguishing factor in classifying leaders as either transformational or servant leaders. However, the authors make the case that although different, both transformational leadership and servant leadership offer the conceptual framework for dynamic leadership.
Humphreys (2005) adopted a qualitative historical examination of the military retreats of Xenophon, a transformational leader, and Chief Joseph, a servant leader, during very similar contextual crises. The purpose was to determine whether there is historical support for the proposal of Smith, Montagno and Kuzmenko that the specific cultures associated with transformational and/or servant leadership would be more or less applicable, based on context (Humphreys, 2005). The study offered support for the proposal of Smit, et al., discussed in (Humphreys, 2005) and indicates that leadership context may influence the appropriateness of servant leadership against transformational leadership, where appropriateness is measured by the attainment of organizational goals and not follower satisfaction and commitment (Humphreys, 2005). Humphreys (2005) suggests that transformational leader behaviour is likely to be more appropriate during times of significant organizational change.

Transactional leadership involves an exchange process, wherein the leader exchanges something of value to the follower, with the follower in exchange for the follower’s effort and output (Yukl, 2006). Transactional leadership behaviours include: contingent reward, active management by exception and passive management by exception. Contingent reward behaviour includes clarifying the task and providing incentives to facilitate motivation. Passive management by exception involves punishing poor performance when it occurs, or taking other corrective action. Active management by exception involves actively looking for errors and enforcing rules to avoid mistakes (Yukl, 2006:263). The primary focus of the transactional leader is upon task outcomes. This differs from the empowering/developmental approach taken by servant leaders towards their followers. However, it is likely that some transactional behaviours, appropriately used, will be part of the repertoire of skills of the successful servant leader.

5 Gaps in the theoretical development of servant leadership

Servant leadership theory is still in its formative stages. Although the concept has been in existence since the early seventies, it is only recently that it has been operationalized for empirical research. Furthermore, several aspects of the generic leadership model given in figure 2.3 have not been addressed. Thus far, the main
focus of research on servant leadership has been on leader traits and behaviours and their impact upon intervening variables such as follower motivation, trust, satisfaction and commitment. Apart from the paper by Humphreys (2005), little attention has been given to situational factors that may have an influence upon servant leader behaviours, or how servant leader behaviours could improve the situation for followers.

As mentioned earlier, the appeal of the servant leadership approach may lie in its ability to meet the higher order emotional, mental and spiritual needs of leaders and followers better than that of transformational leadership. Little empirical evidence has been provided in the literature on whether a servant leadership approach would be suited to a situation involving followers more intent on fulfilling lower order needs such as survival and security, e.g. mineworkers and general labourers. Unlike the Situational Leadership theory of Hersey and Blanchard (Yukl, 2006), little attention has so far been given to how follower maturity and competence levels could influence servant leader behaviours.
Chapter 4: Research Methodology

The general background to this research project, the main research problem and its associated sub-problems have all been described in chapter 1. This chapter investigates the research methodology adopted to address the main problem and its sub-problems in greater detail, including the hypotheses, sampling procedure, measurement instrument and data analysis procedures.

The basic research methodology adopted in this study is a combination of the qualitative and quantitative approaches.

Sub-problems 1, 2 and 3 relating to the attributes of servant leaders, comparisons with conventional leadership theories and correlations between servant leadership and outcomes of leadership effectiveness were addressed by surveying and analyzing extant literature.

Sub-problem 4 is addressed by administering the servant leadership assessment questionnaire to a random sample of employees in the Procurement and Supply department of Sasol Secunda Shared Services (a division of Sasol Group Services (Pty) Ltd) and the Group Strategic Sourcing department of Sasol Group Services (Pty) Ltd.

The results of the survey conducted to address sub-problem 4 are used to address sub-problems 5 and 6.

1 Hypotheses

1.1 Servant leadership mean score for SSSS

As discussed in chapter 2, the results of the employee engagement survey conducted within the P&SM department of SSSS indicated that employee engagement levels are high, pointing to a possibly effective leadership style, whereby
people are treated in accordance with servant leadership principles. Other factors are probably also responsible for such high levels of employee engagement, but it is proposed that the extent of servant leader behaviours is also high. The first hypothesis is therefore stated as follows:

HA.1: The SSSS P&SM division’s employee’s perceptions of the extent to which their leaders display servant leader behaviours is higher than a mean score of 4 out of 5, as measured by the Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale (SLBS) (Sendjaya, et al., 2008).

i.e. HA.1: $\mu_{S4,SL} > 4$, where $\mu_{S4,SL}$ = mean servant leadership score.

The associated null hypothesis is:

HA.0: The SSSS P&SM division’s employee’s perceptions of the extent to which their leaders display servant leader behaviours is less than or equal to a mean score of 4 out of 5, as measured by the SLBS.

i.e. HA.0: $\mu_{S4,SL} \leq 4$, where $\mu_{S4,SL}$ = mean servant leadership score for SSSS P&SM.

1.2 Servant leadership mean score for GSS

As discussed in chapter 2, assessments of the organizational culture with the GSS division of Sasol Group Services indicate the possible limited prevalence of behaviours associated with caring and valuing of people, as reflected in the relatively low scores obtained for people-oriented organizational culture elements such as self-actualizing, humanistic-encouraging and affiliative. The second alternative hypothesis is therefore as stated below:

HB.1: The GSS division’s employee’s perceptions of the extent to which their leaders display servant leader behaviours is lower than a mean score of 4 out of 5, as measured by the SLBS.

i.e. HB.1: $\mu_{GSS,SL} < 4$, where $\mu_{GSS,SL}$ = mean servant leadership score for GSS.

The associated null hypothesis is:
HB.0: The GSS division’s employee’s perceptions of the extent to which their leaders display servant leader behaviours is greater than or equal to a mean score of 6 out of 10, as measured by the SLBS.

i.e. HB.0: \( \mu_{GSS,SL} \geq 4 \), where \( \mu_{GSS,SL} \) = mean servant leadership score for GSS.

### 1.3 Servant leadership vs organizational trust

The relationship between organizational trust and servant leadership is investigated by combining the results obtained from the GSS and SSSS P&SM divisions. As discussed in chapters 2 and 3, servant leader attributes such as integrity, honesty and competence should lead to higher levels of organizational trust.

The alternative hypothesis, HC.1, is that there exists a positive relationship between the mean score for the combined sample for servant leadership (independent variable), \( \mu_{SL} \) and the mean score for the combined sample for organizational trust (dependent variable), \( \mu_{OTI} \).

The associated null hypothesis, HC.0, is that there is no relationship between the mean scores for servant leadership and those for organizational trust.

### 1.4 Servant leadership vs passive management by exception

The correlation between servant leadership and passive management by exception is proposed to be negative. The associated alternative hypothesis, HD.1, is therefore that there exists a negative relationship between the mean score for the combined sample for servant leadership (independent variable), \( \mu_{SL} \) and the mean score for the combined sample for passive management by exception (dependent variable), \( \mu_{MBE_P} \). The associated null hypothesis is that there is no relationship between servant leaders and passive management by exception.
1.5 Summary of hypotheses

Table 4.1 summarises the hypotheses investigated as part of this research project.

Table 4.1: Summary of hypotheses

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>SSSS</th>
<th>GSS</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>HA.0</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HA.1</td>
<td>$\mu_{S4,SL} &gt; 4$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HB.0</td>
<td>$\mu_{GSS,SL} \geq 4$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HB.1</td>
<td>$\mu_{GSS,SL} &lt; 4$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HC.0</td>
<td>No relationship between $\mu_{SL}$ and $\mu_{OTI}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HC.1</td>
<td>Positive relationship between $\mu_{SL}$ and $\mu_{OTI}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HD.0</td>
<td>No relationship between $\mu_{SL}$ and $\mu_{MBE_P}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HD.1</td>
<td>Negative relationship between $\mu_{SL}$ and $\mu_{MBE_P}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 Samples

The target population is all employees within the SSSS P&SM and GSS divisions of Sasol Group Services (Pty) Ltd. SSSS P&SM employed 319 people between levels 3 (senior management) and 10 (administrative) as at 28 May 2008. GSS employed 92 people as at 20 May 2008 in various levels, ranging from level 3 (senior management) down to level 10 (administrative staff). The target population therefore consists of 412 people.

A random sample of 190 SSSS P&SM personnel was drawn, using name lists provided by the respective human resources consultants for each of these divisions as sampling frames. Microsoft Excel’s random number generator was used to generate random numbers between 1 and the maximum number of employees listed in each name list to identify the row number of the chosen participant in the respective name list. All members of the GSS team were surveyed.
Each survey participant was then mailed a hardcopy of the survey instrument and requested to fill it in, without adding his or her name to the completed survey document in order to protect his / her anonymity. The researcher then collected each survey instrument and captured the data in a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet for further analysis.

3 Measurement Instrument

Over the years several researchers have attempted to operationalize the servant leadership construct for quantitative research purposes. This section discusses some of these instruments and ends with a discussion of the instrument used as part of this study.

3.1 Laub’s OLA

Horsman (2001) describes the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) instrument designed by Laub in 1999. Laub first created a testable definition of servant-leadership by way of a Delphi panel (Horsman, 2001; Laub, 2005). The instrument was designed to be used to evaluate individuals, teams, work units, company divisions or departments and was field-tested on 828 respondents in 41 different organizations (Horsman, 2001; Laub, 2005). After field-testing the instrument was reduced from 71 to 60 items. During field-testing, the instrument demonstrated an acceptable reliability score, with a Cronbach Alpha rating of 0.9802 (Horsman, 2001). The instrument was designed to investigate the following dimensions of servant leadership: Values People, Develops People, Builds Community, Displays Authenticity, Provides Leadership, Shares Leadership; however it does not appear to address the Stewardship dimension of servant leadership, discussed extensively by Spears and Greenleaf in their writings. Furthermore, apart from face validity verification using a Delphi panel of experts, no criterion and construct validation of the instrument was verified.
3.2 Barbuto and Wheeler’s SLQ

Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) developed an instrument measuring five dimensions of servant leadership: altruistic calling, emotional healing, persuasive mapping, wisdom, and organizational stewardship, which they identified after factor analysis of servant leader behavioural descriptions based on the 10 attributes of servant leaders identified by Spears (2004), viz. Listening, Empathy, Healing, Awareness, Persuasion, Conceptualization, Foresight, Stewardship, Commitment to the Growth of People and Building community. Barbuto and Wheeler’s (2006) instrument was developed after field-testing and factor analysis of their initial instrument which was administered to 80 elected community leaders and 388 raters from counties in the Midwestern United States (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006).

Dannhauser (2007) conducted a field-test of Barbuto and Wheeler’s (2006) instrument amongst 417 sales persons and 114 sales managers of a large South African motor retail company to test the portability of Barbuto and Wheeler’s (2006) instrument to a different (South African) cultural context. Dannhauser (2007) found that “the five-factor structure of servant leadership…could not be replicated in the present study” (Dannhauser, 2007:353). Dannhauser’s (2007) factor analysis identified only one factor underlying the items in Barbuto and Wheeler’s (2006) instrument. Dannhauser (2007) also found that “the stability of measurement by the SLQ, when used on different samples, is therefore in some doubt” (Dannhauser, 2007:354).

It was also found that the 23 items possibly do not cover the construct completely due to its one-factor structure (Dannhauser, 2007). There were, however, methodological limitations to Dannhauser’s (2007) study, specifically the non-representativity of the sample to the general South African population, being from only the sales department of a specific type of business, viz. a motor retail company, and the possibility of response-set and social desirability in the responses of survey participants (Dannhauser, 2007). Despite these and other limitations, Dannhauser concludes that “it seems as if the SLQ, which was developed in the USA on a sample that differed substantially in nature from respondents in the present study, can as a measure, not be seen as fully portable to the South African cultural setting” (Dannhauser, 2007:354).
3.3 Sendjaya, et al.,’s SLBS

Based on their theoretical model of servant leadership discussed in chapter 3, Sendjaya, et al. (2008) developed an instrument, the Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale (SLBS) to measure the extent of servant leadership in organizations. The SLBS extends existing instruments such as Laub’s OLA and Barbuto and Wheeler’s SLQ by adding the dimensions of spirituality and the moral-ethical dimension, both of which are central to servant leadership (Sendjaya, et al., 2008). It is only through a leader’s spirituality that a willingness to serve others emerges. Furthermore, servant leaders seek to ensure that the ends they seek and the means they employ are both ethical and moral.

In developing the SLBS, Sendjaya, et al. (2008) conducted two separate studies, Study 1 and Study 2. Study 1 established the content validity of the instrument by identifying themes and obtaining insights into servant leadership from 15 interviews with executives in Australia from both profit and non-profit organizations, who were identified as being servant leaders. Content analysis of interview data reinforced their original 22 sub-dimensions. Following Study 1, an initial pool of 101 items were developed to operationalize the servant leadership construct under the 6 themes identified in chapter 3.

Sendjaya, et al. (2008) then conducted a content expert validation exercise to eliminate items which content experts considered non-essential. Content experts comprised 15 professors, PhD graduates and Masters graduates from the United States, Australia, Netherlands and New Zealand. Following this process, 73 items were retained.

Sendjaya, et al. (2008) then conducted Study 2, which employed confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to delete items that were not absolutely necessary. Study 2 involved 277 students at one of Australia’s leading universities, who were asked to rate their supervisors using the SLBS as it existed at that point in time. Various advanced statistical techniques (including structured equation modelling) were used to produce a final 35-item, user-friendly measurement instrument.
Reliability of the SLBS was verified by testing for internal consistency reliability of the items comprising each of the six factors, by comparing measured correlation coefficients for each factor with the recommended value of 0.70 for Cronbach’s alpha (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 2005) for each factor, ranging from 0.72 (for Transcendental Spirituality) to 0.93 for Transforming Influence and Authentic Self. Internal consistency reliability was successfully confirmed for the SLBS (Sendjaya, et al., 2008).

The SLBS is provided in Appendix 4. Permission for the use thereof was obtained by the researcher from Dr S Sendjaya.

### 3.4 Nyhan and Marlowe’s OTI

Nyhan and Marlowe (1997) developed a 12-item instrument to measure an individual’s level of trust in his/her supervisor (8 items) and organization (4 items). Face validity was verified by review of items by expert colleagues. Inter-item reliability was calculated using Cronbach’s alpha and the results varied for different samples between 0.9212 to 0.9646. Test-retest reliability (4-day) interval was also high at 0.84. Exploratory factor analysis revealed that results for both interpersonal and organizational trust loaded consistently on two factors. Convergent validity was confirmed by correlating scores on the OTI with measures of job stress, job satisfaction, aspects of organizational culture and affective commitment, amongst others. In all cases, measured correlations were consistent with theoretically expected and hypothesized relationships between trust and the measured variables, confirming convergent validity of the instrument.

Nyhan and Marlowe’s OTI (1997) is given in appendix 5. Only the questions relating to the level of trust in an individual supervisor are used for this study since respondents are rating their individual supervisors as part of the servant leadership perception survey. It is therefore necessary to compare servant leadership scores of individual supervisors with the respondents’ perceptions of trust in the same leader in order to draw meaningful conclusions about the possible relationships between an
individual’s extent of servant leader behaviours and the respondent’s trust in that leader.

