

The Impact of Servant Leadership Behaviors on Trust and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

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Abstract

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The premise of this study is that the behavior of the organizational leader affects employee outcomes. More specifically, I seek to examine the relationship between Servant Leadership behaviors and employee organizational citizenship behaviors – both OCB-I (behaviors targeted towards an individual, such as altruism) and OCB-O (behaviors that directly affect the organization as a whole, such as civic virtue). I propose that this relationship is mediated by employees' trust in their leader. This study adopts McAllister's (1995) theoretical construct of trust, which distinguishes between the two dimensions of affect-based trust (rooted in emotion) and cognition-based trust (rooted in reason). Moreover, I propose that the link between trust in the leader and employee organizational citizenship behavior is moderated by the well-being of the employees. In the present research, the well-being of the employees will be assessed on three dimensions: emotional exhaustion (also referred to as burnout), life satisfaction as well as job satisfaction. The results revealed that Servant Leadership is positively and significantly correlated with employee organizational citizenship behavior. Additionally, only cognitive-based trust partially mediated that relationship. Contrary to expectations, employee well-being was not found to significantly moderate the relationship between trust in the leader and organizational citizenship behavior. Overall, the present study contributes to the leadership literature by establishing a link between servant leadership and employee OCB through the medium of trust. From a practical standpoint, the results of this study would benefit companies as a whole by raising the awareness the managers regarding the employee outcomes that their behaviors may cause, as trust and OCB are related to many positive employee outcomes (such as lower transaction cost, decreased turnover, increased motivation and commitment etc...) that can grant companies a competitive advantage.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	vi
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	5
Servant Leadership.....	5
(1) Attributes and Consequences of Servant Leadership.....	5
(2) Servant Leadership versus Transformational Leadership.....	8
(3) Impact of Servant Leadership on Employee Outcomes.....	10
Servant Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior	11
(1) Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior.....	11
(2) Importance of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors	15
(3) Organizational Citizenship Behaviors-Individual (OCBI) and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors-Organization (OCBO).....	18
Servant Leadership and Trust	19
(1) The Bases of Trust	20
(2) Cognition-based and Affect-based Trust	22
(3) Impact of Trust on Employee Outcomes	22
Employee Well-being	24
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES.....	27
(1) Servant Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior	27
(2) The Mediating Role of Trust.....	27
(3) The Moderating Role of Well-being	28
METHODS	30
(1) Sample and Data Preparation	30
(2) Procedures.....	31
(3) Measures	32
(4) Moderated Mediation	34
RESULTS	38
(1) Correlational Results	38
(2) Mediated Moderation with OCB-I as Dependent Variable	39
(3) Mediated Moderation with OCB-O as Dependent Variable	41
DISCUSSION	45
Limitations.....	46
Practical Implications	47
Future Directions.....	48
CONCLUSION.....	49

List of Tables

Table 1 Demographics.....	32
Table 2 Measures' Descriptives.....	35
Table 3 Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations.....	38
Table 4 PROCESS output of the mediated moderation with OCB-I as the dependent variable...	40
Table 5 PROCESS output of the mediation with Affect-based Trust as outcome.....	40
Table 6 PROCESS output of the mediation with Cognitive-based Trust as outcome.....	40
Table 7 PROCESS output of the mediated moderation with OCB-O as the dependent variable..	42
Table 8 PROCESS output of the mediation with Affect-based Trust as outcome.....	42
Table 9 PROCESS output of the mediation with Cognitive-based Trust as outcome.....	43
Table 10 Supported hypotheses using the moderated mediation model.....	44

List of Figures

Figure 1 Theoretical Model.....	31
Figure 2 Model 14's Conceptual Diagram.....	37
Figure 3 Model 14's Statistical Diagram.....	38
Figure 4 Moderated mediation with OCB-I as dependent variable.....	41
Figure 5 Moderated mediation with OCB-O as dependent variable.....	43

List of Appendices

Appendix A.....	57
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INTRODUCTION

“The servant-leader is a 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 [...] 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” (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 22).

In this opening paragraph of *Servant Leadership*, Greenleaf (the father of modern Servant Leadership theory) describes the core behaviors that compel servant leaders to behave the way they do, and differentiates servant leaders from other types of leaders. While the differences between servant leadership and other types of leadership (chiefly, transformational leadership) will be discussed in further details in a later section, this introductory passage will focus on citing some of the main attributes of servant leadership. Based on Greenleaf’s original essay, Spears (2010) identified a set of ten characteristics that consistently shape the behaviors of servant leaders. These characteristics are:

Listening: the willingness of the leader to listen absorbedly to the needs and aspirations of the followers and to reflect on these needs and aspirations. As Crippen (2004, p. 6) puts it, “effective leaders are great communicators and must be good listeners, to themselves (through their inner voice), as well as to others”.

Empathy: the willingness and capacity of the leader to understand the states of mind that his or her followers are in, as well as the behaviors that result from these mental states. This also entails recognizing the followers as being people deserving of compassion, regardless of any negative behaviors they may engage in, or lack of productivity they may show. I am reminded here by a quote by Aristotle who once wrote: “Be kind, for everyone you meet is fighting a hard battle”.

Healing: the leader’s ability to tend to the followers’ problems and concerns, and to contribute into resolving them. Indeed, an important role of the servant leader is to recognize the fact that heartache and suffering is part of being human, and that he, in his or her capacity as leader must take advantage of his hierarchal position to try and ease the suffering of his or her employees. As Greenleaf (1977, p. 50) beautifully wrote: “there is something subtle communicated to one who is

being served and led if, implicit in the compact between servant-leader and led, is the understanding that the search for wholeness is something they share”.

Awareness: the leader’s level of cognizance and mindfulness of what is going on in the organization. Awareness is an important asset to any leader. The servant leader in particular benefits from awareness because being aware allows him or her to gain a well-rounded understanding of the inner-workings of the organization and the employees. This ‘big picture’ view helps the leader immensely in identifying possible weak points that need addressing. Also, awareness in this context also includes the leader’s self-awareness, implying that servant leaders recognize the importance of listening to the constructive criticisms of others, and are willing to learn and improve as they become aware of any potential weakness that they might have. Self-awareness is also achieved through the leader’s self-reflection.

Persuasion: the leader’s ability to get followers to comply with certain policies out of genuine conviction as opposed to taking an authoritarian approach. This is perhaps the most distinguishing characteristics that differentiates servant leaders from other types of leaders. It entails the belief held by the servant leader that decisions should be made based on persuasion rather than coercion using legitimate power (the authority given to the leader by his or her mere hierarchal position in the organization). As Spears (2010, p. 28) remarked: “the servant leader is effective at building consensus within groups”. Interestingly enough, this approach of valuing consensus over coercion is one of the religious tenets held by the Quaker denomination (also known as Religious Society of Friends), to which Greenleaf ascribed.

Conceptualization: the leader’s ability to form a long-lasting and far-stretching vision for the organization, as opposed to being restricted to the day-to-day operations of the institution. Frick & Spears (1998, p. 217) define conceptualization as “the ability to see the whole in the perspective of history – past and future- to state and adjust goals, to evaluate, to analyze, and to foresee contingencies a long way ahead. Leadership, in this sense of going out ahead to show the way, is more conceptual than operating. The conceptualizer, at his or her best, is a persuader and a relation builder”. Spears (2010) also remarks that the difference between the servant leader and the non-servant leader lies in the fact that the servant leader is not merely concerned with achieving the short-term goals of the organization, but also stretches his or gaze to evaluate the potential threats and opportunities that lie ahead.

Foresight: akin to conceptualization, foresight refers to the leader's ability to learn from past experiences and anticipate the consequences of future decisions. The underlying assumption of foresight is that the servant leader possesses an intuitive mind that allows him or her to anticipate future events and respond to them accordingly. However, intuition by itself is not enough. The servant leader is one who analyzes and understands past events and present realities and can apply this deep understanding in deciding the best course of action for the future.

Stewardship: the view that the leader holds the organization in which he or she works in trust for the greater good of all the stakeholders. The servant leader perceives him or herself as entrusted with the assets (human, financial and otherwise) of the organization in which he or she works, and views his or her ultimate goal as using those assets to achieve the best results possible for all the stakeholders concerned.