3.5 **Measurement instrument used as part of this study**

Of the different instruments discussed above that have been developed to measure the construct of servant leadership, that of Sendjaya, *et al.* appears to be the most comprehensive in its coverage of servant leadership and was used as part of this study. The instrument has not yet been subjected to tests for criterion (concurrent and predictive) validity and construct (convergent and discriminative) validity (Sendjaya, *et al.*, 2008); however, criterion validity (concurrent) is tested as part of this study by correlating servant leadership with perceptions of trust as measured by the OTI, and discriminative validity is verified by correlating perceptions of servant leadership with perceptions of passive management by exception, as measured by Avolio and Bass’s (2008) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ).

The MLQ is an instrument that was designed to measure transformational and transactional leadership behaviours. Passive management-by-exception (MBEP) refers to a style of leadership in which the leader does not respond to situations and problems systematically and is expected to correlate negatively with servant leadership as it has a negative effect upon desired outcomes (Avolio and Bass, 2008).

The items used to measure MBEP are given in (Avolio and Bass, 2008) and are not reproduced here in order to respect copyright restrictions of the authors. Two examples are however provided below:

1. Passive management-by-exception (MBEP)

1.1 Fail to interfere until problems become serious.
1.2 Wait for things to go wrong before taking action.

The survey instrument consists of 54 questions and is provided in Appendix 6, excluding the items that measure Passive management-by-exception (questions 36-
39) and Laissez-Faire leadership (questions 40-43). Section 1 asks three biographical questions, Section 2 asks 35 SLBS questions and 8 MLQ questions, and Section 3 asks 8 OTI questions.

4 Data analysis

The questionnaire asks each respondent to rate his or her direct supervisor’s servant leadership behaviours and passive management-by-exception behaviours by indicating to what extent the respondent either agrees or disagrees (on a 5-point Likert scale) that the supervisor displays the stated behaviour. The extent of interpersonal trust between the respondent and his/her direct supervisor is measured by the respondent indicating on a 7-point scale the extent to which he/she feels confident that his/her supervisor meets each of 7 descriptors relevant to interpersonal trust. Ratings 5, 6 and 7 on the 7-point scale correspond to ratings of High, Very High and Nearly 100% respectively. An average score of 5 out of 7 therefore corresponds with a high level of interpersonal trust.

35 questions are provided to rate servant leadership, 4 questions to rate passive management-by-exception and 7 questions to rate interpersonal trust. The 35 servant leadership questions are each relevant to one of the SLBS’s 6 servant leadership dimensions. An average score is calculated for each respondent per servant leadership dimension, and the overall rating provided by a respondent for his/her direct supervisor for servant leadership behaviours is calculated by averaging the scores provided for all 35 servant leadership questions. Similar average scores are calculated for interpersonal trust and passive management-by-exception. The average scores so obtained (9 per respondent: 1 for each of 6 SL dimensions, 1 overall SL score, 1 passive management-by-exception (MBEP) score and 1 Trust (OTI) score) are then subjected to various statistical computations to test for significance and relationships between variables, as discussed below.

The two hypotheses, HA.1 and HB.1, relating to the mean servant leader scores for SSSS P&SM and GSS involve statistical significance testing for the sample mean. These hypotheses are tested using the t-test for the mean (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 2005). For large sample sizes, \((n>30)\), the population does not need
to be normally distributed for the t-test to yield accurate results. In this study, both sample sizes are greater than 30, with a sample size of 47 from GSS and 77 from SSSS.

Most texts assume, when calculating the t-statistic for the t-test, that the sample is drawn from a sample of infinite size, or that if sample sizes are large compared to the size of the population, that samples are drawn with replacement. However, when either of these assumptions is not valid, as is the case in this study, it is necessary to apply a Finite Population Correction (FPC) factor to the t-statistic (Spiegel, 1972) in order to obtain more realistic results. If the FPC factor is not used, results are too conservative, i.e. a test that could have been statistically significant could have an insignificant result. The FPC factor takes account of the fact that, when sample sizes are large, the sample is a more accurate representation of the true situation in the population. When the population size is large compared to the sample size, the FPC factor approaches 1 and can be safely ignored when calculating the t-statistic; however no error is incurred when the FPC factor is applied.

To test for relationships between servant leadership and interpersonal trust (hypothesis HC.1) and servant leadership and passive management by exception (hypothesis HD.1), scatterplots of mean servant leadership and interpersonal trust scores, and servant leadership and passive management by exception scores are plotted. A commonly used measure of correlation for ratio and interval scales is the Pearson’s Product Moment Correlation coefficient (Pearson’s r) (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 2005). The test for significance of Pearson’s r is only accurate for correlations between variables if the joint distribution of the variables in the population is normal, i.e. if we are sampling from a bivariate normal distribution, which in practice is often accepted as being the case if the distribution of each individual variable is not markedly non-normal (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 2005). In order to test for a normal distribution of servant leadership, passive management-by-exception and individual trust mean scores in the population, the researcher uses the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normality using the Lilliefors p-value provided by the Statistica software package. According to the Statistica help facility, the Lilliefors p-value provides a more accurate result than the p-value calculated from the standard Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. If the statistical tests for significance of normal distributions are both non-significant for the two variables
being correlated, a test for significance of the Pearson’s r is conducted to determine
whether the correlations observed in the sample are statistically significant. If the
tests for normality yield statistically significant results, i.e. the observed distributions
of each variable could not have been obtained if the variables were normally
distributed in the population, we use the non-parametric measure of correlation,
Spearman’s Rank-Order correlation, and test it for statistical significance
(Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 2005).

5 Limitations of research

This research investigation makes use of the survey method for data gathering.
Survey research has inherent limitations. One such limitation is that an accurate
response requires a good understanding by the respondent of the question posed.
Limitations in language comprehension ability due to factors such as limited use of
English as a first language, could lead to misinterpretation of questions and,
consequently, inaccurate responses. Other personal factors that could lead to
inaccuracies include: (a) respondents being in a negative mood at the time of the
survey, with a tendency to respond in a negative manner to questions; (b)
respondents giving socially desirable responses; (c) attribution bias of respondents,
i.e. they may be tempted to rate their leaders positively on questions that seem to
measure what in their opinions are positive leadership behaviours, due to their a
priori attribution of leadership effectiveness to the leader they are rating. Despite
these limitations, survey research has certainly contributed to the advancement of
scientific knowledge and remains a widely used technique for conducting research.

This study is also affected by limitations due to time and cost constraints. One of
these is that the survey is constrained to specific divisions within the Sasol
organization, and more specifically, to a specific function, i.e. the procurement and
supply management function. An opportunity for further study is to conduct a survey
on a larger sample of South African businesses and on a larger cross-section of
business functions.
Chapter 5: Research Results

This chapter presents the results of the servant leadership surveys conducted within the Group Strategic Sourcing and Sasol Secunda Shared Services (Procurement and Supply Management) departments. Results are discussed in chapter 6.

The statistical analyses discussed in this chapter are conducted using a 30-day trial version of the Statistica Version 8 software package (StatSoft, 2008), and the statistical functions included in the Microsoft Excel 2003 software. The Statistica 30-day trial software is a fully functional version of the software and is only limited in the time available for its use.

In total, 51 responses were received from GSS, of which 13 had one or more missing responses in the 54 questions contained in the questionnaire. All questionnaires that only had one missing response for servant leadership were included in the data analysis as one missing response out of 35 questions does not significantly affect the mean score obtained for that questionnaire for servant leadership. No questionnaires that had one or more missing values for passive management-by-exception or individual trust were included as the means for these constructs are calculated from 4 and 8 variables respectively; implying that one missing value in either construct can significantly affect the mean score obtained. A total of 4 questionnaires were unusable from the GSS sample, yielding a final usable sample size of 47.

A total of 87 responses were received from SSSS, of which 10 were unusable, giving a total of 77 usable responses from SSSS.

The data obtained as part of the surveys conducted are summarised in Excel spreadsheet form in Appendix 7. Although data were gathered for the Laissez-Faire leadership style in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), these data are not given in Appendix 7 as they were not used as part of this study.
1 Sample Demographics

Tables 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 summarise the number of responses received according to age group of respondents, job level of respondents and time worked by respondents for the company.

Note that the interpretation of job level in table 5.2 is as follows:
Level 4 or higher - Senior Management
Level 5 - Middle Management
Level 6C - Junior Management
Level 6 and 7 - Senior Administrative
Level 8 and below - Junior Administrative

Table 5.1 Number of responses by age group

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<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>GSS</th>
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<th>Total</th>
<th>% of total</th>
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<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
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<td>60+</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
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Table 5.2  Number of responses by Job Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job level</th>
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<th>% of total</th>
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</thead>
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<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
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<td>16.26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6C</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
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<td>8-</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>53</td>
<td>43.09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<td>76</td>
<td>123</td>
<td><strong>100.00%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.3  Number of responses by Time worked for the company

<table>
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<th>Time period</th>
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<th>Total</th>
<th>% of total</th>
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</thead>
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<td>&lt;2 years</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>21.8%</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time period</th>
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<th>SSSS</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2-5 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;5, &lt;10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;10, &lt;20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>26.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>27.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>47</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>124</td>
<td><strong>100.00%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2  Servant Leadership Mean Scores by Demographic Category

This section summarises the servant leadership mean scores obtained by age group, job level and time with the company in figures 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3, respectively.
Figure 5.1  Mean servant leadership score by age group

For GSS, no score appears in the 0-19 age group as there were no observations in this age group (see table 5.1).

Figure 5.2  Mean servant leadership score by Job Level

No observations were obtained in the level 4 or higher job level for SSSS.
### 3 Hypothesis Tests for Servant Leadership Mean Scores

This section presents the test results for the hypotheses presented in chapter 4, section 1.5 and summarized in Table 5.4.

#### Table 5.4 Summary of hypotheses for mean servant leadership scores in GSS and SSSS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>SSSS</th>
<th>GSS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HA.0</td>
<td>( \mu_{S4,SL} \leq 4 )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Null hypothesis)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HA.1</td>
<td>( \mu_{S4,SL} &gt; 4 )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Alt hypothesis)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HB.0</td>
<td>( \mu_{GSS,SL} \geq 4 )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Null hypothesis)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HB.1</td>
<td>( \mu_{GSS,SL} &lt; 4 )</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Alt hypothesis)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 5.4, \( \mu_{S4,SL} \) is the mean servant leadership score obtained for SSSS and \( \mu_{GSS,SL} \) is the mean servant leadership score obtained for GSS.

Figure 5.3  Mean servant leadership score by time in company
The results of the t-test for the mean servant leadership score for GSS against a test constant of 4 are given in table 5.5. The first row provides the results obtained from the Statistica package without applying a Finite Population Correction (FPC) factor, and the second row presents the results obtained using the Excel spreadsheet analysis of the survey results with the FPC factor applied in accordance with (Spiegel, 1972). Statistica does not allow for the incorporation of a finite population correction factor.

Table 5.5  t-test for the mean SL score for GSS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Test of means against reference constant (value) (GSS in MBL 3 analysis.stw)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.Dv.</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std.Err.</th>
<th>Reference Constant</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SL (without FPC)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.887520</td>
<td>0.588326</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>0.085816</td>
<td>4.000000</td>
<td>-1.31071</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>0.196463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL (with FPC)</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.887520</td>
<td>0.588326</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>0.085816</td>
<td>4.000000</td>
<td>-1.86388</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>0.068727</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using the more accurate results with the FPC factor applied as discussed in section 4 of chapter 4, it is clear that, with a p-value of 0.068, the test is significant at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.1$ (p-value < 0.1), but that the test is not significant at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$ (p-value > 0.05). Using the latter significance level, we conclude that the test is not significant and that the null hypothesis cannot be rejected. We conclude that at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$, the sample does not provide sufficient evidence that the mean servant leadership score at GSS is less than 4, as hypothesized. Although the result is not statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$, it is clear that the mean score for the sample obtained is less than 4.

This is a very marginal result since the one-tailed p-value is 0.068, which is very close to 0.05. If the sample size were larger the same result could have easily been significant, meaning that the null hypothesis could have been rejected, and the alternative hypothesis accepted that the mean servant leadership score at GSS is less than 4. Indeed, the mean score obtained is 3.887 (less than 4 out of 5 for servant-led organizations). The critical value (with the sample size obtained) at which this score becomes statistically significant is calculated as $\mu_{\text{crit}} = 3.879$ (obtained using equations for the t-statistic from Spiegel (1972) and the Excel
function for the inverse t-distribution), i.e. if the sample mean score was less than or equal to the critical value, the result would have also been statistically significant. Clearly, there is little PRACTICAL difference between the obtained sample mean score value and the critical value for statistical significance.

As discussed, with the sample data obtained as part of this study, we cannot conclude that GSS is not servant-led, although this is a very marginal conclusion given that the p-value is so close to the 0.05 significance level. This result is discussed in greater detail in the next chapter, within the context of the results presented in the next section.

Figure 5.4 shows the box and whisker plot for mean servant leadership scores obtained for GSS. Figure 5.5 provides a good indication of the range of values obtained for servant leadership within GSS.

![Box & Whisker Plot](image)

Figure 5.4 Statistica box and whisker plot for mean servant leadership scores for GSS

The plot shows that the median score was 4.00, the interquartile range was 3.6571 to 4.2857, the minimum score was 2.4857 and the maximum score 4.8286.
Table 5.6 provides the t-test results for the mean servant leadership score at SSSS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Test of means against reference constant (value) (SSSS in MBL 3 analysis.stw)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL (without FPC)</td>
<td>3.898658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL (with FPC)</td>
<td>3.898658</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using the more accurate results in the second row (which includes the FPC factor), we see that the sample (with a mean of 3.89) does not provide sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis that \( \mu_{S4, SL} \leq 4 \). This is an obvious result which does not require us to compare the p-value to a significance level of 0.05, since the mean score obtained lies in the direction of the null hypothesis, i.e. \( \leq 4 \). We conclude that we **cannot reject the null hypothesis** that the mean servant leadership score for SSSS is less than or equal to 4, and therefore that the sample obtained does not provide sufficient evidence that SSSS is servant-led, i.e. mean score greater than 4 out of 5. This result is discussed in greater detail in the next chapter, within the context of the results presented in the previous section.

Using Excel, the critical value required for statistical significance with the sample parameters obtained is \( \mu_{\text{CRIT}} = 4.145 \). This means that only if the sample mean score was greater than or equal to 4.145 would the result have been statistically significant and thereby allow us to conclude that SSSS is servant-led.

Figure 5.5 shows the box and whisker plot of mean servant leadership scores obtained for SSSS. It is clear that some scores were indeed greater than 4.145, meaning that some SSSS leaders do display servant leader behaviours.
Figure 5.5 Statistica box and whisker plot for mean servant leadership scores for SSSS

4 Servant Leadership Mean Scores by Servant Leadership Dimension

As discussed in chapter 4, this study uses the Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale developed by Sendjaya, et al. (2008) to measure the prevalence of servant leadership behaviours in both GSS and SSSS. The SLBS measures 6 dimensions of servant leadership, all discussed in chapter 3: Voluntary Subordination (VS), Authentic Self (AS), Covenantal Relationships (CR), Responsible Morality (RM), Transcendent Spirituality (TS) and Transforming Influence (TI).

Figure 5.6 shows the mean scores obtained for each dimension of servant leadership in GSS, SSSS and for the combined GSS/SSSS sample.
Figure 5.6  Mean scores by servant leadership dimension

Although, not part of the formal hypotheses tested in this report, the above mean scores are tested for statistical significance against the null hypothesis that the score for each dimension is greater than or equal to 4, which is the score that can be expected for a servant-led organization. Stated in symbols, the null hypothesis test is: $$H_0: \mu \geq 4$$, where $$\mu$$ is the mean score for the dimension tested.

The statistical tests for each mean score were conducted using the Excel spreadsheet software and are given in table 5.7.

Table 5.7  Results of hypothesis tests for mean scores per servant leadership dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Mean score</th>
<th>t-statistic</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Result for $$\alpha = 0.05$$</th>
<th>Hyp Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GSS (Voluntary Subordination)</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>-2.18246</td>
<td>0.034219</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>Reject H0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSS (Authentic Self)</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>-2.85923</td>
<td>0.006363</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>Reject H0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSS (Covenantal Relationship)</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>-0.23114</td>
<td>0.818234</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td>Do not reject H0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dimension</td>
<td>Mean score</td>
<td>t-statistic</td>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>Result for α = 0.05</td>
<td>Hyp Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSS (Responsible Morality)</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.385983</td>
<td>0.701289</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td>Do not reject H0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSS (Transcendent Spirituality)</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>-2.51062</td>
<td>0.01563</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>Reject H0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSS (Transforming Influence)</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>-2.30094</td>
<td>0.025978</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>Reject H0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSSS (Voluntary Subordination)</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>-1.44419</td>
<td>0.152797</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td>Do not reject H0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSSS (Authentic Self)</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>-2.42978</td>
<td>0.017468</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>Reject H0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSSS (Covenantal Relationship)</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>-0.60409</td>
<td>0.547583</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td>Do not reject H0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSSS (Responsible Morality)</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>-0.95906</td>
<td>0.340572</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td>Do not reject H0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSSS (Transcendent Spirituality)</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>-1.3573</td>
<td>0.178703</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td>Do not reject H0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSSS (Transforming Influence)</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>-1.09946</td>
<td>0.27504</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
<td>Do not reject H0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results indicate that the scores obtained for GSS on the dimensions Voluntary Subordination, Authentic Self, Transcendent Spirituality and Transforming Influence are not consistent with those of a servant-led organization. The data do not support the alternative hypothesis that the scores for Covenantal Relationships and Responsible Morality are those consistent with a non servant-led organization.

The results for SSSS indicate that only the score obtained for the Authentic Self dimension are not consistent with the score that can be expected for a servant-led organization, i.e. the score is (statistically-significantly) lower than what could have been expected had SSSS been servant-led on this dimension. The results for the rest of the dimensions do not support the alternative hypothesis that the scores obtained are those consistent with a non servant-led organization.
These results are discussed in greater detail in chapter 6, together with the results for statistical significance testing of the overall mean scores for servant leadership.

5 Tests for Relationships between SL Mean Scores and Mean Scores for Trust and Passive Management-by-Exception

This section presents the results of correlations between the mean scores for servant leadership and interpersonal trust, and servant leadership and passive management-by-exception and the associated tests for statistical significance, for the combined GSS/SSSS sample. The hypotheses tested are summarized in table 5.8

Table 5.8 Summary of hypotheses for mean servant leadership scores in GSS and SSSS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Total Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HC.0 (Null hypothesis)</td>
<td>No relationship between $\mu_{SL}$ and $\mu_{OTI}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HC.1 (Alt hypothesis)</td>
<td>Positive relationship between $\mu_{SL}$ and $\mu_{OTI}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HD.0 (Null hypothesis)</td>
<td>No relationship between $\mu_{SL}$ and $\mu_{MBE,P}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HD.1 (Alt hypothesis)</td>
<td>Negative relationship between $\mu_{SL}$ and $\mu_{MBE,P}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Prior to testing for statistical significance of correlations between mean servant leadership, passive management-by-exception and interpersonal trust scores, it is necessary to first determine whether these variables are normally distributed in the population. The assumption of normality is important in the choice of statistical test for correlation. Should the variables be normally distributed in the population, the parametric Pearson’s $r$ measure of correlation can be used, and its associated hypothesis test can be used to test for statistical significance of the observed correlation (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 2005). Should the assumption of normality not be valid, the non-parametric Spearman’s rank-order correlation $r$-value should be used, and its associated test for significance used to test for statistical significance of the observed correlations in the sample (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 2005).
5.1 **Tests for normality**

This section discusses statistical tests for the assumption that mean scores for the combined GSS/SSSS sample for servant leadership, interpersonal trust and passive management-by-exception are normally distributed in the population. The Statistica software’s Kolmogorov-Smirnov (with Lilliefors p-value) and Chi-Square distribution tests are used.

The frequency distribution of the mean scores for servant leadership for the combined sample is shown in figure 5.7, together with the results of Statistica tests for the null hypothesis that the variable is normally distributed in the population.

![Statistica frequency distribution and best-fitting normal distribution for servant leadership mean scores in the combined GSS/SSSS sample](image)

Figure 5.7  Statistica frequency distribution and best-fitting normal distribution for servant leadership mean scores in the combined GSS/SSSS sample

As can be seen in figure 5.7, both the Lilliefors p-value (p < 0.01) and the chi-square test p-value (p=0.00536) are both significant at α=0.05, meaning that the null hypothesis that the variable is normally distributed in the population can be rejected. Conversely, we can conclude that the sample does not provide evidence that the mean scores for servant leadership are normally distributed in the population.
Figures 5.8 and 5.9 provide similar results for the mean scores for interpersonal trust as measured using the OTI, and passive management-by-exception as measured using the MLQ.

Variable: OTI, Distribution: Normal

Kolmogorov-Smirnov d = 0.10365, p < 0.15, Lilliefors p < 0.01
Chi-Square test = 24.45862, df = 5 (adjusted), p = 0.00018

Figure 5.8 Statistica frequency distribution and best-fitting normal distribution plot for interpersonal trust mean scores in the combined GSS/SSSS sample
The Lilliefors p-value ($p < 0.01$) and chi-square test p-value ($p = 0.00018$) for the interpersonal trust mean scores are both statistically significant at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$, meaning that we reject the null hypothesis that the interpersonal trust mean scores in the population are normally distributed.

The Lilliefors p-value ($p < 0.01$) and chi-square test p-value ($p = 0.03328$) for the passive management-by-exception mean scores are both statistically significant at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$, meaning that we reject the null hypothesis that the passive management-by-exception mean scores in the population are normally distributed.

Given that none of the variables for servant leadership, passive management-by-exception and interpersonal trust are normally distributed in the population, it is necessary to use the Spearman’s rank-order correlation $r$-value and its associated test for statistical significance to test for correlations between these three variables.
5.2 *Tests for correlation between servant leadership mean scores and interpersonal trust mean scores*

Figure 5.10 shows a scatterplot of servant leadership (SL) mean scores plotted against mean scores for interpersonal trust (OTI) together with the calculated value for Pearson’s-r. As discussed earlier, since neither of these variables is normally distributed in the population, the statistical test for Pearson’s-r cannot be used to test for statistical significance of the observed relationship. Instead, we use the non-parametric Spearman’s rank-order correlation r-value.

Table 5.9 shows the results of the calculation of the Spearman’s rank-order correlation and the associated p-value.

![Scatterplot: SL vs. OTI (Casewise MD deletion)](image_url)

OTI = 1.3027 + 1.0889 * SL

Correlation: r = .70698

Figure 5.10 Statistica scatterplot and calculated Pearson’s-r for correlation between servant leadership mean scores and interpersonal trust mean scores in the combined GSS/SSSS sample
Table 5.9 Spearman’s rank-order correlations and associated test for statistical significance for mean servant leadership and interpersonal trust scores in the combined GSS/SSSS sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Spearman Rank Order Correlations (Total in MBL 3 analysis.stw)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MD pairwise deleted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marked correlations are significant at p &lt;.05000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL</td>
<td>1.000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OTI</td>
<td>0.664164</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As evident in table 5.9, the calculated Spearman’s rank-order correlation r-value is 0.664, which is statistically significant at the significance level $\alpha=0.05$, which means that we reject the null hypothesis (HC.0 in table 5.7) that there exists no relationship between servant leadership and interpersonal trust. We accept the alternative hypothesis (HC.1) that there exists a positive relationship between servant leadership and interpersonal trust in the target population.

5.3 Tests for correlation between servant leadership mean scores and passive management-by-exception mean scores

Figure 5.11 shows a scatterplot of servant leadership (SL) mean scores plotted against mean scores for passive management-by-exception (MBEP) together with the calculated value for Pearson’s-r. As discussed earlier, since neither of these variables is normally distributed in the population, the statistical test for Pearson’s-r cannot be used to test for statistical significance of the observed relationship. Instead, we use the non-parametric Spearman’s rank-order correlation r-value.

Table 5.10 shows the results of the calculation of the Spearman’s rank-order correlation and the associated p-value.
Figure 5.11 Stata scatterplot and calculated Pearson’s- \( r \) for correlation between servant leadership mean scores and passive management-by-exception mean scores in the combined GSS/SSSS sample

Table 5.10 Spearman’s rank-order correlations and associated test for statistical significance for mean servant leadership and passive management-by-exception scores in the combined GSS/SSSS sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Spearman Rank Order Correlations (Total in MBL 3 analysis.stw)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MD pairwise deleted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marked correlations are significant at ( p &lt; .05000 )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SL</th>
<th>MBEP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SL</td>
<td>1.000000</td>
<td>-0.513844</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MBEP</td>
<td>-0.513844</td>
<td>1.000000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As evident in table 5.10, the calculated Spearman’s rank-order correlation $r$-value is -0.514, which is statistically significant at the significance level $\alpha=0.05$, which means that we reject the null hypothesis (HD.0 in table 5.8) that there exists no relationship between servant leadership and passive management-by-exception. We accept the alternative hypothesis (HD.1) that there exists a negative relationship between servant leadership and passive management-by-exception in the target population.
Chapter 6: Discussion, conclusions and recommendations

This chapter commences by discussing the results of the survey that measured respondent’s perceptions relating to the extent to which their direct leaders displayed servant leadership behaviours, the degree of interpersonal trust between the respondent and his/her leader, and the respondent’s perceptions of the extent to which his/her leader displays passive management-by-exception behaviours.

The chapter then provides concluding remarks on the research questions raised in chapter 1, and provides recommendations for further research.

1 Servant Leadership Mean Scores by Demographic Category

As part of the survey, respondents were requested to indicate the following demographic information: age group, job level and time worked for company in years. The demographic profile of each sample and the combined GSS/SSSS sample is given in tables 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3. Table 5.1 shows that the majority of the respondents were in the 40-49 age group (29.84%). The age profiles of the two samples are similar.

Table 5.2 shows that the majority of respondents for the combined sample were in the Junior Administrative job category (43.09%); however the job levels of the two samples differ significantly from each other. The GSS sample had the majority of respondents that belonged to the middle management category (level 5). The distribution of job levels is consistent with the type of work performed by the two departments. The GSS department is responsible for providing strategic direction to the Sasol group on supply markets and managing strategic group contracts with a high value and business impact. The SSSS department is responsible for execution of operational purchasing functions, which involve a large administrative component.

Table 5.3 shows the distribution of respondent’s by time worked in the company. Of interest is that a large number of respondents (21.8%) have worked for less than 2
years within Sasol. However, the largest proportion of respondents has worked for more than 10 years (54%).

Figures 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 show the distribution of mean scores obtained according to age group, job level and time worked for the company. Apart from time worked for the company, the other categorizations display markedly different mean scores for each category. It is interesting to note that despite the difference in the work performed by the two departments, the distribution of scores obtained is similar.

Figure 5.1 shows that, both for GSS and SSSS, the lowest mean scores were obtained by those in the 20-29 age group (mean scores approximately equal to 3.6). Although not tested for statistical significance, it appears as if people in this age group perceive their leaders not to be servant leaders. A similar situation holds for the 0-19 age group. The total number of responses received in the 0-29 age group was 23 out of a total of 124 (18.5%). The majority of people in this age group (approximately 77%) are on job level 7 or lower (senior and junior administrative). It is likely that these people, being more junior both in job level and age, are involved in routine and repetitive work and that such work involves little or no relations-oriented leadership behaviours such as servant leadership, or that even when such behaviours are necessary, they are lacking.

People aged higher than or equal to 50 years of age rated their leaders the highest in servant leadership behaviours, as can be seen in figure 5.1. Within this age group, the majority (24 out of 35, or 68%) are employed at level 7 or lower, i.e. senior and junior administrative. However, in contrast to the 0-29 year age group, they perceive a higher prevalence of servant leader behaviours in their leaders. It is possible that this is the case either because the more senior (by age) personnel are reporting to more mature leaders, who are skilled in servant leadership and other relations-oriented behaviours, or that people in this age group have developed stronger and more mature exchange relationships with their leaders.

Figure 5.2 shows that people on level 5 (middle management) rated their leaders consistently high on servant leadership behaviours (mean scores for GSS and SSSS both higher than 4). There are many possible factors that could be responsible for these high ratings, the detailed examination of which are outside the scope of the
current study. Two such factors could be that there exists a higher prevalence of servant leadership behaviours at higher management levels – level 5 personnel mostly report to level 4 and higher managers – than at lower management levels, and that that more senior employees, due to the more complex nature of their work, interact more with their leaders and develop more rewarding interpersonal exchange relationships than do those at more junior levels.

Examining servant leadership perceptions according to demographic category was not a key goal of this research project, but the results obtained are interesting, and indicate that more research is needed to understand whether servant leadership is significantly related to demographic variables such as age and job level.

2 Servant Leadership in Group Strategic Sourcing

Based on the results of surveys conducted by others (Horn, 2007) and the Barrett Survey results presented in chapter 2, it was hypothesized in chapter 3 that Group Strategic Sourcing is not servant-led, i.e. that the mean score for servant leadership within GSS would be less than 4. The associated null hypothesis was that the mean servant leadership score for GSS was greater than or equal to 4. The result of the statistical test of this hypothesis was presented in table 5.5. The statistical test showed that the mean score of 3.887 obtained for GSS was not statistically significant at a significance level of \( \alpha = 0.05 \) (p-value 0.0687) and critical value 3.879. It was however observed that this was a marginal result and that the balance of probability is higher that in practice, GSS is NOT servant-led.

The latter finding seems to be confirmed by the results obtained for each servant leadership dimension, given in table 5.7. Here, tested against the null hypothesis that the mean score for each servant leadership dimension is greater than or equal to 4 in the target population, statistically significant results were obtained for the dimensions, Voluntary Subordination, Authentic Self, Transcendent Spirituality and Transforming Influence. The results were not statistically significant for the dimensions Authentic Self and Responsible Morality. This result implies that GSS is not servant-led on 4 out of 6 servant leadership dimensions. The result for Responsible Morality is consistent with what can be expected in a procurement and
supply management department, where a high degree of emphasis is placed on integrity and ethical conduct. Responsible Morality includes behaviours where leaders seek to ensure that the ends they seek and means they employ to achieve those ends are moral, ethical and just. The high score (4.02) within GSS on this dimension is an indicator that the leaders within GSS are strong in these behaviours.

Although not low, of note is that the score obtained for Authentic Self is the lowest of all other dimensions, implying that GSS leaders probably do not consistently display congruence between thoughts, words and deeds. Leaders with a high rating on the Authentic Self dimension also have a secure sense of self, enabling them to accept criticism without becoming defensive (Sendjaya, et al., 2008), accept accountability and make themselves vulnerable to others.