Commitment to the growth of people: the leader's involvement and pursuit of the followers' growth both professionally and personally. In fact, the servant leader recognize that the employees' value far exceeds their strict contributions to the work assigned to them. As such, the servant leader actively engages in behaviors that seek to nurture their employees. Spears (2010, p. 29) points out that this is usually done through "making funds available for personal and professional development, taking a personal interest in the ideas and suggestions from everyone, encouraging worker involvement in decision-making, and actively assisting laid-off employees to find other position", among other actions that all aim at helping employees realize their potentials.

Building community: the leader's ability to foster a sense of community among followers working within the same organization, as well as among employees of different organizations. Community building can be achieved by adopting three approaches (Crippen, 2004). In fact, community building is achieved by serving the community, by investing financially in the community and by caring for the members of the community.

The bulk of academic literature concerning servant leadership focuses on the origins, development, and applicability of this type of leadership in organizations, in contrast with other types of leadership (namely Transformational Leadership). Surprisingly, there have been no real academic momentum aiming at addressing how servant leadership behaviors affect employee outcomes. This paper addresses that gap by examining the possible links between servant leadership, leader and organizational trust, and employee extra-role behaviors (Organizational Citizenship Behavior).

There has been, however, a recurrent interest on the impact of trust in organizations on employee outcomes. The importance of examining the antecedents and outcomes of trust in organizations lies in the important benefits that the presence of trust confers to the institution, as well as the potentially harmful consequences that the absence of such trust may cause (Mayer et al., 1995; Kramer, 1999; Pirson & Malhorta, 2011). Theoretically, the benefits of trust in organizations include the reduction of transaction costs, the increase of employee commitment to the organization, as well as an increase in employee motivation and satisfaction. Another benefit of trust is that it increases the spontaneous sociability of employees, which motivates them to engage in altruistic actions and organizational citizenship behaviors (Kramer, 1999). Dierendonck et al. (2013) posit that servant leadership behaviors tend to create trust between the followers and the servant leader.

Moreover, I propose that the link between trust in the leader and employee organizational citizenship behavior is moderated by the well-being of the employees. In the present study, the well-being of the employees will be assessed on three dimensions: emotional exhaustion (also referred to as burnout), life satisfaction as well as job satisfaction. Previous studies have shown that employees who report high levels of well-being are more likely to exert additional effort in the workplace (Brown & Leigh, 1996), and engage in positive behaviors that benefit the organization, such as organizational citizenship behaviors (Cropanzano et al., 2003).

While the relationship between transformational leadership behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 1990) and ethical leadership behaviors (Lu, 2014) and employee citizenship behaviors through the medium of trust has been previously studied in the literature, there have been no studies that examine the role of servant leadership in inciting these outcomes. Hence, the role of this study is to examine the impact of servant leadership behaviors on employee organizational citizenship behaviors, mediated by trust in the leader.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Servant Leadership

As previously mentioned, the servant-leader (term coined by Greenleaf in 1977) is an individual that serves first, and leads second. Servant-leaders are acutely aware of their followers' needs and states of minds, and work wholeheartedly on satisfying these needs in a way that ensures the followers' wellbeing. That being said, scholars have sought to identify the specific attributes that characterize servant-leaders and guide their behaviors (Spears, 2010; Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Graham, 1991; Russel & Stone, 2002; Farling et al., 1999). Moreover, scholars have contrasted servant leadership traits and behaviors with those of other leadership types, with more weight being allocated to the transformational leadership type (Dierendonck et al., 2013; Barubuto & Wheeler, 2006; Graham, 1991; Stone et al., 2004). Lastly, a surprisingly low number of studies have been conducted to address the effects of servant leadership on certain employee outcomes (Dierendonck et al., 2013; Peterson et al., 2012; Dierendonck, 2011; Levering & Moskowitz, 2000; Babakus et al., 2010; Jaramillo et al., 2009). The following sections will provide a more detailed overview of the findings of these authors.

(1) Attributes and Consequences of Servant Leadership

“As long as power dominates our thinking about leadership, we cannot move toward a higher standard of leadership. We must place service at the core; for even though power will always be associated with leadership, it has only one legitimate use: service.” (Nair, 1994, p.59)

One of the hardships in conducting research related to organizational science is the lack of consensus on the definitions of key concepts and theories. Having different - and sometimes contradictory - interpretations for the same theoretical construct is widely pervasive, leading to difficulties in having universally accepted results and implications. Luckily, however, this is not the case when it comes to the theory of servant leadership. In fact, there is an agreement among scholars, in accordance with Greenleaf's original interpretation, that the servant leader's main motivation and focus should be the desire to serve, and that servant leadership occurs when organizational leaders take on the role of servant in their relationship with their followers (Russel & Stone, 2002). That being the case, scholars have tried to discern and elucidate the exact attributes that define organizational servant leaders. Spears (2010) for instance, identified ten characteristics

that servant leaders possess, and that have been cited in the introductory passage of this paper. In a more exhaustive attempt to identify servant leadership characteristics, Russel & Stone (2002) conduct a comprehensive literature review in which they state the recurrent servant leadership characteristics discussed in the literature. Due to the considerable overlap between these characteristics and the ones cited by Spears (2010), I will only address the attributes that were not previously discussed. These attributes are:

Honesty and Integrity:

These greatly overlapping attributes are highly conducive to the followership's admiration of the leader (Posner & Schmidt, 1992). Honesty can in fact be seen as a component of integrity (Northouse, 1997), and according to Russell & Stone (2002) honesty and integrity consist of truth-telling, promise-keeping, fairness, as well as respect for the individual.

Trust:

Trust is defined as the person's "expectations, assumptions, or beliefs about the likelihood that another's future actions will be beneficial, favorable, or at least not detrimental to one's interests" (Robinson, 1996, p. 576). The perceived trustworthiness of the organizational leader is positively related to the followership's confidence and trust in the leader (Russell & Stone, 2002). That being the case, building relationships based on trust is an important consequence of servant leadership behaviors, because it creates a nurturing environment in which the followers feel more at ease in communicating their needs.

Empowerment:

Somewhat related to the commitment to the growth of people attribute listed in Spears' paper, empowerment refers to the "active, participatory process through which individuals, organizations and communities gain greater control, efficacy, and social justice" (Peterson & Zimmerman, 2004, p. 129). On the leader-follower dyadic level, empowerment is a leadership behavior of believing and investing in the follower's capabilities, and entrusting him or her with work-related tasks. Empowerment is closely related to other servant leadership attributes such as encouragement, teaching, and delegation, which are also included in Russell & Stone's paper.

In a somewhat similar, but ultimately different approach, Russell (2001) studied the role of values in servant leadership. One of the main premises of the author was that the personal set of values held by servant leaders were different than those held by other types of leaders, and thus servant leaders are inherently different than other non-servant leaders. Russell (2001, p. 76) accentuated the importance of values in leadership studies by stating that “values are important parts of each individual’s psyche. They are core beliefs – the underlying thoughts that stimulate human behavior”. With that in mind, it becomes obvious that the values held by leaders, which play a big part in dictating their behaviors, affect the manner with which subordinates perceive their leaders, and subsequently the quality of the leader-follower relationship. In fact, England and Lee (1974, p. 411) cite seven mechanisms through which the values held by leaders affect the leader’s behavior. These mechanisms are:

- “Personal value systems influence a manager’s perception of situations and problems he faces.
- Personal value systems influence a manager’s decisions and solutions to problems.
- Personal value systems influence the way in which a manager looks at other individuals and groups of individuals; thus they influence interpersonal relationships.
- Personal value systems influence the perception of individual and organizational success as well as their achievement.
- Personal value systems set the limits for the determination of what is and what is not ethical behavior by a manager
- Personal value systems influence the extent to which a manager accepts or resists organizational pressures and goals.
- Some personal value systems may contribute to the managerial performance, some may be irrelevant, and some may be antithetical to achievement efforts”.

Moreover, values play an instrumental role in shaping the individual’s moral reasoning. Russell (2001) explains that values influence the individual’s moral reasoning by affecting the individual’s judgments regarding what constitutes moral and immoral behavior. After establishing the importance of values and their role in shaping behavior and moral reasoning, Russell (2001) then went on to discuss the values that constitute the servant leader and concluded that servant leaders

are first and foremost defined and distinguished from other types of leaders by the values of honesty, integrity, equality and love.