Voluntary Subordination describes a leadership orientation where the leader is willing to voluntarily serve others for the sake of the person served. It is the antithesis of a self-serving outlook. The score for GSS on the Voluntary Subordination dimension is statistically significant, implying that GSS is not servant-led on this dimension. While the score is relatively high (3.84), the leadership climate within GSS can benefit from a mindset change towards a “service-to-others” mindset, rather than a self-seeking mindset, in line with the theoretical and research findings discussed in chapters 2 and 3.

The average servant leadership score obtained for level 6 personnel within GSS was the lowest of all the levels at 2.86. Although the sample size for this category is small (9 respondents), which prevents results being generalized to the population, a better understanding needs to be obtained about why the score is so low. Figure 6.1 shows the mean interpersonal trust score obtained per job level for GSS, SSSS and the combined sample. Clearly, the interpersonal trust score for level 6 personnel in GSS is cause for concern at 4.06 out of a maximum of 7. On the 7-point scale used to rate interpersonal trust, a score of 4 out of 7 corresponds with a rating of “50-50”, which can be regarded as a low level of trust. This correlates with the low score for servant leadership as perceived by level 6 personnel. As discussed in chapters 2 and 3, trust is a key ingredient in ensuring effective interpersonal relationships, commitment and motivation within organizations. An absence of trust leads to a dysfunctional culture, which inevitably leads to poor organizational health and performance. Based on the
quantitative nature of this study, insufficient information exists in order to analyze the reasons for the low levels of perceived servant leadership and organizational trust amongst level 6 personnel, however, this aspect warrants further attention.

Figure 6.1 Interpersonal Trust Score per Job Level

The results for Transcendent Spirituality (TS) and Transforming Influence for the GSS sample were also statistically significant.

TS refers to an orientation in which the leader is attuned to basic spiritual values, and in serving them, serves others. It also refers to an orientation wherein a sense of wholeness is restored to people and where the leader fosters an integrated, holistic life to individuals in the workplace. Leaders high in this dimension are also attuned to a sense of interconnectedness between the internal self and the external world, the awareness of which enables them to engage in meaningful and intrinsically motivating work. An absence or limited presence of these qualities in interpersonal relationships and in a leader’s own makeup eventually leads to outcomes such as unbalanced work/life orientation, and a lack of a sense of purpose and meaning within the workplace. Both of these are recognized as part of a constructive culture, as discussed in chapter 2. It is therefore imperative for GSS’s leaders to assess their own levels of TS-orientation and adapt behaviours to suit a TS-orientation where required.

As discussed in chapter 3, Transforming Influence is associated with behaviours such as role modelling, mentoring, empowering and trust. Through these
behaviours, leaders are able to transform the workplace and beyond to become more emotionally stable, improve social relations and develop others. Again these outcomes are key to healthy organizations. As discussed in chapter 2, emotional intelligence is considered a key competence in the modern business world and includes emotional stability, which servant leaders, through their transforming influence, help to bring about.

3 Servant Leadership in Sasol Secunda Shared Services: Procurement and Supply Management

Based on the results of the employee engagement survey conducted early in 2008 within SSSS, it was hypothesized that SSSS is a servant-led organization, with a mean score greater than 4. The results of the statistical test of the associated null hypothesis that the mean score in SSSS is less than or equal to 4 was not significant, leading to the conclusion that the sample provides insufficient evidence (with a mean score of 3.899) to allow us to conclude that SSSS is servant-led. The critical value for rejection of the null hypothesis was given in chapter 5 as 4.145. If the null hypothesis was the opposite, i.e. that the mean score for servant leadership within SSSS is greater than or equal to 4, the critical value for rejection of this hypothesis would have been 3.854, which is very close to the value obtained of 3.899. It is therefore more likely that instead of being servant-led, SSSS is not servant-led.

More insight into the extent of servant leader behaviours within SSSS is obtained by examining the results of statistical tests for the six individual dimensions of servant leadership measured as part of this study, and listed in table 5.7. Here, when tested against the null hypothesis that the associated behaviours correspond with a servant-led organization, the only statistically significant result was that for the Authentic Self dimension, for which the mean score obtained of 3.81 corresponds with a non-servant led organization. This result is similar for GSS and the same discussion given above for GSS applies here too.

Of note is that the results for the other five servant leadership dimension were all statistically insignificant, as opposed to GSS where only two dimensions had statistically insignificant results. It is therefore safe to conclude that SSSS is characterized by a higher prevalence of servant leadership behaviours than GSS.
Hence, although the hypothesis that overall, SSSS is servant led, was not supported by the data, there is a greater prevalence of servant leader behaviours within SSSS than in GSS.

4  Relationship between Servant Leadership and Passive Management-by-exception

Passive management-by-exception is a subset of the Transactional Leadership style (Avolio and Bass, 2008). It involves waiting for mistakes to occur before taking action, or intervening only when procedures and standards for task accomplishment are unmet. It is generally accepted to be an ineffective leadership style and research has show that it has strong negative associations with Effectiveness and Satisfaction (Avolio and Bass, 2008). According to Avolio and Bass (2008), follower’s development and performance are likely to suffer if focusing on mistakes is all the leader does. Research conducted by Barling, Slater and Kelloway quoted in Avolio and Bass (2008) found that passive management-by-exception was not associated with emotional intelligence.

Many of these behaviours contrast with those of servant leaders. For example, the Transforming Influence dimension of servant leadership includes behaviours such as role modelling, empowerment, mentoring and providing a compelling vision. Servant leaders are also active developers of people, instead of waiting for mistakes to occur before taking appropriate action.

These differences between passive management-by-exception and servant leadership led the researcher to hypothesize that there exists a negative relationship between servant leadership and passive management-by-exception. The results of the Spearman’s rank-order correlation test given in table 5.10 confirmed that a statistically significant (albeit weak) negative relationship exists between servant leadership and passive management-by-exception for the combined GSS and SSSS sample. The r-value obtained was \( r = -0.514 \) which was significant at \( \alpha = 0.05 \). The associated \( r^2 \) value is 0.264, meaning that 26% of the variation in the passive management-by-exception mean score is due to servant leadership.
This result also provides some confirmation of the discriminative validity of the SLBS, which further supports the suitability of the SLBS as an instrument to measure servant leadership.

5 Relationship between Servant Leadership and Interpersonal Trust

According to Yukl (2006), unless a leader is perceived to be trustworthy, it is difficult for the leader to retain the loyalty of his followers or to obtain the commitment and support of peers and superiors. Trust is also a major determinant of expert and referent power. Yukl (2006) states that personal integrity is a primary determinant of interpersonal trust, and is associated with behaviours such as honesty, keeping promises, the extent to which the leader serves and is loyal to followers, being able to keep secret information that is shared in confidence, behaviour consistent with values articulated and taking responsibility for one’s actions.

The existence of high levels of interpersonal trust is crucial to the effective functioning of work teams and organizations. Greenleaf views trust as “the cement that makes possible institutional solidarity, from the family to world solidarity” (Greenleaf, 1996d:336).

As discussed in detail in chapter 2, many different servant leader behaviours support and build interpersonal trust. Some of these include personal integrity, empowerment, taking accountability and the ability to build sound relationships through effective listening.

It was hypothesized that there exists a positive relationship between follower’s perceptions of servant leadership and interpersonal trust. Nyhan and Marlowe’s (1997) Organizational Trust Inventory (OTI) instrument was used to measure the extent of interpersonal trust between follower and leader. The average score obtained for interpersonal trust was then correlated with average servant leader scores obtained using the SLBS. The results of the statistical correlation analysis are presented in table 5.10 and figure 5.9 and a Spearman’s rank-order correlation r-value of 0.66 (statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$) was found. This indicates a moderately strong relationship between servant leadership and interpersonal trust.
and supports the hypothesis that there exists a positive relationship between these two constructs.

Given the importance of interpersonal trust to organizational health, we conclude that servant leader behaviours build trust and are important in establishing a healthy organizational climate.

6 Conclusions and Recommendations

This research project has investigated servant leadership as a leadership orientation and philosophy. The attributes of servant leaders were analyzed in detail against the background of general research on leadership and effective leadership behaviours. It was found that servant leadership has a strong moral and ethical dimension, and is grounded in the fundamental belief that people have inherent worth beyond their purely instrumental value to a business organization in meeting its business objectives. Servant leaders are, inter alia, devoid of egoistic pride (Wong and Page, 2003), place the interest of others above their own (Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006), develop others (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003), and play an active role in meeting the growth and development needs of their followers.

This section provides concluding remarks on the servant leadership model, with specific reference to the research questions listed in chapter 1 and the practical implications of some of the more important aspects of the servant leadership model.

6.1 Sub-problem 1

Part of the study of the servant leadership model presented in this report involved an examination of the subject of leadership in general, more specifically, definitions of leadership, theoretical models of leadership and the traits, skills and behaviours of effective leaders that have been identified in the literature to date. It was shown in chapters 2 and 3 that leadership has been defined primarily as an influence process, in which others are influenced to achieve certain goals (Yukl, 2006; Hughes, et al., 2006; Blanchard and Hodges, 2003). It was discussed that leadership is a process
that involves interactions between the situation, leader and follower (Hughes, et al., 2006) and that if these aspects are depicted as circles, the areas in which the circles overlap represent interactions between these three conceptual domains. The main practical implication of this is that there is no single universally applicable set of leader behaviours or traits that guarantee positive outcomes, but that the behaviours of leaders that are effective are dependent upon the situation at hand and the nature of the followers. Leaders therefore need to be dynamic and adaptive in the behaviours they display. For example, Blanchard and Hodges (2003) describe a Situational Leadership II paradigm, where a leader’s behaviours need to adapt according to the development level of the person being influenced. Moreover, according to the Situational Leadership theory, it is important for leader’s to be aware of and take advantage of opportunities to advance and build the skills of followers (Yukl, 2006).

A further implication of the situational dimension of leadership is that the most effective leadership style for a particular organization may differ from the style that may be applicable to other organizations, or between departments of the same organization. Again this requires a skill that may be termed ‘situational awareness’ in the leader, and the leader to adapt his or her behaviour according to the needs of the situation at hand.

Three categories of leader behaviour were identified in chapter 2: task, relations and change-oriented behaviours, and it was discussed that all three types of behaviours are important and to be developed by leaders. Effective leaders display task-oriented behaviours such as organizing the work, short-term planning of operations, setting goals and objectives for performance, allocating work to followers, directing and coordination of work performance (Yukl, 2006). Effective relations-oriented behaviours include providing support and encouragement, building relationships, coaching and mentoring (Yukl, 2006). The most important change-oriented behaviour is that of developing an inspiring vision for the organization linked to its core competencies (Yukl, 2006).

Various traits were found by researchers to be possessed by effective leaders, some of which are universal in nature (Yukl, 2006; Hughes, et al., 2006; House, et al., 2006). Some universally accepted attributes and behaviours identified by the
GLOBE project include (House, et al., 2006): Trustworthy, Positive, Intelligent, Dynamic, Team-builder, Honest, Foresighted and Motivational. Likewise, traits such as: Loner, Irritable and Dictatorial were found by the GLOBE project to be universally recognized as negative (House, et al., 2006).

The implications are that leaders need to conduct self and 360-degree assessments, of their traits and behaviours and compare the results obtained with those found to be effective in the research. This should lead to a competency profile, which should then be used to develop a personal development plan for the leader. Furthermore, companies need to base their decisions on who to promote to leadership positions, and when this should happen, on such traits and behaviours, and not as normally happens, on the technical or political proficiency of the candidate. Formal leadership development programmes should exist within organizations based upon the traits and behaviours identified for effective leaders.

6.2 Sub-problem 2

After the general discussion on the definition, traits and behaviours of effective leaders, the report discussed servant leadership in detail. Three servant leadership models were presented: Greenleaf (Frick, 1998; Greenleaf, 1998a; Ferch, 2004; Greenleaf, 1998c; Greenleaf, 1996c; DeGraaf, et al., 2004; Spears, 1998); Blanchard and Hodges (2006) and Chibber (1999).

It was shown that servant leaders place a relatively high emphasis on the growth and development of their followers, specifically, for them to become servant leaders themselves. According to Blanchard and Hodges (2006), the servant leader serves his or her followers in order that they can more easily attain the vision and mission of the organization. Servant leaders recognize that their organizations exist in order to serve the needs of society and take into account the needs of all the organizations stakeholders in the decisions they make and the behaviours they exhibit (Covey, 2006; Spears, 2004). Servant leadership theory emphasizes the inner motives of the leader to a greater extent that do other leadership theories (Stone, et al., 2003; Frick, 1998). The servant leader is primarily a servant first (Frick, No date; Spears, 1998).
The servant leader has a servant heart and servant leadership emphasizes a leader’s character (Wong and Page, 2004; Chibber, 1999; Blanchard and Hodges, 2003).

The emphasis on the inner motive of the leader and his/her character has major implications for practicing leaders, requiring of them to introspect deeply into their inner motives and identify the character flaws that may detract from them manifesting servant leader behaviours. Does the leader truly care for his/her followers? Does the leader treat his/her followers as a means to an end? Does the leader care more for his / her own advancement than those of followers? Should the answers to these questions not be in line with the principles of servant leadership, a conscious effort needs to be made to transform one’s motives to be less self-serving and self-focused.

Servant leaders influence others through the gentle art of persuasion and not through the use of positional power (Greenleaf, 1998a). Again, this has major implications for most organizations, in which managers and leaders are used to the (ab)use of positional power to induce compliance in their followers. Many organizations regulate the work of others through the use of detailed procedures and guidelines. While desirable to some extent, servant leadership theory, through its emphasis on persuasion and participative leadership (Greenleaf, 1998a) suggests that excessive use of such procedures and rules reduces the ability of followers to arrive at their own conclusions about the correctness of specific business processes and job requirements as, when procedures and rules are widespread, people tend to function more as cogs in a machine that is constantly repeating the same detailed business process, and not as intelligent, emotional and creative beings. The implication is that procedures and job requirements should cover only the most critical aspects of the job and that people should be allowed creative freedom to execute their jobs by drawing on their own inspiration, intuition and innovative spirit.

The notion of serving and the belief that a leader’s effectiveness is grounded in his/her character makes servant leadership a distinct leadership theory (Sendjaya, et al., 2008; Stone, et al., 2003) that differs from other leadership theories such as transformational leadership, authentic leadership and spiritual leadership (Sendjaya, et al., 2008). It warrants careful consideration by organizations, and if not adopted in its entirety, its philosophy of service to others needs to be embraced and as many of
its prescribed behaviours as possible should be adopted by organizations, after giving due consideration to the situation facing the organization. This latter point is important, since, as discussed above, various aspects of the situation determine the specific leadership behaviours that are important at any given time.

Another area in which servant leadership theory differs from other leadership theories, especially transformational leadership is that the focus of the servant leader is first on the followers then on the results of the business. In Greenleaf’s own words, the success of the servant leader is judged by his effect on his followers and other stakeholders: “do those served grow as persons; do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society; will he benefit, or, at least, will he not be further deprived? I would now add one further stipulation: No one will knowingly be hurt by the action, directly or indirectly.” (Greenleaf, 1998a:43). The servant leader places the good of the follower before that of the organization (Sendjaya, et al., 2008). On the other hand, the role of transformational leaders is to inspire followers to pursue organizational objectives first and foremost (Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006; Stone, et al., 2004).