Taking it one step further, Washington et al. (2006) examined the relationship between servant leadership and certain personality traits and individual value differences. Namely, the authors wanted to know if servant leaders were by definition viewed as having more empathy, more integrity, and more competence than other types of leaders. In addition to these values, the authors wanted to learn if servant leaders scored higher on the agreeableness scale of the Big Five personality traits. Getting to empirically test the link between servant leadership and the values of empathy, integrity and competence is important not only because it validates the previously held beliefs regarding the servant leadership construct outlined by Greenleaf in his essay, but also because values themselves are defined as “prescriptive, enduring standards” (Rokeach, 1973) and “foundational blueprints for making decisions and solving problems” (Washington et al., 2006, p. 702), and as such reveals insights concerning the inner-workings and behaviors of this understudied ‘breed’ of leaders. Ultimately, the results of the study revealed that the subordinates’ ratings of the leaders’ servant leadership was positively and significantly related to the subordinates’ ratings of the leaders’ values of empathy, integrity and competence. Moreover, the subordinates’ ratings of the leaders’ servant leadership was also positively and significantly related to the leaders’ own assessment of their agreeableness.

(2) Servant Leadership versus Transformational Leadership

“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 leader” (Stone et al., 2004, p. 349).

Given the fact that there is a large amount of overlap between transformational leadership and servant leadership (Stone et al., 2004), scholars have attempted to compare and contrast these two types of organizational leadership in order to provide a better understanding of both. Stone et al. (2004) provide a comprehensive comparison between the attributes of transformational and servant leaders.

In identifying the attributes related to transformational leadership, Stone et al. (2004) rely on Avolio et al.'s (1991) behavioral dimensions constituting transformational leadership. These behaviors are: idealized influence (charismatic nature of the leader leading to the admiration and respect of the followers), inspirational motivation (which occurs when leaders assign followers to meaningful and challenging tasks), intellectual stimulation (which occurs when the leaders encourages followers to be innovative and creative in approaching and solving problems), and individualized consideration (being aware of the followers' individual needs for achievement and growth, as well as tending to those needs). It is clear then that the attributions of transformational and servant leaders resemble each other to a great extent. For instance, both leaders are prominently concerned with their followers' needs, both leaders offer a vision to their followers, both leaders invest greatly in empowering their followers and allowing them to become better versions of their former selves. Moreover, both transformational and servant leadership types are entrenched in the overarching field of charismatic leadership (Smith et al., 2004). This assumption (that both transformational and servant leadership types emanate from charismatic leadership) was also raised by Graham (1991) who compared Weberian charismatic authority, personal celebrity charisma, transformational leadership and servant leadership and concluded that not only that charismatic leadership was the basis for these two leadership types, but also that the two leadership types in question are moral and inspirational. These striking similarities between the two leadership types caused scholars to raise questions regarding whether or not the two theories were simply mere subset of one another (Stone et al., 2004).

However, as several researchers point out, there exists fundamental differences between transformational and servant leadership, despite the many communalities (Dierendonck et al., 2013; Barubuto & Wheeler, 2006; Graham, 1991; Stone et al., 2004). These differences exist along several dimensions. For instance, on the motivational level, the servant leader is motivated by the desire to serve, while the transformational leader is motivated by the desire to lead. On the leader-follower interpersonal level, the servant leader assumes the role of the servant, while the transformational leader assumes the role of the inspirer. On the organizational level, the servant leader uses his or her position in the organization to serve the greater community (the stewardship aspect of servant leadership), while the transformational leader uses his or her position in the organization to inspire followers to achieve organizational goals.

(3) Impact of Servant Leadership on Employee Outcomes

Since it has been established in the literature that servant leadership is a leadership style in its own right (and not a subset of other leadership styles such as transformational leadership), there have been some interest, however limited, in examining the effects of servant leadership on employee outcomes. Levering & Moskowitz (2000) found that servant leadership is being practiced in a number of America's top-performing companies. This prompted scholars to investigate this phenomenon, and offer insights into why firms on the Fortune 500 list are advocating the use of this leadership style.

For instance, Peterson et al. (2012) examined the relationship between servant leadership behaviors and firm performance (measured by return on assets) in a sample of 126 CEOs of technology organizations. The results of the study revealed that there is a strongly significant and positive relationship between servant leadership and firm performance. The authors justify these findings by stating that "firm performance [...] might follow from servant leaders' focus on creating a learning organization, building trust in management, and delivering value to the community" (Peterson et al., 2012, p. 576). In a similar vein, Jaramillo et al. (2009) found that servant leadership behaviors between managers and salespeople affected the salespeople and was reflected in the way they treated customers. More specifically, salespeople working under servant leaders had a higher customer orientation, which translated into more adaptive selling behaviors as well customer-directed extra-role behaviors which ultimately had a positive impact on sales performance outcomes (Jaramillo et al., 2009).

Another study conducted by Babakus et al. (2010) investigated the relationship between servant leadership and service worker burnout and turnover intentions in a sample of 530 frontline bank employees in New Zealand. The results of the study revealed that servant leadership immensely decreased both burnout and turnover intentions (Babakus et al., 2010). These results were again replicated in a study conducted by Jaramillo et al. (2009) (different from the study conducted by the same authors and mentioned in the previous paragraph), in which they examined the relationship of servant leadership on turnover intention in a sample of 501 salespersons from a variety of industry. The results of the study showed that servant leadership is significantly and negatively related to employee turnover intention, and that that relationship is moderated by person-organization fit as well as organizational commitment.

In a similar vein, Cerit (2010) studied the relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment in an academic setting. Specifically, the author examined how the servant leadership behaviors of primary school principals in Turkey affected the organizational commitment of teachers to their schools. The importance of studying this relationship is largely inherent in the importance of the outcome itself (i.e. organizational commitment). In fact, Mowday et al (1979) identify three defining elements of organizational commitment. As stated by Mowday et al (1979) these elements are:

- A strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values.
- A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization.
- A strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.

The importance of organizational commitment is amplified by the fact that previous studies have shown that individuals with high organizational commitment are more satisfied and productive than employees with low organizational commitment (Balay, 2003). That being the case, employees who are highly committed to their organizations help reduce the costs of said organization (Balci, 2003). The results of Cerit's (2010) study have shown that there is a significant and positive relationship between servant leadership and organizational commitment, indicating once more the positive impact that servant leadership behaviors can have on the employees and the organization as a whole.

Servant Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

One of the main aims of this paper is to investigate how (if at all) servant leadership behaviors affect employee organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). For that purpose, a short overview of organizational citizenship behavior will be provided in this section in order to examine possible links between the attributes of servant leadership and the antecedents of OCB.

(1) Dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior is defined in the literature as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization. By discretionary, we mean that the behavior is not an enforceable requirement of the role or

the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of their person's employment contract with the organization; the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable" (Organ, 1988, p. 4).

In essence, organizational citizenship behavior consists of extra-role behaviors perpetrated by the employees that are beneficial for the organization but that go above and beyond the call of duty (i.e. what is asked and expected from the employees in their formal job descriptions) (Organ, 1997). The academic literature identifies several different types of organizational citizenship behaviors. These different types are: altruism (helping coworkers in work-related problems), courtesy (helping others avoid problems before they even occur by imparting knowledge and advice), cheerleading (conveying encouragement and support either verbally or through gestures when coworkers achieve important feats), peacekeeping (engaging in behaviors aimed at averting, solving or extenuating the adverse effects of interpersonal conflict at the workplace), sportsmanship (tolerating adverse situations in the workplace, will be discussed in greater detail below), civic virtue (actively participating in organizational life, will be discussed in greater detail below), and conscientiousness (going beyond what is asked when handling a work-related task, will be discussed in greater detail below) (Podsakoff et al., 1997). It is important to note, however, that some empirical studies have revealed that some of these dimensions are highly correlated with one another and in fact measure the same behavior (Podsakoff et al., 1997). More specifically, it has been shown that there are no statistically significant differences between altruism, courtesy, cheerleading, and peacekeeping behaviors, which prompted researchers in this field to combine the aforementioned dimensions of OCB into one broad category referred to as "helping behaviors" or, simply, altruism.

However, Podsakoff et al. (2000) note that there is a lack of consensus among researchers who study organizational citizenship behaviors in delineating clear dimensions of this phenomenon. After revising the relevant literature, Podsakoff et al. (2000) claim that they found almost 30 different dimensional constructs defining Organizational Citizenship Behavior. After dealing with the significant overlap of these constructs, the authors narrowed down the OCB construct to just seven dimensions. These dimensions are: (1) Helping Behaviors; (2) Sportsmanship; (3)

Organizational Loyalty; (4) Organizational Compliance; (5) Individual Initiative; (6) Civic Virtue; (7) Self Development.

A brief overview of each of the OCB dimensions mentioned above is given below:

Helping Behaviors

Much like the empowerment dimension of servant leadership discussed earlier, helping behaviors are organizational citizenship behaviors related to the acts of encouragement, support, and assistance of coworkers in order to help them grow in the organization and overcome work-related problems. These behaviors are also referred to by scholars as “good colleague” behaviors (Lamertz, 2006).

Sportsmanship Behaviors

These refer to organizational citizenship behaviors related to the employee’s tolerance of certain unfavorable organizational conditions without “complaining, railing against real or imagined slights, and making federal cases out of small potatoes” (Organ, 1988, p. 11). Podsakoff et al. (2000) go even further in arguing that employees exhibiting sportsmanship behaviors are individuals who not only refrain from complaining when things do not go their way, but also who maintain a positive attitude in the face of inconvenience, who do not get offended (and take it personally) when their ideas and suggestions are rejected, and who are willing to forgo their own personal interests for the greater good of the workgroup and the organization.

Organizational Loyalty

According to Podsakoff et al. (2000), organizational loyalty is manifested through three fundamental behaviors. An employee who exhibits organizational loyalty behaviors is one who spreads goodwill about the organization and positively promotes it to outsiders. Moreover, employees who exhibit organizational loyalty guard and defend the organization and its objectives against external threats. Finally, an employee exhibiting organizational loyalty is one who remains devoted and committed to the organization in times of hardships and adversity.

It is worthy of mention, however, that a confirmatory factor analysis conducted in a study by Moorman et al. (1998) has failed to show that the Organizational Loyalty dimension of OCB is

indeed distinct from other OCB dimensions (due to overlap of the items comprising this dimension with items from other dimensions of the OCB construct).

Organizational Compliance

Organizational compliance is also known in the relevant literature as generalized compliance (Smith et al., 1983), organizational obedience (Graham, 1991), and Organizational Citizenship Behavior – Organization (which will be discussed further in a following section) (Williams & Anderson, 1991). This dimension describes and measures the extent to which employees accept and internalize, and subsequently abide by the rules and regulations governing the organization (Podsakoff et al., 2000). Podsakoff et al (2000) explain that even though all employees are expected to adhere to the rules and regulation of the organization in which they work (and therefore, this behavior would be considered as an in-role behavior rather than an extra-role behavior), few employees actually do uphold these rules at all times. Specifically, this dimension serves to assess the extent to which the employees of an organization are committed to respecting and obeying the rules of that organization even when no one is looking.

Individual Initiative

This dimension of OCB is also referred to as Conscientiousness (Organ, 1988). As a matter of fact, Individual initiative describes task-related behaviors in which employees voluntarily perform tasks and engage in actions that go well beyond what is asked or expected of them. Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 523) cite several actions as examples of this type of behavior such as “voluntary acts of creativity and innovation designed to improve one’s task or the organization’s performance, persisting with extra enthusiasm and effort to accomplish one’s job, volunteering to take on extra responsibilities, and encouraging others in the organization to do the same”.

Note that Organ (1988) indicated that this construct is difficult to empirically distinguish from in-role behaviors

Civic virtue behaviors

These refer to organizational citizenship behaviors related to the employee’s active and meaningful commitment and participation in organizational life. As Podsakoff et al. (1990) put it, civic virtue is a “behavior on the part of an individual that indicates that he or she responsibly participates in,

is involved in, or is concerned about the life of the company”. This entails that employees exhibiting civic virtue behaviors actively participate in formal and informal meetings and discussions concerning the strategies and policies adopted by the organization. Moreover, employees exhibiting civic virtue behaviors keep up to date with market fluctuations and changes in order to identify possible threats and opportunities to ensure the future wellbeing of the organization. Finally, employees exhibiting civic virtue behaviors recognize and accept the fact that they are part of a whole, and prioritize the interest of the organization over their own (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Self-development

George & Brief (1992) argue that self-development is an essential dimension in the Organizational Citizenship Behavior construct. The authors define self-development as the employee’s voluntary commitment to improve his or her own knowledge, skills and abilities. For example, this is achieved when employees actively seek out and enroll in training courses, and keep up to date with the latest developments in their field of work. Podsakoff et al (2000) explain that self-development is considered an OCB dimension because the employees actively engaging in self-developmental behaviors do so in order to increase the length and depth of their contributions to the organization in which they work. Podsakoff et al (2000) go on to remark, however, that this specific dimension of OCB has not received any empirical confirmation in the literature.

(2) Importance of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

The relevance of OCB as a research topic lies in the important benefits that employee organizational citizenship behaviors bestow on the organization. In fact, organizational citizenship behavior has been shown to have significant effects on many important employee outcomes. Specifically, OCB has been shown to significantly reduce withdrawal-related outcomes such as absenteeism, turnover intention and actual turnover (Chen et al., 1998; Podsakoff et al., 2009). Also, OCB has been shown to have a significant and positive relationship with employee performance ratings, in the sense that employees who engaged in organizational citizenship behaviors were more highly rated by their supervisors than those who were not which in turn affected reward allocation (Podsakoff et al., 2009). These results were supported in another study by MacKenzie et al. (1991) who also investigated the relationship between organizational citizenship behavior and managerial evaluations of employees in a sample of 372 salespeople.

They found that the salespersons' altruism and civic virtue dimensions of OCB were as much of a factor in managerial subjective ratings of their performance as were the objective productivity levels, indicating yet again the importance of OCB on employee performance ratings.

Another empirical study by Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) examined the effect of organizational citizenship behavior on organizational performance by looking specifically at the impact of OCB on the level of work group effectiveness and found that OCB behaviors – more specifically helping behaviors – are positively related to overall organizational effectiveness (the factor that was the most significantly related to organizational effectiveness was the “altruism” dimension of organizational citizenship behavior). The authors claim that OCB improve performance by “lubricating the social machinery of the organization, reducing friction and/or increasing efficiency” (p. 135). This is done through a variety of ways. An example of how OCB can enhance employee productivity is when more experienced workers voluntarily engage in mentoring and training behaviors towards their less experienced colleagues (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997).

Furthermore, Podsakoff et al. (1997) studied the effect of organizational citizenship behavior on the quality and quantity of group performance in a sample of paper mill machine crews. Specifically, the authors focused on the “helping”, “sportsmanship”, and “civic virtue” aspects of OCB. The results of the study revealed that helping as well as sportsmanship behaviors were significantly and positively related to performance quality. The results also showed that sportsmanship behaviors were positively and significantly related to performance quantity. Civic virtue, however, was not found to have any significant relationship on performance quality and quantity. Moreover, OCB can improve organizational performance by freeing up resources that can be put to better use. Organ and Konovsky (1989) posit that that OCB can replace costly formal mechanisms within the organization by substituting the functions of these mechanisms in an informal way. Similarly, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) suggest that another way in which OCB can contribute to the effective of organizational resources is by freeing up management. In fact, as mentioned earlier, when employees engage in organizational citizenship behaviors, such as helping one another with work-related problems for example, managers have more time to spend on strategic tasks that are of benefit to the organization, time that would have otherwise been wasted on supervisory and coordination functions. Also, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) suggest that

organizational citizenship behaviors can help organizations in adapting and dealing with environmental changes through the employees' civic virtue (another dimension of OCB, as mentioned earlier). As a matter of fact, employees that are directly exposed to certain changes in the external environment in which the organization operates can help the organization in adapting to these changes through the dissemination of valuable information and the suggestion of valuable recommendations in formal meetings or via informal channels.