Again, the implications for the modern business organization are far-reaching. Few businesses, if any, list the operational, moral and ethical growth and development of their people as their top strategic objective, or give this aspect prominence in their vision or mission statements. Most companies list objectives such as revenue growth, profitability improvement or shareholder value creation as their primary objective and the growth and objective of their people as a secondary objective, in support of the primary business objective. Servant leadership dictates that leaders need to re-orientate their thinking towards placing greater emphasis on the operational, moral and ethical development of their followers (Sendjaya, et al., 2008). The rationale for this is summarized by Stone, et al., (2004:355): “organizational goals will be achieved on a long-term basis only by first facilitating the growth, development, and general well-being of the individuals who comprise the organization.”

Apart from the differences discussed above, many of the leadership traits and behaviours prescribed by servant leadership theory are similar to those prescribed by
other leadership theories and identified as part of general research on leadership. These have been discussed in detail in chapters 2 and 3. For example, the GLOBE project identified the following universally endorsed traits and behaviours (House, et al., 2001): Trustworthy, Team-builder, Honest, Foresighted and Motivational. These correspond with servant leadership traits and behaviours such as: keeping promises and delivering on commitments (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003; Sendjaya, et al., 2008), providing encouragement to others and role modelling (Sendjaya, et al., 2008; Laub, 2005; Russell, 2001), Foresight (Greenleaf, 1996e) and the ability to conceptualize (De Graaf, et al., 2004). The implication is that the main prescriptions of servant leadership theory are directly supported by other empirical general leadership research.

6.3 **Sub-problem 3**

Only a few studies that have addressed the correlation between servant leadership and outcomes such as job satisfaction, trust, motivation and perceptions of organizational effectiveness are reported in the literature. As discussed in chapter 3, most studies have been conceptual in nature or have sought to develop instruments for measuring servant leadership.

However, apart from the present study, that of Joseph and Winston (2005) found a positive correlation between servant leadership and interpersonal and organizational trust. Results presented by Hale and Fields (2007) found a positive relationship between servant leadership and leader effectiveness as measured using a 7-point scale. A two-year case study conducted by Winston (2004) in a Bible College setting found that the head of the institution studied was characterized as a servant leader and that “the general morale and performance of the organization has improved during his tenure” (Winston, 2004:615). Washington, et al., (2006) found a positive relationship between servant leadership and followers’ ratings of their leaders’ values of empathy, integrity and competence. Finally, Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) found significant relationships between servant leadership and extra effort, satisfaction, and organizational effectiveness.
Again, notwithstanding the specific contexts within which these studies were conducted, these findings provide support to the view that servant leadership leads to positive organizational outcomes and warrants adoption by more organizations.

6.4 **Sub-problem 4**

Sub-problem 4 involved investigating whether servant leadership behaviours are prevalent in two divisions of a large South African petrochemical company. Sendjaya, *et al*'s, (2008) Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale (SLBS) was used to measure respondents’ perceptions on the degree to which specific servant leadership behaviours are manifested by their leaders. The results presented in section 2 led to the conclusion that, although the score of 3.887 obtained for the GSS sample was not statistically significant at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$ (p-value 0.0687) and critical value 3.879, this was a marginal result and that the balance of probability is higher in practice that GSS is NOT servant-led.

The latter finding is confirmed by the results obtained for each servant leadership dimension measured by the SLBS, where it was found that GSS is not servant-led on 4 out of 6 servant leadership dimensions. The implication for GSS is that the leadership climate within GSS can improve if leaders adopt a servant leadership mindset, where the good of their followers takes precedence over business objectives. As discussed earlier, this will result, in the long term, in improved business performance. Furthermore, being a service department dependent on knowledge workers, its people are its most important asset. A servant leadership orientation will result in the optimum development of GSS employees, thereby improving their effectiveness.

A similar result was obtained for SSSS, where it was found that the results obtained do not provide sufficient evidence to support the hypothesis that SSSS is servant-led. However, although the hypothesis that SSSS is servant led was not supported, the results indicated that there is a greater prevalence of servant leadership behaviours within SSSS than in GSS, as the results were statistically significant (leading to rejection of the hypothesis that SSSS is servant-led) for 1 out of 6 servant leadership dimensions. The implications for SSSS are promising and point to the need for SSSS leaders to continue on their path of emphasizing servant leader traits such as
foresight, caring for the growth and development of people, participative leadership and building a sense of community within SSSS, amongst others.

Both SSSS and GSS will benefit from greater exposure to the servant leadership philosophy and the further development and growth of the seeds of servant leadership that exist within these departments. This will give effect to the Sasol corporate objective to instil values such as: Placing care and development at the core of what we do; moving to empowered accountability and trust; and creating meaning and making a difference (see figure 2.10 and appendix 1), which Sasol wishes to make a part of its organizational culture as part of Project Enterprise. All these values are congruent with the philosophy of servant leadership as discussed in chapters 2 and 3.

### 6.5 Sub-problems 5 and 6

Perhaps of greatest significance in the investigation reported on in this document are the findings of positive correlation between servant leadership and interpersonal trust, and a negative relationship between servant leadership and passive management-by-exception. As discussed earlier, passive management-by-exception is a limited leadership style that has been shown not to correlate positively with desirable outcomes such as increased job satisfaction and motivation (Avolio and Bass, 2008). The implication of the negative correlation is that leaders that display servant leadership to a greater extent, display a lower prevalence of passive management-by-exception behaviours. It seems therefore that holding the mindset of a servant leader results in leaders reducing negative leadership behaviours.

The positive correlation between servant leadership and interpersonal trust adds to existing evidence in support of the view that servant leadership behaviours lead to increased levels of interpersonal trust between leaders and followers. With their focus on congruence, integrity and caring for others, it is unsurprising that servant leaders will be able to elicit higher levels of trust from their followers. Who would mistrust someone that is genuine, walks the talk, is honest and cares for that person? The implication for leaders is that a servant leadership mindset leads to the adoption of behaviours that improve the levels of interpersonal trust within the organization.
Overall, we conclude that servant leadership promises to be a viable leadership philosophy for business organizations, especially in the modern business environment, within which business success requires high levels of empowerment, coaching, mentoring and caring for the workforce.

7 Recommendations for Further Research

Although it has been examined in various research studies over the last 30 years or so, many topics relating to the servant leadership model require further investigation. These are discussed below.

Although it was briefly discussed in chapter 2 that servant leadership is suited to the South African cultural context, more quantitative research is required on a larger cross-section of South African businesses to confirm the applicability and suitability of the servant leadership philosophy to the South African context. This study has found servant leadership to correlate positively with interpersonal trust in two specific departments of a specific South African business. Would a similar situation prevail in smaller, non-listed companies, for example?

The analysis of servant leadership behaviours also points to a number of similarities with the transformational leadership approach that has been popular in recent years (Yukl, 2006). Although some writers have contrasted the two approaches (Sendjaya, et al., 2008; Stone, et al., 2003), such comparisons are more of a qualitative nature. More insight into the differences between these two philosophies, and an indication of which, if any, is more effective than the other, will be obtained through longitudinal experimental studies in which leader behaviours are manipulated in accordance with the two leadership philosophies and the effect upon outcomes of effective leadership, such as improved trust, higher levels of commitment and improved business unit performance measured.

Evidence has been found in this and other studies (Joseph and Winston, 2005; Hale and Fields, 2007; Winston, 2004; Washington, et al., 2006; Winston, 2004; Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006) of positive correlations between servant leadership, trust, leader
effectiveness, extra effort and satisfaction. The study of Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) also found a positive correlation between servant leadership and organizational effectiveness. Their study needs to be replicated in more organizations in different countries to confirm that servant leadership correlates positively with improved organizational effectiveness. For example, do servant-led organizations as a whole perform better than other peer organizations in similar markets and with similar business models? The comparison with similar organizations is important as it takes away the possible effects of external factors that may influence business success and isolates the influence of the leadership style applied within the organization upon the performance of the organization.

It is also unclear from the research that has been presented to date, whether the servant leadership model might be better suited to certain types of businesses, such as service organizations, than others, such as construction companies, where the nature of the work is such that practical, hands-on skills are more important than intellectual creativity and innovation.

To the author’s knowledge, no formal comparisons have been made to date on the extent to which the servant leadership model is compatible with legislation such as the Labour Relations Act, although it might be reasonably expected that servant leadership theory should not contradict legislation, with its high level of emphasis on ethics, morality and the good of followers. However, some of the questions that have not been addressed, which are of relevance in respect of business leadership, are: how do servant leaders act against unacceptable forms of behaviour such as negligence and consistent violations of a company’s code of conduct? Would servant leaders be more tolerant and forgiving towards some of these behaviours? A related question is: Might servant-led organizations be characterised by lower levels of fraudulent activity than non-servant led organizations?

The factors that predict the emergence of servant leaders have not been examined satisfactorily to date. Might there exist specific situations from which servant leaders are more likely to emerge than others? If this were known, it may be possible to create an environment conducive to servant leadership in a business, in the hope that more servant leaders might emerge. It is likely that greater insight into this point can be obtained by conducting qualitative research on the lives of specific leaders.
that have been identified in the literature as servant leaders, e.g. Nelson Mandela (Covey, 2006) and identifying the factors which lead to the emergence of servant leaders, and shape their motives and behaviours.

Closely linked to the need for greater empirical research on servant leadership within the South African context is the extent to which South African leaders are psychologically prepared for a servant leadership model. Are South African leaders bold and courageous enough to let go of past paradigms and enter the relatively unchartered waters of servant leadership? Do South African businesses care for their people and worry about the legacy left behind for future generations?

While not exhaustive, the above research questions offer opportunities for expanding the servant leadership body of knowledge and contributing to the resolution of the leadership crisis which Greenleaf identified many years ago (Greenleaf, 1998a; Greenleaf, 1998b). As discussed earlier, mankind’s quest for a constructive leadership model that leads to positive outcomes on a sustainable basis must succeed if future generations are to be assured of peace and security, and a harmonious co-existence with the natural world.

This study has shown that servant leadership could be the model that will achieve this objective.
List of References


Appendices
Enterprise – A journey to Values Driven Leadership

**Change Imperative**

One of the first questions a new Chief Executive is asked, is: “So what is your vision for the company?” Naturally, this has been occupying my mind ever since I got the job.

1. We have created a great organization within a complex environment, based on several well entrenched values –
   - Genuine pride and focus on performance
   - A passion and deep capability in developing Technology
   - Independent business units
2. Within this culture, being successful at Sasol has depended largely on:
   - Technical capability
   - Significant commitment to the company
   - Being self-motivated
   - Pro-actively managing one’s own career
3. However, our business context and growth strategy require new ways of working, interacting and leading –
   - Relationship with SA Government
   - More robust and well-communicated commitment to transformation
4. And in several areas we are poorly prepared for these challenges
   - BU culture shaped by individual personalities
   - We struggle to retain young and diverse talent
Appendix 1: Project Enterprise (Sasol Limited)

**Sasol’s Change Imperative – Summary & Core Themes**

- **The case for change…**
  - The transformation imperative in South Africa
  - We need to adapt our culture to deliver on this agenda
  - The challenge to deliver on our growth aspirations globally
  - We need to develop and empower our people to deliver

- **…and what it means for Sasol**
  - Deliver on our SA transformation agenda
  - Create an organizational model capable of competing globally (project DNA)
  - Effectively operationally and commercialize our technological lead
  - Grow our South African value chain through operational and safety performance excellence

- **Built on mindsets for the future…**
  - Getting rid of the remnants of arrogance and build a culture of humility and respect
  - Becoming more agile and flexible
  - Empowering, coaching and developing our people and keeping them accountable for performance
  - Getting rid of silos and realising synergies from interdependence
  - Creating a learning culture where we share knowledge freely and stop withholding or blaming behaviours
  - Balancing our focus on the short and the long term
  - Move from a culture of overworking to more balanced lives

- **Getting started**
  - Move from stress to stretch
  - Move from task only to task and people

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**Our Values are Not Changing …..**

- Sasol’s next frontier is marked by unparalleled growth and global expansion that opens up new opportunities, along with challenges and rewards along the path.
- To capture the growth, we should be willing and able to do things differently
- Values Driven leadership is mindsets and behaviour for the future of Sasol. Rather than (some) of those we bring from the past.
- All the Values Driven behaviours are rooted in our Values
- Enterprise is the vehicle to assist Sasol in becoming a Values Driven organisation
- Sasol Values are not changing, but the way in which we live them must change - It is not what we do, but HOW we do things that must change”
- Transforming our good intentions into behaviour that demonstrate our commitment to live the values
- If we as leaders demonstrate the values, the organisation will follow.
- We have to create meaning and make a difference in both profit and purpose.
The Journey of Sasol.....

Our vision... is enabled by our strategic agenda (change imperative)

Facilitating the required structural and behavioural change

To be a globally respected, values-driven, sustainable enterprise

Deliver on the SA transformation agenda

Nurture and grow our existing asset base

Commercialize our technological lead

Develop and empower our people to deliver growth

Values driven leadership

Sasol’s Case for Change - Why be a Values Driven Organisation?

- Be seen to be a “leading light” with regard to transformation of SA
  - Element of compliance to transformation requirements
  - Element of contributing to larger SA transformation
- Be a place where people are proud to work
- Able to retain current talent
- Become the employer of choice in SA and other places where we operate, able to attract both local and international talent
- Consistently exceed performance targets
- Become the “preferred partner” that stakeholders would want to choose
- Deliver on the strategic agenda
The 5 priority behavior shifts are at the heart of what Project Enterprise seeks to enable across Sasol

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>From...</th>
<th>To...</th>
<th>Where are you?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Respect, embrace and value diversity</td>
<td>Exclusive</td>
<td>Inclusive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fear</td>
<td>Opportunity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Privilege</td>
<td>Equality</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Know it all</td>
<td>Learn from others</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inanerativity</td>
<td>Dignity and respect</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move to empowered accountability and trust</td>
<td>Command and control</td>
<td>Empowered accountability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Unnecessary bureaucracy</td>
<td>Unleashed flexibility with accountability</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mistrust</td>
<td>Trust</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Micro-manage</td>
<td>Delegate and coach</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place care and development at the core of what we do</td>
<td>Task</td>
<td>Task and people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>Performance and health</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overwork and stress</td>
<td>Balance and stretch</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Avoid difficult conversations</td>
<td>Constructive honesty</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Indifference</td>
<td>Caring</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Insecurity</td>
<td>Confidence and self-worth</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase interdependence across all aspects of our business</td>
<td>Knowledge is power</td>
<td>Sharing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Win-lose</td>
<td>Win-win</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Us vs them</td>
<td>We</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arrogant and complacent</td>
<td>Humility and respect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Blame</td>
<td>Openness and collaboration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create meaning and make a difference</td>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Meaning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Short term focus</td>
<td>Focus and Legacy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Profit</td>
<td>Profit and Purpose</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Shareholders</td>
<td>Stakeholders</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>External locus of control</td>
<td>Internal locus of control</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Business impact AND personal impact

- **Behaviour shifts: from → to**
  - Exclusive → inclusive
  - Command and control → empowered accountability
  - Task → task and people
  - Knowledge is power → sharing
  - Activity → meaning

- **GOLDEN THREAD**
  - Business performance
  - AND
  - meaning

- **THOMES OF BEHAVIOUR CHANGE**

- **Move to empowered accountability and trust**
- **Place care and development at the core of what we do**
- **Increase interdependence across all aspects of our business**
- **Create meaning and make a difference**
- **Respect, embrace and value diversity**

- Provides a great place to work and enables me to perform optimally
ENTERPRISE WILL FACILITATE THE EMBEDDING OF THESE SHIFTS BY WORKING ON ALL THE ELEMENTS OF THE INFLUENCE MODEL