These important practical benefits that employee organizational citizenship behaviors contribute to the organization made it necessary for scholars to ascertain and understand the antecedents leading to the manifestation of OCB in the organization. To that end, Organ and Ryan (1995) carried out a meta-analysis to ascertain the impact of several attitudinal and dispositional factors on organizational citizenship behaviors. Their findings reinforced many previously held assumptions regarding the relationship of certain predictor variables and OCB. In fact, the authors found that job satisfaction was positively related to the altruism aspect of OCB. Moreover, they found – in concordance Smith et al. (1983) – that leader supportiveness was positively and significantly related to employee OCB (more specifically, altruism). Organ and Ryan (1995) also found that other attitudinal factors such as perceived fairness and organizational commitment were positively related to OCB. As for the dispositional factors, the authors found that the measure of conscientiousness was significantly and positively related to OCB. Another antecedent of OCB can be related to the employees' individual differences and personality traits. For instance, Smith et al. (1983) examined the effects of the employees' extraversion and neuroticism on OCB. In a similar vein, Elanain (2007) examined the relationship between several personality traits and organizational citizenship behavior in a sample of service sector employees and found that openness to experience, conscientiousness as well as emotional stability were all significant predictors of OCB. Rioux and Penner (2001, p. 1307) sought to identify employee motives leading to organizational citizenship behavior and, through factor analysis, were able to isolate three factors leading to OCB. These factors are: prosocial values (altruism and conscientiousness), organizational concern (described by the authors as the “desire for the company to do well and a desire for the participants to show pride in and commitment to the organization”), as well as impression management (which is the employees' desire to acquire organizational rewards and avoid giving a negative impression to coworkers and supervisors alike). The relationship between the employees' perceptions of fairness and OCB is also studied in the literature. Drawing from

social exchange theories such as equity theory, Moorman (1991) found empirical support for a positive relationship between perceptions of distributive, procedural and interactional justice and OCB. More specifically, Moorman (1991) found that distributive justice was positively and significantly related to the helping and sportsmanship dimensions of OCB. Procedural justice was positively and significantly related to the courtesy and conscientiousness aspects of the helping dimension, as well as the sportsmanship dimension of OCB. Lastly, interactive justice was found to be positively and significantly related to the helping and sportsmanship dimensions of OCB. Similar results were also found in other studies (see Niehoff and Moorman, 1993).

(3) Organizational Citizenship Behaviors-Individual (OCBI) and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors-Organization (OCBO)

Organizational citizenship behaviors fall under two broad categories: good colleague and good employee (Lamertz, 2006). According to Lamertz (2006), employees exhibiting “good colleague” behaviors are those who engage in extra-role behaviors whose goal is to assist fellow colleagues in the workplace (by alleviating their workload for example). Thusly, this category encompasses the altruism/courtesy dimension of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. On the other hand, employees exhibiting “good employee” behaviors are those who engage in extra-role behaviors that promote “the functioning of the organization as a whole”. This category encompasses the conscientiousness, sportsmanship and civic virtue dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

These two categories (good colleague and good employee) are also respectively referred to Organizational Citizenship Behaviors – Individual (OCB-I hereafter), and Organizational Citizenship Behavior – Organization (OCB-O hereafter). This distinction was first proposed by Williams & Anderson (1991). According to the authors, OCBI are behaviors that “immediately benefit specific individuals and indirectly through this means contribute to the organization”. The authors cite helping other employees who have been absent from the job to catch up on their workload, and taking investing personal time and effort in helping other employees as examples of such behaviors. In contrast with OCBI, Williams & Anderson (1991, p. 601) define OCBO simply as “behaviors that benefit the organization in general”. The authors cite giving notice of potential absenteeism well ahead of time, and adhering to the informal rules that govern the organization and whose purpose is to maintain order as examples of such behaviors that directly

benefit the organization as a whole. The authors justify the need for such a distinction by advancing two main arguments. These arguments are:

1. The authors argue that distinguishing between these two types of organizational citizenship behaviors is important because previous research has shown that each of these two types of behaviors has its own antecedents.
2. The authors argue that having this distinction is important to avoid the ‘restrictive assumptions’ implied by altruism on one hand and compliance on the other hand vis-à-vis external rewards which are not on par with the current understanding of organizational citizenship behaviors.

Servant Leadership and Trust

The second aim of this paper is to examine the relationship between servant leadership behaviors and trust, and the role that the follower’s trust in the leader plays in inciting organizational citizenship behaviors. To that end, a brief review of the factors leading to organizational trust, as well as the possible outcomes of trust will be discussed in this section.

Interest in academic research regarding trust (or lack thereof) in organizations has witnessed a dramatic growth during the past several years. The importance of examining the antecedents and outcomes of trust in organizations lies in the important benefits that the presence of trust confers to the institutions, as well as in the potentially harmful consequences that the absence of such trust may cause. Despite the wide agreement among scholars that the topic of trust and distrust in organizations is worthy of examining, there really isn’t a clear, concise, and universally accepted definition of what trust really is. In fact, the literature provides dozens (if not hundreds) of definitions of trust. Of these definitions, the one I felt captured the true meaning of trust is one that describes trust as “the expectations, assumptions, or beliefs about the likelihood that another’s future actions will be beneficial, favorable, or at least not detrimental to one’s interests” (Robinson, 1996). Even though a consensus on the nature of trust is non-existent, the relevant literature suggests that elements of risk and vulnerability are always present in the equation. In fact, the author posits that when a trustor engages in trusting behavior vis-à-vis a trustee (a colleague, a group, an organization etc...), he or she is willingly accepting to be vulnerable to the actions of that trustee. In the dynamics of this exchange between trustor and trustee, the risk factor arises in the uncertainty on the part of trustor that the trustee will accomplish the required task, placing the

trustor in a vulnerable position. Knowing that the main tenet of servant leadership behaviors is the prioritization of the subordinate's well-being and commitment, on the part of the servant, to the employees' growth both personally and professionally, the servant leader provides a nurturing environment that promotes openness and trust.

(1) The Bases of Trust

Kramer (1999) suggests that there are six distinct bases of trust. These bases are:

Dispositional trust

Dispositional trust is characterized by each individual's unique predisposition to trust and engage in trusting behaviors with others. This predisposition is determined by a number of factors, including the individual's own beliefs vis-à-vis human nature, which have been shaped by previous experiences. In other words, each individual's level of dispositional trust is determined by that individual's encounters and experiences with other people. For instance, when an individual has overwhelmingly positive experiences with other people in trust-related matters, that individual would have high dispositional trust relative to another individual whose past experiences with people have not been as encouraging. In contrast with the other bases of trust, dispositional trust is a relatively stable construct (Merritt & Ilgen, 2008).

Dispositional trust is also known in the literature as propensity to trust, and the two expressions are used interchangeably. Propensity to trust refers to an each individual's preparedness to trust other people (Gill et al., 2005). Given that some individuals are more naturally trusting than others, the present study will control for propensity to trust in order to make sure that trust in the leader is due to the leader's servant leadership behaviors and not to the individual's dispositional trust.

History-based trust

History-based trust is accorded or withheld by the trustor based on the past performance of the trustee. In other words, if the trustee has a good track record when it comes to trust-related matters (never failed to meet the trustor's expectations, for instance), the trustor will be more willing to trust the trustee. Even though history-based trust may seem to be somewhat related to dispositional trust as both bases are contingent on previous experiences, it is however a more dynamic and likely to vary when compared to dispositional trust (Merritt & Ilgen, 2008).

Third parties as conduits of trust

This base of trust refers to the role of gossip as an important source of secondary knowledge within the organization. Employees take the information communicated to them by other employees regarding the trustworthiness of other individuals in the organization seriously, and this information influences, in turn, their propensity to trust.

Category-based trust

Category-based trust refers to the type of trust that is fostered as a result of shared membership in a social or organizational category, in that the shared membership in a social or organizational category engenders trust among members. This is due to two main reasons: firstly, individuals assume that they are allowed to bypass the need to invest significant amounts of time and knowledge in getting to know the other individuals in the group as a pre-requisite for trust due to the mere reality of their shared membership in a group. Secondly, categorization and in-group mentality bias influences individuals into attributing positive characteristics to other group members, even if doing so isn't objectively warranted (Kramer, 1999). This type of trust can be thought of as being 'presumptive' trust, because the trustors make assumptions regarding the trustees that are not necessarily rooted in objective realities.

Role-based trust

This base of trust consists of the act of according trust to an individual based solely on their position in the organization. Kramer (1999) notes that role-based trust is considered to be a depersonalized type of trust because it is given by the trustor based on his or her knowledge of the trustee's hierarchical position in the organization, rather than on their knowledge of the trustor's capabilities, motives and intentions. It is also considered to be presumptive trust (similar to category-based trust) because the trustor is again making assumptions regarding the trustee that are not necessarily founded on objective realities.

Rule-based trust

This base of trust refers to the role that the shared understanding of organizational rules plays in promoting trust among employees. In fact, Kramer (1999) notes that both "explicit and tacit understandings regarding transaction norms, interactional routines, and exchange practices

provide an important basis for inferring that others in the organization are likely to behave in a trustworthy fashion, even in the absence of individuation knowledge about them”.

(2) Cognition-based and Affect-based Trust

The cognitive-based and affect-based construct of trust was developed by McAllister in 1995. In simple terms, cognition-based trust is “grounded in individual beliefs about peer reliability and dependability”, whereas affect-based trust is “grounded in reciprocated interpersonal care and concern” (McAllister, 1995, p. 25).

The cognitive aspect of trust entails that each trustor actively decides and chooses whether or not to trust a trustee based on a certain amount of knowledge concerning the latter, which is gathered from multiple sources (see the six bases of trust discussed above). This knowledge is related to certain trustee traits such as his or her competence, benevolence, integrity and transparency as will be discussed in greater detail below (Pirson & Malhorta).

On the other hand, the affect-based aspect of trust is related to the emotional bond between the trustor and the trustee. In fact, McAllister (1995) argues that “people make emotional investments in trust relationships, express genuine care and concern for the welfare of partners, believe in the intrinsic virtue of such relationships, and believe that these sentiments are reciprocated” (p. 26). He concludes that “ultimately, the emotional ties linking individuals can provide the basis for trust” (p. 26).

(3) Impact of Trust on Employee Outcomes

As mentioned previously, the presence of trust can reap important benefits for the organization. For instance, trust can reduce transaction costs within and among organizations by acting as a social decision heuristic. In fact the presence of trust creates an environment where the trustor believes that the trustee will not attempt to deceive or cause him harm, making the exchange of assets easier and less costly. Another benefit of trust in organizations is the fact that trust increases the spontaneous sociability of employees. This incites employees to engage in cooperative and altruistic actions, as well as assume extra-role behaviors, which in turn increases the overall organizational citizenship behavior of employees. A third benefit linked to the presence of trust in organizations is the fact that trust has a significant and positive effect on employee commitment to the organization. In fact, when employees trust their management, they become more accepting

of certain outcomes even though these outcomes may be unfavorable to them. This phenomenon is also known as voluntary deference to authority. Finally, it has been shown that the presence of trust in organizations increases employee motivation, as well as customer satisfaction (Pirson and Malhotra, 2011). By providing such important benefits to organizations, trust can be seen as a source of competitive advantage, which explains the dramatic increase in interest over this subject.

Due to the fact that trust offers a competitive advantage to organizations, looking into the factors that hinder the dissemination of trustworthy environment between the different players in an organization is essential. Kramer (1999) suggests that trust is easier to destroy than to create. In other words, it can take years to create an atmosphere of trust in an organization, and a second to unravel that trust, and undo all that has been done. This unfortunate phenomenon can be explained by two reasons. Firstly, trust-destroying events are more visible than trust-building events meaning that employees are more receptive to these negative events. Secondly, trust-destroying events are “heavier” than trust-building events when it comes to judgment, which explains why one negative event can erase many positive events. The main factor leading to distrust in an organization is the arousal of suspicion among employees. Employees become suspicious (of their colleagues, of their supervisors, of the organization as a whole) when their expectations have not been met, or when they suspect that the other aforementioned parties have ulterior motives.

Based on these six bases of trust, Pirson & Malhorta (2011) developed a model addressing the characteristics that make an individual trustworthy in the organizational setting. Their model suggests that the trustee’s managerial and technical competence, the trustee’s benevolence, the trustee’s integrity, as well as his or her transparency and identification play a significant role in determining the extent to which the trustee is perceived to be trustworthy.

Benevolence and integrity, which are two characteristics of trustworthiness, are also characteristics of servant-leaders. In fact, previous studies have attempted to establish a relationship between servant leadership behaviors and organizational trust. For instance, Sendjaya & Pekerti (2010) examined the impact of servant leadership on followers’ trust in their leaders in a sample of 555 employees of two educational institutions. The results of the study revealed that servant leadership behaviors are strong predictors of trust in leaders. They concluded that “subordinates who perceived high servant leadership behavior in their leaders had significantly higher trust levels

compared with those who perceived low servant leadership in their leaders” (Sendjaya & Pekerti, 2010, p. 643).

Employee Well-being

Employee well-being is anchored in self-determination theory (Meyer & Maltin, 2010). Briefly, self-determination theory (or SDT) is a macro theory of human motivation proposing that the satisfaction of three needs-autonomy, competence, and relatedness- is essential for psychological health, and therefore, well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Need for Autonomy

In the context of self-determination theory, autonomy refers to volition, which is the act of choosing a course of action freely and without any pressures from external sources. In other words, autonomy in this context is related to the extent to which individuals make decisions that are in harmony with their integrated sense of self (Deci and Ryan, 2000). As such, autonomy is considered a fundamental human need that drives and motivates human behavior, due to the fact that human beings have an essential inclination towards freedom, and having freewill is essential for achieving psychological well-being.

Need for Competence

Meyer & Maltin (2010) state that the need for competence is attained when “people believe they have the capability and resources needed to accomplish their tasks and achieve their objectives” (p. 24). It is therefore considered to be one of the fundamental human needs that drive and motivate human behavior, due to the fact that human beings need to feel like they have some semblance of control and mastery over the environment they operate in.

Need for Relatedness

In the context of self-determination theory, relatedness is considered to be the “desire to feel connected to others- to love and care, and to be loved and cared for” (Deci and Ryan, 2000, p. 231). It is the need to belong, and to experience meaningful interactions with others as argued by Ryan (1993) and others. As such, relatedness is also considered to be a fundamental human need that drives and motivates human behavior, due to the fact that human beings have an essential

desire to meaningful relationships, and the presence of these meaningful relationship is essential to their psychological well-being.

Employee well-being variables are being included in this study as possible moderators in the relationship between trust in the leader and employee organizational citizenship behavior. This is important because it will allow a more comprehensive and accurate depiction of the interactions between the main variables of the framework. That being the case, the well-being dimensions that will be measured in this study are three of the four well-being variables featured in the Panaccio & Vandenberghe (2009) article: emotional exhaustion, life satisfaction, and job satisfaction. The fourth dimension, positive and negative affect towards the organization, was excluded from the current study because the focus is on the leader-subordinate relationship rather than the subordinate-organization relationship.

Emotional Exhaustion

Wright & Cropanzano (1998) define emotional exhaustion as a “chronic state of physical and emotional depletion that results from excessive job demands and continuous hassles”. It is also referred to as burnout. Previous studies have shown that emotional exhaustion leads to several negative employee outcomes such as lower employee commitment (Jackson et al., 1987), increased turnover intentions (Lee & Ashforth, 1996) as well as actual turnover (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998). Furthermore, other scholars found that emotional exhaustion is negatively related to job performance (Jones & Best, 1995; Wright & Cropanzano, 1998).

Cropanzano et al. (2003), examined the effect of emotional exhaustion on both dimensions of employee organizational citizenship behavior. The results revealed that emotional exhaustion was significantly and negatively related to OCBO. However, there was no significant relationship between emotional exhaustion and OCBI (characterized by organizational citizenship behaviors directed towards the supervisor). That being the case, it would be worthwhile to include emotional exhaustion as a moderator in the framework, and see if the results of the Cropanzano et al. (2003) study hold.

Life Satisfaction

Life satisfaction is defined in the literature as “a global assessment of a person’s quality of life according to his chosen criteria” (Shin & Johnson, 1978, p. 478). In other words, it is the level of

congruence between an individual's current condition and a subjective standard that the individual sets for how things are supposed to be (Diener et al., 1985).

Assessment of life satisfaction is considered to be a cognitive-judgmental process (Diener et al., 1985; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). Moreover, scholars posit that life satisfaction, being a measure grounded in cognition rather than affect, reflects perceptions of fairness (Moorman, 1991). Previous studies have shown that perceptions of fairness and justice in the organization is positively related to organizational citizenship behavior (Organ & Moorman, 1993; Williams et al., 2002). Hence, an employee's life satisfaction level can influence his or her engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors.

Job Satisfaction

Extensive research on the satisfaction-performance link has found that job satisfaction does in fact lead to better performance (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Additionally, job satisfaction has been found to be positively related to employee commitment, and negatively related to turnover intentions and actual turnover (Tett & Meyer, 1993). Other scholars found that job satisfaction is positively and significantly related to employee organizational citizenship behavior (Murphy et al., 2002; Foote & Li-Ping Tang, 2008).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

(1) Servant Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Several antecedents to Organizational Citizenship Behavior seem to be highly correlated with – if not identical to – certain outcomes of servant leadership. For instance, servant leadership characteristics such as listening, empathy, healing, and empowerment as well as the focal desire of the servant-leader to serve the needs of the followers appear to be strongly related to the OCB antecedents of employee satisfaction (an employee whose leader is empathetic, pays attention to his or her needs, and acts as a servant to those needs is likely to be satisfied), fairness (in an organization where the leader assumes the role of the servant vis-à-vis the followers, instances of organizational injustice are highly unlikely), and more importantly, leader supportiveness. These relationships provide adequate theoretical context to assume that servant leadership is positively related to OCB. In fact, the correlation between servant leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior is supported by empirical evidence in the literature. Ehrhart (2004), has shown that servant leadership positively affects employee organizational citizenship behavior through the medium of procedural justice. In a similar study, Walumbwa et al. (2010) conclude that procedural justice climate, service climate, as well as certain employee attitudes (commitment to the supervisor and self-efficacy) mediate the relationship between servant leadership and employee organizational citizenship behavior. In concordance with previous research, I expect my study to find a similar link between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 1: Servant Leadership behaviors are positively related to employee OCB-I.