THE INFLUENCE MODEL

• Role modelling
  ‘…I see leaders, peers and reports behaving in the new way’

• Fostering understanding and conviction
  ‘…I know what is expected of me—I agree with it, and it is meaningful’

• Reinforcing with formal mechanisms
  ‘…The structures, processes and systems reinforce the change in behaviour I am being asked to make’

• Developing talent and skills
  ‘…I have the skills, capabilities and opportunities to behave in the new way’

• Personal insights
  ‘…I am aware of my own mindsets and behaviours and their underlying causes and effects on my and others’ performance’

The Barrett Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Human Needs</th>
<th>Human Consciousness</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Service 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Make a difference 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meaning 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal growth &amp; Achievement 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-esteem 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Relationships 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Security 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Common Good

Self Interest
Barrett

- Assessment Tool allow the organization to measure the alignment of the personal values of the employees with those of the organization's current and desired culture

- Based on the seven levels of consciousness model

- Barrett does not give us answers
  - Requires you to ask questions to validate
  - Do not make assumptions
Appendix 1: Project Enterprise (Sasol Limited)

Sasol Group Services: Inbound & Outbound Supply Chain (39)

---

**Personal Values**

1. Integrity (21)
2. Honesty (16)
3. Excellence (18)
4. Accountability (16)
5. Making a Difference (15)
6. Balance (Home/Work) (14)
7. Commitment (13)
8. Responsibility (12)
9. Personal Growth (11)
10. Achievement (10)
11. Creativity (10)
12. Efficiency (10)
13. Performance (10)

**Current Culture Values**

1. Bureaucracy (21) (L)
2. Continuous Improvement (18)
3. Cost Reduction (17)
4. Employee Safety (11)
5. Achievement (9)
6. Arrogance (9) (L)
7. Autonomy (9)
8. Control (9) (L)
9. Customer Focus (9)
10. Diversity (9)
11. Global Perspective (9)
12. Results Orientation (9)

**Desired Culture Values**

1. Continuous Improvement (21)
2. Accountability (18)
3. Integrity (15)
4. Balance (Home/Work) (13)
5. Customer Focus (13)
6. Empowerment (13)
7. Adaptability (11)
8. Employee Recognition (11)
9. Competence (9)
10. Excellence (9)
11. Transparency (9)

---

**Entropy 31%**

PL = 13-0
IRS (P) = 11-1-1
IRS (L) = 0-0-0

PL = 9-3
IRS (P) = 2-1-6-0
IRS (L) = 0-2-1-0

PL = 11-0
IRS (P) = 4-4-3-0
IRS (L) = 0-0-0-0

---

**SGS Supply Chain Impressions**

- 31% Entropy
- Control, Arrogance, Bureaucracy
- PV & CC match – Achievement
- Call for focus on:
  - Support for the needs of staff (balance bet home/work, employee recognitions)
  - Want to have transparency (honesty, integrity)
  - Need for management to hone on their skill through leadership dev
  - Would like to meet the expectations of clientele through a focus on customer satisfaction
  - More accountability (PV & DC).
- Continuous improvement & customer focus (DC & CC match) – employees feel happy about the focus on these and want this to continue
- Give me more accountability – give me the ball and trust me to score

---

Values Assessment
Cultural Transformation Tools
September 2007

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- 190 -
Appendix 1: Project Enterprise (Sasol Limited)

Summary Supply Chain

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptions</th>
<th>Entropy</th>
<th>PLV</th>
<th>PLV</th>
<th>Matches</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>PV/CC</td>
<td>CC/DC</td>
<td>DC/PV</td>
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<tr>
<td>Group (245)</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bureaucracy, control</td>
<td>2 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female (89)</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bureaucracy</td>
<td>0 2 4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Males (156)</td>
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<td>Bureaucracy, control</td>
<td>1 3 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>African (37)</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Bureaucracy, discrimination</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asian (24)</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Bureaucracy, control, hierarchy, power,</td>
<td>0 2 3</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>silo mentality, internal competition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coloured (8)</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Arrogance, power</td>
<td>1 1 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White (175)</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bureaucracy, control</td>
<td>0 2 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 0-3 (11)</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Bureaucracy, control, arrogance, image</td>
<td>3 3 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 4-6 (161)</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bureaucracy, control</td>
<td>2 3 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 7 + lower</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>1 4 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For SGS only</td>
<td>34%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Long hours, bureaucracy, arrogance,</td>
<td>1 4 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>control, hierarchy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key Points

- Does the current culture in my function/Department support our 5 priority behaviour shifts?
- How do we create an environment that facilitates real change and move beyond good intentions?
Appendix 1: Project Enterprise (Sasol Limited)

Generative Dialogue

Current Culture

Understand the current culture

What the actions, processes, practices, procedures, structures, etc., created and drive the current culture

Desired Culture

Define and implement prioritised actions to create desired culture

What actions, processes, practices, procedures, structures, etc., are required to drive the desired culture.

What strengths do we want to keep and build on?

Unlearning

Relearning

- What is my role and contribution to this culture?
- How am I going to create an environment that I would like to work in?

“Transformation is necessary and I am part of it”
Employee Engagement

Defining Employee Engagement
Employee Engagement is the means or strategy by which an organisation seeks to build a partnership between the organisation and its employees, such that:

- **Employees** fully understand and is committed to achieve the organisation’s objectives, and
- **The organisation** respects the personal aspirations and ambitions of its employees
- It is seen largely the organisation’s responsibility to create and environment and culture conducive to this partnership
Employee Engagement

The importance of Employee Engagement

Research has shown that engaged employees are more productive employees. The research also proves that engaged employees are more profitable, more customer-focused, safer, and more likely to withstand temptations to leave. Many have long suspected the connection between an employee’s level of engagement and the level and quality of his or her performance.

Employee Engagement has an impact on:

- Turnover
- Retention
- Performance
- Absenteeism
- Job satisfaction
- Motivation
- Values driven behaviour

Gallup Q12 Engagement Hierarchy

Opportunities to learn and grow
Progress in last six months

I have a best friend at work
Co-workers committed to quality
Mission/purpose of company
At work, my opinions seem to count

Someone at work encourages my development
Supervisor/someone at work cares
Recognition last seven days
Do what I do best every day

I have materials and equipment I need to do my work right
I know what is expected of me at work

What do I get?

What do I give?

How do I belong?

How can we grow?
The Gallup 12 Questions

1. I have the materials and equipment I need to do my work right.  
I have whatever I need to complete my job successfully and on time. My job performance isn’t sabotaged by my lack of equipment and materials.

2. I know what is expected of me at work.  
I know what tasks to perform every day. I have a clear description of what my job entails.

3. There is someone at work who encourages my development.  
Someone at work encourages me to develop myself to reach my full potential. I have a personal development plan and there is made provision for me to obtain training.

4. My supervisor, or someone at work, seems to care about me as a person.  
I am not seen as an instrument or an object that only exists to work, I am seen as a person with needs, emotions and a unique personality.

5. In the last seven days, I have received recognition or praise for doing good work.  
In the last week, I have received a pat on the back for work well done. I have received verbal recognition for work well done.

6. At work, I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day.  
I like what I do every day, my job gives me the opportunity to do what I do best and I am passionate about my job.

7. I have really good friends at work.  
I don’t work in isolation, I’m not lonely at work. The nature of my relationships with my colleagues aren’t only of a professional nature, but some or all of my colleagues are also know as my friends.

8. I share a sense of commitment to the work I do with my colleagues.  
It feels like we’re all working towards the same goals.

9. I know what this company wants to achieve.  
I know what the company’s strategy is and I can see how my work fits into the strategy. I know what the company’s goals are and I know how we are going to achieve it.

10. At work, my opinions seem to count.  
My opinions are valued at work. I can freely communicate my thoughts and ideas.

11. I have opportunities to learn and grow at work.  
I learn and grow at work, there exists a learning and enriching culture at work.

12. Over the past six months I have made progress at work.  
I’m better at what I do than I was six months ago. I’ve solved the problems that I struggled with six months ago.
Appendix 2: Results of Employee Engagement Gallup Survey for SSSS P&SM

**PSM participation in March 08 Gallup**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Amount</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Department Manager (NO REPORT) &amp; Supply Chain Enablement (Governance Risk) (NO REPORT)</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Master Data</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td>Materials Management (Mining) Inventory</td>
<td>40</td>
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<tr>
<td>Materials Management (Synfuels) &amp; Reclamation Yard</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procurement Management</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier Accreditation</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supply Chain Enablement</td>
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<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>242</td>
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</table>

**PSM % improvement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Department</th>
<th>Jul 07 Engagement score %</th>
<th>Feb 08 Engagement score %</th>
<th>Total Engagement Improvement %</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Procurement Mgmt</td>
<td>44.17%</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>74.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material Synfuels &amp; Reclamation</td>
<td>59.85%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>33.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material Mining &amp; Inventory</td>
<td>60.19%</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>21.28%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Supplier Accreditation</td>
<td></td>
<td>90%</td>
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<tr>
<td>SCE</td>
<td></td>
<td>89%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Master Data</td>
<td></td>
<td>67%</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Result Jul 07</th>
<th>Result Feb 08</th>
<th>% Improvement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>114 (32%) responses</td>
<td>242 (70%) responses</td>
<td>112%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49.8% Engaged</td>
<td>80.3% Engaged</td>
<td>61%</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 2: Results of Employee Engagement Gallup Survey for SSSS P&SM

TOTAL ENGAGEMENT SCORE FOR PSM

Procurement and Supply Management -
Engagement Score - February 08

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Engagement Items</th>
<th>0%</th>
<th>10%</th>
<th>20%</th>
<th>30%</th>
<th>40%</th>
<th>50%</th>
<th>60%</th>
<th>70%</th>
<th>80%</th>
<th>90%</th>
<th>100%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q1 - I have the materials and equipment to do my work right</td>
<td>Disengaged</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Engaged</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q2 - I know what is expected of me at work</td>
<td>Disengaged</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Engaged</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q3 - Someone at work encourages my development</td>
<td>Disengaged</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Engaged</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q4 - I know that there are people at work who care about me</td>
<td>Disengaged</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Engaged</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Q5 - In the last seven days, I have received recognition or praise for doing good work</td>
<td>Disengaged</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Engaged</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q6 - At work, I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day</td>
<td>Disengaged</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Engaged</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q7 - I have really good friends at work</td>
<td>Disengaged</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Engaged</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q8 - I share a sense of commitment to the work we do with my colleagues</td>
<td>Disengaged</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Engaged</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q9 - I do know what this company wants to achieve</td>
<td>Disengaged</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Engaged</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q10 - At work, my opinions seem to count</td>
<td>Disengaged</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Engaged</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q11 - I have opportunities to learn and grow at work</td>
<td>Disengaged</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Engaged</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q12 - Over the past six months I have made progress at work</td>
<td>Disengaged</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Engaged</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Sasol Secunda Shared Services PSM -
Engagement Dimensions

Disengaged Neutral Engaged
Management Summary – Inbound Supply Chain

**Background**
- This report compares feedback of the November 2005 survey with the November 2004 survey
- The same elements of a Constructive Culture were surveyed
- Participation:
  - November 2004 – 43
  - November 2005 – 52

The Constructive Culture Average increased to 69%, 1% higher than November 2004
Appendix 3: GSS Culture Survey Results

Management Summary

- **Highlights of the November 2005 Survey**
  - Participation increased with 17%
  - Consolidated findings indicates:
    - **Notable Increase** in following Culture elements: Humanistic encouraging (4%) and Positive Rewards (3%)
    - **Minor Increase** in following Culture elements: Achievement (2%), Self Actualizing (1%), Affiliative (1%) and Average Constructive style (1%)
    - **Notable Decrease** in following Culture elements: Task Facilitation (6%)

- **Group Strategic Sourcing Culture Styles**
  - 52 Participants
  - Nov-05
  - Nov-04
  - May-04
  - Oct-03

- Constructive culture average = Achievement + Self-Actualizing + Humanistic Encouraging + Affiliative
Appendix 3: GSS Culture Survey Results

Management Summary

- **Findings per Organisational Level**
  - Level 4, 5, and 7 employees indicated that they experience the Average Constructive Culture a significant 5-11% higher than in the November 2004 survey.

  - Level 6 rated the Task Facilitation behaviour of Leaders significantly lower (18% lower)
    - Attention need to be given to this level. Their leaders need to help them to **solve problems** and **implement better procedures**

- **Findings per Organisational Level**
  - Level 8 and 9 employees indicated that they experience the following significantly lower by 6-26%:
    - Humanistic Encouraging: Attention need to be given to these levels by giving them more responsibility, and thus contributing to a higher **participative** and **person centered** culture.
    - Affiliative Culture: Focus is also needed on **constructive interpersonal relationships** from higher levels towards these employees
    - Task Facilitation: Their leaders need to help them to **solve problems** and **implement better procedures**

- **The lower rating of levels 8 and 9** on Humanistic Encouraging and Affiliative Culture resulted that the Average Constructive Culture **only increased** with 1%
Appendix 3: GSS Culture Survey Results

Group Strategic Sourcing Culture Styles
All Levels

- Achievement Culture
- Self-Actualising Culture
- Humanistic-Encouraging Culture
- Affiliative Culture
- Task Facilitation
- Trust
- Positive rewards
- Involve subordinates
- Constructive Culture Average

CONSTRUCT DEFINITIONS

Nov 2005

* Constructive culture average = Achievement + Self-Actualising + Humanistic Encouraging + Affiliative
Appendix 3: GSS Culture Survey Results

An Achievement culture

characterises organisations that do things well and value members who set and accomplish their own goals.

A Self-Actualising culture

characterises organisations that value creativity, quality over quantity, and both task accomplishment and individual growth.
Appendix 3: GSS Culture Survey Results

A Humanistic-Encouraging culture characterises organisations that are managed in a participative and person-centered way.

An Affiliative culture characterises organisations that place a high priority on constructive interpersonal relationships.
Task Facilitation:

The extent to which managers facilitate the work of their direct reports by helping them to solve problems and implement better procedures.

Trust:

The degree to which people think they can depend on and confide in others—the extent to which they feel safe doing this.
Appendix 4: Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale (Dr S Sendjaya)

Appendix 4: SERVANT LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR SCALE

Please evaluate your supervisor or direct leader with regard to their leadership behaviors by circling the most appropriate number in the following scale.