Hypothesis 2: Servant Leadership behaviors are positively related to employee OCB-O.

(2) The Mediating Role of Trust

The relationship between servant leadership and trust has been theoretically conceptualized and empirically tested in previous research. Russell & Stone (2002) surveyed the servant leadership literature and identified a set of recurring attributes and consequences of servant leadership on employee outcomes in the workplace. Naturally, a great deal of these attributes overlap with the ones discussed by Spears (2010) and mentioned above. However, the authors proposed trust in the

leader as one of the consequences of servant leadership. In fact, servant leaders are perceived to be more trustworthy by their followers, and are thus more likely to gain their followers' confidence than other types of leaders (Russell & Stone, 2002). This is in part due to the fact that servant leaders create a nurturing environment in which the followers feel more at ease in communicating their needs. Additionally, servant leaders are perceived to be more trustworthy because honesty and integrity are believed to be part of their core attributes (Russell & Stone, 2002; Liden et al., 2008). Empirically, servant leadership has been found to positively correlate with both leader trust and organizational trust (Joseph & Winston, 2004). The authors also found that organizations that were led by servant leaders exhibited higher levels of trust than organizations that were led by non-servant leaders, validating the theoretical premise that servant leaders are better at cultivating trust than other types of leaders.

In another vein, researchers studied the impact of trust in the leader on employees' engagement in organizational citizenship behaviors, and more specifically, on the altruism aspect of OCB (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Yukl, 1989). However, these studies focused transformational leadership as being the antecedent of trust, rather than servant leadership. Regardless of that fact, Yukl (1989) state that "one of the key reasons why followers are motivated by transformational leaders to perform beyond expectations is that the followers trust and respect them" (p. 272). Since there is enough theoretical and empirical evidence in the literature to suggest that servant leadership fosters trust in the leader within the followership, one can assume that the statement of Podsakoff et al. (1990) holds for servant leadership as well. Finally, Kramer (1999) suggested that a climate of organizational trust is positively related to the spontaneous sociability of the employees, which prompts them to engage in altruistic extra-role behaviors.

Hypothesis 3: Trust in the leader mediates a positive relationship between Servant Leadership behaviors and employee Organizational Citizenship Behaviors.

(3) The Moderating Role of Well-being

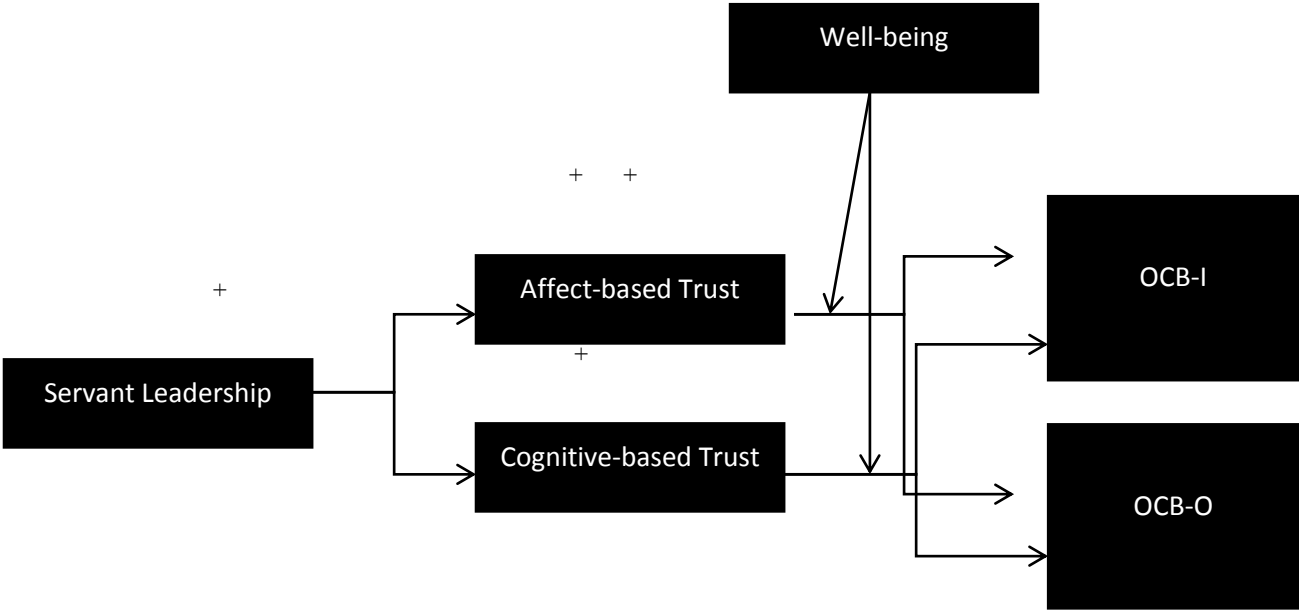
As previously stated, three well-being variables are being included in this study as moderators in the relationship between trust in the leader (both affect-based and cognitive-based) and employee citizenship behavior (both OCBI and OCBO). The well-being variables included in this study are emotional exhaustion, life satisfaction, and job satisfaction.

Well-being may strengthen the relationship between Trust and OCB because the employees who are high on well-being would have greater psychological and mental preparedness to reward the trustworthiness of their supervisors by going above and beyond their job descriptions and engaging in organizational citizenship behaviors. Although I suggest that Trust alone can be enough to predict OCB, the presence of high levels of well-being could amplify that positive relationship by activating “positive affective responses in employees” (Alfes et al., 2012, p. 412).

Hypothesis 4: High employee well-being will lead to a stronger relationship between trust in the leader and employee Organizational Citizenship Behaviors.

The preceding hypotheses are summarized in the model depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1: Theoretical Model



METHODS

This is a quantitative study implementing a cross-sectional research design. The participants, procedures, measures and data preparation are described below.

(1) Sample and Data Preparation

Two sample pools were approached in the data collection stage of the study.

The first sample consisted of 129 participants ($N=79$ females) comprising Concordia students enrolled in the university's co-op program. Two participants failed to indicate their age. The mean age of the sample was 22.53 years ($Max=45$, $Min=17$, $SD=3.62$). Moreover, the mean duration of employment was 8.1 months ($Max=32$, $Min=1$, $SD=6.77$).

The co-op program is a program provided by Concordia's Institute of Co-operative Learning and whose purpose is to provide students with the opportunity to engage in experiential learning by interspersing work terms (in the form of internships) with study terms. This program is available for 30 majors within four faculties (John Molson School of Business, faculty of Arts and Sciences, faculty of Engineering and Computer Science, and faculty of Fine Arts). Concordia University reports that there are over 1700 students currently participating in the co-op program which attracts over 3000 job postings annually in different fields from leading local, regional, and international corporations. Testimonies provided from previous and current participants in the program and posted on the program's webpage discuss the benefits of the co-op experience and stress that it has provided them with real-life work experience and skills that could not be learned in the classroom.

The second sample consisted of 27 participants ($N=11$ females) comprising employees working in a Canadian import/export company. The mean age of the sample was 37.1 years ($Max=54$, $Min=21$, $SD=9.3$). Moreover, the mean duration of employment was 68 months ($Max=180$, $Min=5$, $SD=51.8$).

The combined sample consisted of 156 participants ($N=90$ females). The mean age of the sample was 24.9 years ($Max=54$, $Min=17$, $SD=7.73$) and the mean duration of employment was 18.5 months ($Max=180$, $Min=1$, $SD=31.7$).

Given the demographic differences between the two participant pools, as well as the dispersion of duration of employment, both age and duration of employment were used as control variables, in

addition to propensity to trust, to eliminate their effects on the model after the merging of the two samples¹.

Table 1 summarizes the demographics of the different samples.