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<th>My supervisor/direct leader . . .</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

© Dr Sen Sendjaya (sen.sendjaya@buseco.monash.edu.au). All rights reserved. Not for commercial use or unauthorized distribution.
Servant Leadership Behavior Scale
Six Factors, 35 Items

**Voluntary Subordination**
1. Considers others’ needs and interests above his or her own
2. Uses power in service to others, not of his or her own ambition
3. Is more conscious of his or her responsibilities than rights
4. Serves people without regard to their backgrounds – race, religion, etc.
5. Demonstrates his or her care through sincere, practical deeds
6. Listens to me with intent to understand
7. Assists me without seeking acknowledgment or compensation

**Authentic Self**
1. Is not defensive when confronted
2. When criticized, he or she focuses on the message not the messenger
3. Practices what he or she preaches
4. Is willing to say “I was wrong” to other people
5. Is willing to let me take control of situations when appropriate
6. Gives me the right to question his or her actions and decisions

**Covenantal Relationship**
1. Affirms his or her trust in me
2. Accepts me as I am, irrespective of my failures
3. Responds to problems by listening first
4. Respects me for who I am, not as he or she wants me to be
5. Treats people as equal partners in the organization
6. Does not exhibit favoritism among his or her staff members

**Responsible Morality**
1. Takes a resolute stand on moral principles
2. Emphasizes on doing what is right rather than looking good
3. Employs morally justified means to achieve legitimate ends
4. Encourages me to engage in moral reasoning
5. Enhances my capacity for moral actions

**Transcendental Spirituality**
1. Is driven by a sense of a higher calling
2. Helps me to find a clarity of purpose and direction
3. Promotes values that transcend self-interest and material success
4. Helps me to generate a sense of meaning out of everyday life at work

**Transforming Influence**
1. Articulates a shared vision to give inspiration and meaning to work
2. Leads by personal example
3. Inspires me to lead others by serving
4. Allows me to experiment and be creative without fear
5. Draws the best out of me
6. Minimizes barriers that inhibit my success
7. Contributes to my personal and professional growth
Appendix 5: Organizational Trust Inventory (Nyhan and Marlowe, 1997)

Appendix 5: Organizational Trust Inventory (Nyhan and Marlowe, 1997)

Organizational Trust Inventory

SCALE

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Nearly Zero very low low 50-50 high very high near 100%

Complete each of the following statements by reading in the name of your supervisor in the first blank space in the statement. After reading the statement, select the number from the scale above that is closest to your opinion and write it in the second blank at the end of the statement.

1. My level of confidence that _______________ is technically competent at the critical elements of his or her job is _______.
2. My level of confidence that _______________ will make well thought out decisions about his or her job is __________.
3. My level of confidence that _______________ will follow through on assignments is __________.
4. My level of confidence that _______________ has an acceptable level of understanding of his/her job is __________.
5. My level of confidence that _______________ will be able to do his/her job in an acceptable manner is __________.
6. When _______________ tells me something, my level of confidence that I can rely on what they tell me is ____________.
7. My confidence in _______________ to do the job without causing other problems is ______________.
8. My level of confidence that _______________ will think through what he or she is doing on the job is ______________._

Each of the following statements refers to your department.

1. My level of confidence that this organization will treat me fairly is ________________.
2. The level of trust between supervisors and workers in this organization is ____________.
3. The level of trust among the people I work with on a regular basis is ____________.
4. The degree to which we can depend on each other in this organization is ____________.
Appendix 6: Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (including SLBS and OTI items. MLQ items removed to protect copyright restrictions of authors)

Section 1: General Information

Please note that the information in this section will be used only for statistical purposes.

Please provide the following information:

A. Your age (circle one)
   1 0 – 19 years
   2 20 - 29 years
   3 30 - 39 years
   4 40 - 49 years
   5 50 – 59 years
   6 60+ years

B. Please indicate your job level (circle one)
   1 Level 4 or higher
   2 Level 5
   3 Level 6C
   4 Level 6
   5 Level 7
   6 Level 8 and below

C. Please indicate for how long you have been employed within this company:
   1 Less than 2 years
   2 2 – 5 years
   3 More than 5 years, but less than 10 years
   4 More than 10 years, but less than 20 years
   5 More than 20 years
Appendix 6: Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (including SLBS and OTI items. MLQ items removed to protect copyright restrictions of authors)

**Section 2 – Leadership Assessment, part A**

Please evaluate your **supervisor or direct leader** with regard to their leadership behaviors by circling the most appropriate number in the following scale.

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**Section 3 – Leadership Assessment, part B**

Using the scale below, complete each of the following statements as it relates to your supervisor. After reading the statement, select the number from the scale below that is closest to your opinion and write it in the second blank at the end of the statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Score (1 to 7)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>5</td>
<td>My level of confidence that my supervisor will be able to do his/her job in an acceptable manner is</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>When my supervisor tells me something, my level of confidence that I can rely on what they tell me is</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>My confidence in my supervisor to do the job without causing other problems is</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>My level of confidence that my supervisor will think through what he or she is doing on the job is</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

-- END OF SURVEY --

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME!
## Appendix 7: Survey Data

### Data Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>GSS</th>
<th>SSSS</th>
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<td>37</td>
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<td>77</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
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<th>% of Total</th>
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<td>20</td>
<td>16.26%</td>
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<tr>
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<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>8.13%</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>18.70%</td>
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<td>44</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>43.09%</td>
<td></td>
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<td>76</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
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<tr>
<td>2-5 years</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
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<tr>
<td>&gt;5, &lt;10</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;10, &lt;20</td>
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<td>21</td>
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<td>26.6%</td>
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<tr>
<td>&gt;20</td>
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### Servant Leadership Mean Scores by SL Dimension

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<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Median</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Sample Size</th>
<th>Population Size</th>
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<td>92.00</td>
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<td>0.66</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>47.00</td>
<td>92.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>CR</td>
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<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
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<td>2.60</td>
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<td>92.00</td>
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<td>3.86</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>47.00</td>
<td>92.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TI</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>47.00</td>
<td>92.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>Serv Lead</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>47.00</td>
<td>92.00</td>
</tr>
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</table>

### Hypothesized Mean

- **H0**: \( \mu \geq 3.85 \)
- **Significance level**: 0.05
- **z-value**: -2.182
- **Critical value**: 1.64
- **Reject H0?**: Yes

### t-test for Mean Score

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<th>p-value</th>
<th>Result for ( \alpha = 0.05 )</th>
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Appendix 7: Survey Data

**MEAN SCORE BY DEMOGRAPHIC GROUPING**

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<tr>
<th>SL mean score by Age Group</th>
<th>GSS</th>
<th>SSSS</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 0-19</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 20-29</td>
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<td>3.58</td>
<td>3.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 30-39</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>4.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 40-49</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>3.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 50-59</td>
<td>4.08</td>
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<tr>
<td>6 60+</td>
<td>3.86</td>
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<tbody>
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<td>3.76</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>3.76</td>
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<tr>
<td>2 5</td>
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<td>4.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 6C</td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>3.92</td>
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<tr>
<td>4 6</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>3.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 7</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>3.74</td>
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<td>6 8 or lower</td>
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<td>3.96</td>
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<th>GSS</th>
<th>SSSS</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<td>3.89</td>
<td>3.85</td>
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<td>2 2-5 years</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.84</td>
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<tr>
<td>3 &gt;5, ≤10</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 &gt;10, &gt;20</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>3.85</td>
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</table>

**MEAN OTI SCORE BY DEMOGRAPHIC GROUPING**

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<th>SL mean score by Age Group</th>
<th>GSS</th>
<th>SSSS</th>
<th>Total</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 0-19</td>
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<td>5.75</td>
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<tr>
<td>5 7</td>
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<td>6 8 or lower</td>
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<th>SL mean score by Time in Company</th>
<th>GSS</th>
<th>SSSS</th>
<th>Total</th>
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**OTI mean score by Age**

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<tr>
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**OTI mean score by Job Level**

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<tr>
<td>5 7</td>
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<tr>
<td>6 8 or lower</td>
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**OTI mean score by Time in Company**

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## Appendix 7: Survey Data

### GSS SURVEY DATA

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<td>4</td>
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## Appendix 7: Survey Data

### SSSS Survey Data

## Appendix 7: Survey Data

### SSSS Survey Data

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| 50  | Questionnaire 3 | 8 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
| 50  | Questionnaire 4 | 8 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
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| 70  | Questionnaire 7 | 8 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
| 70  | Questionnaire 8 | 8 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 |
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Appendix 8: Research Article

Servant Leadership in a Large South African Company

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Abstract

This paper examines servant leadership as a leadership model by reviewing Greenleaf’s concept of servant leadership and examining the attributes of servant leaders identified by Greenleaf himself and the Greenleaf Centre for Servant Leadership. The possible relationship between servant leadership and interpersonal trust is examined with reference to literature published to date. The paper then presents the results of an empirical investigation conducted within two divisions of a large South African company to assess respondents’ perceptions on the extent to which servant leadership is practiced within these divisions, and the extent of interpersonal trust between respondents’ and their direct supervisors. The relationship between servant leadership and interpersonal trust is then examined for the sample investigated. A moderate to strong positive correlation is observed between servant leadership and interpersonal trust (Spearman’s rank-order correlation coefficient of 0.664 significant at $\alpha = 0.05$).

Keywords: Servant leadership, Interpersonal trust, Business leadership

Introduction

Historically, a view has predominated that businesses are vehicles for the realization of the financial needs and wishes of their shareholders. This view is still current amongst many practicing business professionals and others. However, an
alternative view of the business enterprise has emerged, holding that a business 
exists in order to serve the needs of all its stakeholders. Bennis (2004:xi) argues:

“It is so easy for an organization to get completely consumed with the bottom 
line; with pleasing only the financial stakeholder, not the community, not the 
workers, not the entire cartography of people whose lives are affected by that 
organization….We’re there primarily to serve the people who have a 
connection to and are affected by the institution. It is very easy to forget that.”

Steven Covey concurs. He writes (Covey, 2006:1) that organizations are “founded to 
serve human needs” and that there is “no other reason for their existence”. T Kiuchi, 
CEO of a Fortune 500 company says the following about the role of business 
(Spears, 2004:161):

“Conventional wisdom is that the highest mission of a corporation is to 
maximize profits. Maximize return to shareholders. This is a myth. It has 
ever been true…..Profits are not an end. They are a means to an end….Our 
business has a meaning and a purpose – a reason to be here….The whole 
essence of business should be social responsibility. It must live for a purpose. 
Otherwise, why should we live at all?”

The proposition of this article is that the primary purpose of a business is to serve its 
stakeholders. This has implications for business leaders, requiring them to adopt an 
atitude of service to others. An attitude only of self-service amongst leaders 
weakens the ability of the organization to serve its stakeholders effectively, since it 
encourages leaders to put their own interests ahead of a business’s stakeholders 
when making decisions. Poor service to stakeholders, especially customers, leads in 
the long run to diminished performance of the business. The attitude of service 
needs to be combined with the activity of leading. In short business leaders need to 
lead with the mindset of a servant. This is what servant leadership is all about.

**Greenleaf’s servant leadership**

The philosophical basis of servant leadership has been in existence for 
thousands of years in many cultures and religions (Sendjaya and Sarros, 2002);
however the concept of servant leadership in businesses has only gained in prominence in the last thirty years or so, based on the writings of Robert K Greenleaf (Greenleaf, 1996a; Greenleaf, 1996b; Greenleaf, 1996c; Greenleaf, 1996d; Greenleaf, 1996e; Greenleaf, 1998a; Greenleaf, 1998b; Greenleaf, 1998c; Greenleaf, 1998d). He first popularized the concept of servant leadership in an article he published in 1977 titled ‘The Servant as Leader’, a short excerpt from which is published as Greenleaf (2004). In this article Greenleaf (2004) writes that his inspiration for the idea of the servant as leader came out of reading Herman Hesse’s novel, *Journey to the East*.

The central figure in this story is Leo, a man of extraordinary presence who accompanies a party on a mythical journey, doing their menial chores and sustaining them with his spirit and song. All goes well until Leo disappears, at which point the group falls into disarray and the journey is abandoned. The party cannot make it without their servant Leo. Many years later, one of the members of the party discovers that Leo, who he had known as servant, was in fact the titular head of the Order that sponsored the journey, a great and noble leader. Leo was therefore a great leader, but at the same time a servant to the party that he accompanied.

Greenleaf’s interpretation was that “the great leader is seen as servant first, and that simple fact is the key to his greatness” (Greenleaf, 2004:2). He understood that “Leo was actually the leader all the time, but he was servant first because that was what he was, deep down inside” (Greenleaf, 2004:2). He defines the servant leader thus (Greenleaf, 2004:2): “The servant-leader is servant first – as Leo was portrayed. Becoming a servant-leader beings with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. That person is sharply different from one who is leader first, perhaps because of the need to assuage an unusual power drive or to acquire material possessions. For such people, it will be a later choice to serve – after leadership is established...The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant leader – first to make sure that other people’s highest priority needs are being served”.

His test of leadership effectiveness is: “Do those served grow as persons? Do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely
The attributes of servant leaders

Many writers have distilled servant leader attributes from Greenleaf’s writings and those of other thought-leaders in the field of servant leadership (Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006; Joseph and Winston, 2005; Farling et al., 1999; Russell and Stone, 2002; Sendjaya and Sarros, 2002; Sendjaya et al., 2008). This section briefly discusses the attributes identified by Greenleaf himself and discussed in publications from the Greenleaf Centre for Servant Leadership.

**Values.** A leader’s values determine what he seeks and how he behaves (Hughes et al., 2006). Servant leaders are characterized by the values of **honesty, love and responsibility** (Greenleaf, 1996b). Responsibility means acting in such a manner that people’s lives are moved towards greater nobility (Greenleaf, 1996b).

**Goals.** Greenleaf noted that the effective leader always has a goal (Greenleaf, 1996b). The goal as Greenleaf conceptualized it is commonly referred to as a vision statement in modern strategic management theory.

**Listening.** Greenleaf states that effective listeners “learn about people in ways that modify, first the listener’s attitude, then his behaviour toward others, and finally the attitudes and behaviours of others” (Greenleaf, 1996b:303). Servant leaders listen not only to others, but also their own inner voices and consciences (DeGraaf, et al., 2004). They also watch for non-verbal cues expressed through body language (DeGraaf, et al., 2004).

**Language as a leadership strategy.** Servant leaders are effective communicators, using language to articulate the goal or dream (Greenleaf, 1996b).

**Personal growth.** Servant leaders value their own personal growth and adapt their leadership styles to external changes (Greenleaf, 1996b).
Withdrawal. Servant leaders are able to deal with the stresses of leadership by withdrawing and casting off the burden for a while (Greenleaf, 1996b).

Tolerance of imperfection. Servant leaders understand that people are imperfect, and that even though imperfect, accept them, and believe that they are capable of great dedication and heroism (Greenleaf, 1996b).

Being your own person. Servant leaders are authentic and true to their own inner beings (Greenleaf, 1996b).

Acceptance. Servant leaders create a comfortable environment for their followers, where all feel welcome and unconditionally accepted (Greenleaf, 1996b).

Foresight and Intuition. Foresight is one of the most important qualities of the servant leader (Greenleaf, 1996c). It refers to the ability to know with some degree of certainty what will happen in the future and when (Greenleaf, 1996e). Greenleaf placed such value on the quality of foresight that he saw the failure to foresee as an ethical failure. Closely related to the quality of foresight is that of intuition. Effective leaders are highly intuitive when making judgements (Greenleaf, 1998d). In deciding and making judgements, the servant leader draws on inspiration; however he uses careful analytical thought along with knowledge and reflection, as a check and a guide to intuition and inspiration, to give a solid basis for communicating with informed and prudent people, and to offer a framework for assurance to those who would follow.

Awareness. Awareness refers to the use of one’s senses of perception to a greater extent than many people do, to take in more information (Greenleaf, 1996c). It involves being in tune with the external environment. Awareness disturbs and awakens the leader rather than giving him solace (Greenleaf, 1996c).

Spirit. Greenleaf does not directly define this element but describes Spirit as the mystery before which he stands in awe (Greenleaf, 1996d). He states that when a leader has it, it enables him to build trust with followers, and when followers have it, it engenders trust between them. Greenleaf views trust as “the cement that makes
Appendix 8: Research Article
possible institutional solidarity, from the family to world solidarity” (Greenleaf, 1996d:336).

Empathy. This is the capacity for participation in another’s feelings or ideas (DeGraaf, et al., 2004). Empathy also involves acceptance and recognition of a person for their special and unique spirits (DeGraaf, et al., 2004).

Healing. Servant leaders recognize that they have an obligation to help others heal from the broken spirits and emotional hurts they have suffered in the past and help them find wholeness (Spears, 1998).

Persuasion. Servant leaders seek to influence others through persuasion, not coercion or manipulation (Greenleaf, 1998a). Persuasion is the process of explaining the rationale and logic for a course of action until the person being persuaded is able to get to a feeling of rightness about the matter being discussed using their own intuitive sense, checked perhaps by the intuitive sense of others (Greenleaf, 1998a). Servant leaders also attempt to persuade through their own personal example (Greenleaf, 1998a).

Conceptualization. DeGraaf, et al., define conceptualization as the ability to see things whole; to see the bigger picture (DeGraaf, et al., 2004). Servant leaders are able to maintain a balance between the short term and the “big picture” focus.

Stewardship. Servant leaders are stewards (Spears, 1998; Spears, 2004), holding that which they have authority over in trust on behalf of their stakeholders.

Commitment to the growth of people. Servant leaders seek to foster the personal and professional growth of the people they influence, as well as to make a positive difference in the lives of other stakeholders (Spears, 1998; Spears, 2004). They understand that if the people in the organization grow and develop, the organization will prosper. They create an organizational culture that places a high emphasis on people growth and put in place formal and informal mechanisms to ensure that it happens.
Appendix 8: Research Article

Building community. Servant leaders create a sense of community in the workplace, where each person has a sense of liability for the others, and in which each member of the community seeks to improve the position of each other member (Spears, 1998; Spears, 2004).

Using the three-dimensional taxonomy of leader behaviours described by Yukl (2006), in which a leader’s behaviour is conceptualised as comprising different degrees of task-orientiation, people-orientiation and change-orientiation, it is clear from the above that servant leaders emphasize people-oriented and change-oriented behaviours. Many of the above attributes correlate with attributes of effective leaders identified in the literature to date (Yukl, 2006; Hughes, et al., 2006), such as: providing support and encouragement to followers engaged in difficult tasks, building relationships, providing coaching and mentoring, consulting with subordinates, keeping followers informed, and defining the vision for the organization.

Interpersonal trust

Many studies have linked trust to individual human behaviour and effective group and organization functioning (Nyhan and Marlowe, 1997; Cook and Wall, 1980). Trust promotes action-taking and decision-making by reducing complexity (Nyhan and Marlowe, 1997). Trust has been defined in many ways. Luhmann’s conceptualization (Nyhan and Marlowe, 1997) is that trust represents the level of confidence that one individual has in another to act in a fair, ethical and predictable manner. Carnevale and Wechsler’s (Nyhan and Marlowe, 1997) definition includes faith or confidence by one person in the intentions or actions of another person or group, and Griffin’s definition includes reliance upon the behaviour of another in a risky situation in order to achieve a desired objective (Nyhan and Marlowe, 1997). Trust is key to the increased effectiveness of the workforce, team-building and a key ingredient of the people-oriented strategies of effective companies (Nyhan and Marlowe, 1997).

According to Joseph and Winston (2005), trust is a multidimensional construct, involving, inter alia, interpersonal trust, peer trust and organizational trust. This study is concerned with interpersonal trust between leader and follower.
Servant leadership and trust

Servant leadership is both a product and an antecedent of leader and organizational trust (Joseph and Winston, 2005). Servant leaders earn trust because they empathize with and fully accept followers, are dependable due to their foresight and intuition and lead by example (Joseph and Winston, 2005). Because servant leaders demonstrate concern for their follower’s interests and place them over their own, they are able to earn their followers’ trust (Joseph and Winston, 2005).

Method and procedures

Measuring instruments

The measuring instrument used to measure the extent of servant leadership behaviours was the Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale (SLBS) developed by Sendjaya et al. (2008). The SLBS is based upon the behaviours identified for servant leaders in research conducted to date, but it differs from other instruments developed in the past to measure servant leadership, such as Laub’s OLA (Sendjaya et al., 2008) and Barbuto and Wheeler’s (2006) SLQ by emphasizing the spiritual and moral-ethical dimensions of servant leadership (Sendjaya et al., 2008).

The SLBS measures 6 servant leadership dimensions and consists of 35 questions. The dimensions measured are (Sendjaya et al., 2008): Voluntary subordination (VS), Authentic Self (AS), Covenantal Relationships (CR), Responsible Morality (RM), Transcendental Spirituality (TS) and Transforming influence (TI). The SLBS contains questions that measure the following sub-dimensions of servant leadership (Sendjaya et al., 2008): VS – Being a servant, Acts of service; AS – Humility, Integrity, Accountability, Security, Vulnerability; CR – Acceptance, Availability, Equality, Collaboration; RM – Moral reasoning, moral action; TS – Religiousness, Interconnectedness, Sense of Mission, Wholeness; TI – Vision, Modelling, Mentoring, Trust, Empowerment.

Interpersonal trust is measured using Nyhan and Marlowe’s Organizational Trust Inventory (OTI) (Nyhan and Marlowe, 1997). The OTI consists of questions
measuring both organizational and interpersonal trust. This study uses only the questions pertaining to interpersonal trust.

Sample

The target organization for this study is a large South African publicly-listed company. The target population was all employees within two procurement and supply management departments of the company concerned. At the time of the survey, one of the departments (Dept 1) employed 319 people between levels 3 (senior management) and 10 (administrative), and the other department (Dept 2) employed 92 people in various job levels, ranging from level 3 (senior management) down to level 10 (administrative staff). The target population therefore consists of 411 people. A random sample of 190 personnel was drawn using name lists obtained from the human resources department for Dept 1, and all members of Dept 2 were surveyed.

Each survey participant was mailed a hardcopy of the survey instrument and requested to fill it in, without adding his or her name to the completed survey document in order to protect his / her anonymity. The researcher then collected each survey instrument and captured the data in a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and in a Statistica database (StatSoft, 2008) for further analysis. Each respondent was asked to rate the extent to which his or her direct supervisor displays a particular servant leadership behaviour on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 0-Strongly Disagree to 5-Strongly Agree. As a score of 4 indicated Agreement that the supervisor displays the applicable servant leadership behaviour, the minimum score indicating that servant leadership is practiced is 4.

Hypotheses

Based on the results of employee engagement and organization culture assessments conducted by the target company, it was hypothesized that Dept 1 was a servant-led department and that Dept 2 was not a servant-led department. The associated null and alternative hypotheses may therefore be stated as follows:

HA.0: $\mu_{D1,SL} \leq 4$, where $\mu_{D1,SL}$ = mean servant leadership score for Dept 1
HA.1: $\mu_{D1,SL} > 4$, where $\mu_{D1,SL}$ = mean servant leadership score for Dept 1
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HB.0: $\mu_{D2,SL} \geq 4$, where $\mu_{D2,SL}$ = mean servant leadership score for Dept 2
HB.1: $\mu_{D2,SL} < 4$, where $\mu_{D2,SL}$ = mean servant leadership score for Dept 2

The alternative hypothesis pertaining to the relationship between servant leadership and interpersonal trust, HC.1, is that there exists a positive relationship between the mean scores for the combined sample for servant leadership (independent variable), $\mu_{SL}$ and the mean scores obtained from each respondent for interpersonal trust (dependent variable), $\mu_{OTI}$. The associated null hypothesis, HC.0, is that there is no relationship between the mean scores for servant leadership and those for interpersonal trust.

Results

In total, 124 responses were received from the 282 questionnaires issued, giving a response rate of 44%. Tables I, II and III summarise the distribution of responses received according to age group, job level and time worked in the company. One respondent did not indicate his/her age group, explaining why the total number of responses in Table II is given as 123.

Table I: Number of responses by age group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Dept 2</th>
<th>Dept 1</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-19</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>17.74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>23.39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>29.84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>22.58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table II: Number of responses by Job Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job level</th>
<th>Dept 2</th>
<th>Dept 1</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Senior Management</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle Management</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.26%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job level</th>
<th>Dept 2</th>
<th>Dept 1</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Junior Management</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8.13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Administrative I</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Administrative II</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>18.70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior Administrative</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>43.09%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>47</strong></td>
<td><strong>76</strong></td>
<td><strong>123</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table III: Number of responses by Time worked for the company

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time period</th>
<th>Dept 2</th>
<th>Dept 1</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;2 years</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>21.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-5 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;5, &lt;10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;10, &lt;20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>26.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>27.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>47</strong></td>
<td><strong>77</strong></td>
<td><strong>124</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The t-test for the mean was used to test for statistical significance of the mean scores obtained for servant leadership. Due to the small population size, the Finite Population Correction factor was applied (Spiegel, 1972) when calculating the test statistic. Table IV summarises the results of the t-tests for Dept 1 and Dept 2.

Table IV t-test for the mean servant leadership (SL) scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Test of means against reference constant (value)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL Dept 1</td>
<td>3.898658</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL Dept 2</td>
<td>3.887520</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$, the t-test for Dept 1 is not statistically significant ($p$-value = 0.1698), indicating that the null hypothesis, HA.0, cannot be rejected and that there is insufficient support for the alternative hypothesis, HA.1. The sample therefore does not provide sufficient evidence that Dept 1 is servant-led. However,
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The mean servant leadership score obtained was 3.899, which is less than that expected for a servant-led organization, 4, indicating that, although not statistically significant, Dept 1 is probably not servant-led. The critical value for the mean servant leadership score at which HA.0 could have been rejected was calculated as 4.145, i.e. the null hypothesis for Dept 1 would have been rejected if the mean score obtained was greater than 4.145.

Similarly, at a significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$, Table IV shows that the result for Dept 2 is not statistically significant (p-value = 0.069). The critical value calculated for Dept 2 was 3.879, which is very close to the actually obtained value of 3.887. The result for Dept 2 is marginal and is in any event less than 4. However, we conclude that the data does not provide sufficient evidence to reject HB.0 and conclude that Dept 2 is not servant-led. In order to explore this result further, statistical significance tests were conducted for each dimension of SL measured by the SLBS and it was found that Dept 2 was not servant-led (null hypothesis rejected) for 4 out of 6 dimensions of servant leadership, indicating that in practice, even though the overall result is not statistically significant, Dept 2 is probably not servant-led.

Figure 1 shows the Statistica scatterplot of mean servant leadership and interpersonal trust scores for the combined sample. Kolmogorov-Smirnov (with Lilliefors p-value) statistical tests were conducted using Statistica for normality of the distribution of the servant leadership and interpersonal trust scores. Both tests indicated that that neither variable is normally distributed in the population. The non-parametric Spearman’s rank-order statistical test for correlation between the servant leadership and interpersonal trust mean scores was therefore used to test for null hypothesis HC.0. Although the Statistica scatterplot shows the Pearson’s r correlation coefficient, this result is not used. The obtained Spearman’s rank-order correlation coefficient was calculated as 0.664, which was statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$, indicating that the combined sample provides evidence of a moderate to strong positive correlation between servant leadership and interpersonal trust.
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Figure 1 Statistica scatterplot and calculated Pearson’s-r for correlation between servant leadership mean scores and interpersonal trust mean scores in the combined sample

Conclusion and Recommendations

Servant leaders emphasize the growth and development of their followers above other objectives (Greenleaf, 2004). They are first and foremost, servants, and conscious choice brings them to aspire to lead (Greenleaf, 2004). This makes them sharply different to conventional leaders, who either prioritize business objectives above the growth and development of their people, or lead in order to assuage a power drive or satisfy desires for material gain. Servant leaders understand that a company exists in order to serve the needs of its stakeholders and that profit is but a means to a higher purpose (Covey, 2006; Spears, 2004; Bennis, 2004). They also understand that the business will only be effective in meeting its objectives effectively in the long term by prioritizing the growth and development of its people (Stone, et al., 2004).

The implications for business are far-reaching and point to the need for a fundamental re-orientation in the way people are normally viewed in a business. Conventionally used terms such as ‘human resources’ or phrases such as ‘our
people are our most valuable asset’ suggest that leaders and managers view their staff as a means to an end, or as assets in the pursuit of the mission of the business. Servant leadership dictates that the highest priority needs of staff, and other stakeholders, need to be prioritized over all other objectives. It also dictates that leaders need to see themselves as servants of their companies’ stakeholders. This attitude of service to others needs to be combined with leadership skills such as providing an inspiring vision or dream for the organization (Greenleaf, 1996b), and foresight in decision-making (Greenleaf, 1996c). So, far from suggesting that leaders need to lead from behind, servant leaders are required to lead from the front in establishing the vision for the organization, then serve the needs of followers as they pursue the vision (Blanchard and Hodges, 2003) by providing support and encouragement, growth opportunities, mentorship, personal development opportunities and helping followers to heal from the hurt and disappointments that they will inevitably face in the pursuit of the organization’s mission.

The role of interpersonal trust in the effective functioning of an organization is well-documented (Yukl, 2006; Nyhan and Marlowe, 1997; Hughes et al., 2006). This study has added to available evidence (Joseph and Winston, 2005) that leaders enjoy higher levels of interpersonal trust with their followers when they display servant leader behaviours, by finding a moderate to strong correlation (Spearman’s rank-order correlation coefficient of 0.664) between servant leadership and interpersonal trust. This finding indicates that leaders are likely to increase the levels of interpersonal trust that exist between themselves and their followers by increasing the extent to which they display servant leader behaviours. While a complete transition to the servant leadership mindset may be difficult for some leaders in the short term, leaders can benefit and improve the climate within their teams and workgroups by emphasizing the higher order needs of their followers and giving careful consideration to the needs of their other stakeholders.

Although many have published articles and research findings on servant leadership over the past thirty years, since the idea was first popularized by Robert Greenleaf, several questions remain unanswered about the servant leadership model. Perhaps the most fundamental question is how the motive of the servant, or a servant leader mindset, can be developed. Most leaders grow up believing that they need to outperform others to get ahead. Modern society, particularly Western society, has
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conditioned people to prioritize their own needs over those of others. What is the most effective way of removing this conditioning and facilitating the development of the heart of a servant in leaders? This question will probably be most effectively addressed through a careful qualitative examination of the lives of those that have been identified as servant leaders, such as Nelson Mandela (Covey, 2006) in order to identify factors that determine the emergence of servant leaders and what outside influences have shaped their thinking.

Another worthy research question is: To what extent are South African business leaders ready for the servant leadership model? Also, to what extent does servant leadership contribute to improved organizational effectiveness? To the author’s knowledge, only the study conducted by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) has (partially) addressed the correlation between servant leadership and organizational effectiveness. More quantitative research is required in this regard. In particular, comparisons need to be conducted between the organizational effectiveness of servant-led and non-servant led organizations in similar industries and markets, so that the effects of other factors on organizational effectiveness can be controlled for.

It is hoped that research on servant leadership will be advanced to the point where it becomes a fully developed model of leadership and where practitioners can draw useful guidance on how to develop servant leadership within themselves. Servant leadership promises to be a viable leadership model for business organizations. With its strong moral and ethical emphasis (Sendjaya et al., 2008) it promises to be a model that can prevent the future emergence of crises that have arisen in recent times in the business world, such as the collapse of Enron and Arthur Andersen, and the current global financial crisis, which arose partly as a result of a lack of focus on the moral and ethical dimensions of leadership by those in senior decision-making positions.
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