Table 1: Demographics

	Age (in years)		Duration of Employment (in months)	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Sample 1	22.53	3.62	8.1	6.77
Sample 2	37.1	9.3	24.9	51.8
Combined Sample	24.9	7.73	18.5	31.7

Prior to analysis, the data was checked for outliers using standardized z-scores. Any z-scores greater than 3.29 or less than -3.29 were to be removed. No univariate outliers were found as all of the z-scores fell within the permitted range.

Following this step, the variables were tested for multicollinearity by checking the Variance Inflation Factors (VIF). No VIF was found to exceed 5, indicating no threat of multicollinearity.

(2) Procedures

Data from the Concordia co-op sample was gathered by administering online surveys. A link to the survey was posted in the co-op program online forum with a message inviting co-op students to fill out the survey. The responses were completely anonymous.

Data from the Canadian import/export company was gathered by administering a paper version of the electronic survey administered to the co-op sample. The surveys were distributed during business hours and collected at the end of the following business day.

¹ The analyses of the larger sample as well as the combined sample, respectively, revealed similar patterns of significance, lending support to the decision to merge the two samples and use only the overall sample in subsequent analyses.

The participants from both samples were informed in the cover page of the survey that their responses would remain anonymous, and that they could refuse or discontinue the survey at any time without any repercussions (Appendix A). They were also provided with the contact information of the researcher and the university's Ethics Committee in case they had any enquiries or complaints. The survey took eight minutes on average to complete.

(3) Measures

Servant Leadership

Servant Leadership was measured with the Liden et al. (2008) measure, using a 5-point Likert scale. The measure comprises 28 items, assessing seven dimensions of servant leadership: emotional healing (featuring items such as “I would seek help from my manager if I had a personal problem”); creating value for the community (featuring items such as “I am encouraged by my manager to volunteer in the community”); conceptual skills (featuring items such as “our manager has a thorough understanding of our organization and its goals”); empowering (featuring items such as “my manager encourages me to handle important work decisions on my own”); helping others grow and succeed (featuring items such as “my manager provides me with experiences that enable me to develop and succeed”); putting subordinates first (featuring items such as “my manager does what he/she can do to make my job easier”) and behaving ethically (featuring items such as “my manager holds high ethical standards”).

The reliability of the scale in this study was $\alpha = .94$, $M = 3.25$, $SD = .29$.

Trust

Trust was measured with the McAllister (1995) measure, using a 5-point Likert scale. The measure comprises 11 items, five of which measuring affect-based trust (such as “my manager and I have a sharing relationship. We can both freely share our ideas, feelings and hopes”), and six items measuring cognitive based trust (such as “given my manager's track record, I see no reason to doubt his/her competence and preparation for the job”).

The reliability of affect-based in this study was $\alpha = .74$, $M = 3.4$, $SD = .14$. Moreover, the reliability of cognitive-based trust in this study was $\alpha = .87$, $M = 3.53$, $SD = .17$.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational Citizenship Behavior was measured with the Smith et al. (1983) measure, using a 5-point Likert Scale. The measure comprises 14 items, six of which measure OCB-I featuring items like “the employee assists his/her supervisor with his/her work”, and eight measuring OCB-O featuring items such as “the employee gives advance notice if unable to come to work”. However, given that the participants in this study were asked to self-rate their behaviors at work, the wording of the items was changed to reflect that fact. For example, the item “the employee gives advance notice if unable to come to work” became “I give advance notice if unable to come to work”.

The reliability of OCB-I in this study was $\alpha = .92$, $M = 3.59$, $SD = .13$. Moreover, the reliability of OCB-O in this study was $\alpha = .88$, $M = 3.43$, $SD = .81$.

Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion was measured with 5 items adapted from the Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey, using a 5-point Likert scale. The general survey measures three dimensions of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. The emotional exhaustion dimension of burnout features items such as “I feel frustrated by my job” and “I feel used up at the end of a work day”.

It is worth noting that the Emotional Exhaustion scale was reversed during analysis such that the scale was not actually measuring well-being (the lack of emotional exhaustion) rather than burnout.

Life Satisfaction:

Life satisfaction was measured with the Diener et al. (1985) measure, using a 5-point Likert scale. The measure comprises 5 items that address the level of congruence between the individual’s ideal perception of how his or her life ought to be, and how his or her life really is. The measure features items such as “in most ways, my life is close to my ideals” and “if I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing”.

Job Satisfaction:

Job satisfaction was measured with the Hackman & Oldham (1980) measure, using a 5-point Likert scale. The measure comprises 2 items that address the level of satisfaction one feels vis-à-vis one’s job. The two items are: “Generally speaking, I’m satisfied with my current job” and “I’m rather dissatisfied with my position in this organization”.

As mentioned above, Emotional Exhaustion, Life Satisfaction and Job Satisfaction were combined in one measure assessing employees' well-being. That being the case, the reliability of the overall well-being measure in this study was $\alpha = .9$, $M = 3.13$, $SD = .16$.

Propensity to Trust

Propensity to trust, which was used as a control variable (along with age and duration of employment) was measured with the Mayer & Davis (1998) measure, using a 5-point Likert scale. The measure comprises 8 items that assess the individual's dispositional trust. The measure features items such as "most experts tell the truth about the limits of their knowledge" and "most people can be counted on to do what they say they will do".

The reliability of this scale in this study was $\alpha = .9$, $M = 3.04$, $SD = .94$.

Table 2: Measures' Descriptives

	<i>α</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Servant Leadership	.94	3.25	.29
Affect-based Trust	.74	3.4	1.4
Cognitive-based Trust	.87	3.53	.17
OCB-I	.92	3.52	.13
OCB-O	.88	3.43	.81
Well-being	.9	3.13	.16
Propensity to Trust	.9	3.05	.14

(4) Moderated Mediation

A moderated mediation model is employed when the purpose of the study is to examine the indirect effects of an independent variable (X) on a dependent variable (Y) through a mediator (M) that is affected by a moderator (V). This model is the one used to test the hypotheses of this study. The

independent variable (X) is Servant Leadership, the dependent variables (Y) are OCB-I and OCB-O, and the moderator (V) is Well-being. In order to test the relationships in this model, an SPSS add-on called PROCESS was downloaded from Dr. Andrew Hayes's website (<http://www.processmacro.org/download.html>), and mounted on SPSS (version 21). Dr. Andrew Hayes is a professor of Psychology in Ohio State University who developed the PROCESS code to allow for easier and more accurate analysis of mediation, moderation, and moderated mediation models. The advantage of PROCESS is that it allows for simultaneous testing of moderation and mediation effects, in addition to direct effects between the independent and dependent variables. On the other hand, one limitation of the program is that only supports models with one dependent variable. This means that, for this study, two models were ran using PROCESS: the first with OCB-I as the dependent variable, and the second with OCB-O as the dependent variable.

Before launching the analysis on PROCESS, the researcher must first choose the appropriate model for the study from 76 available options. For this study, I chose Model 14, which is described by figures 2 and 3 (the figures were retrieved from Andrew Hayes' website):

Figure 2: Model 14's Conceptual Diagram.

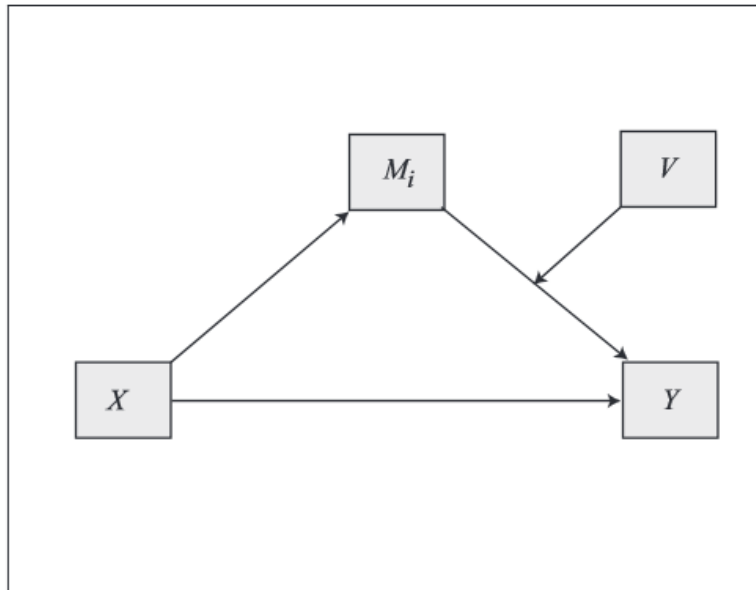
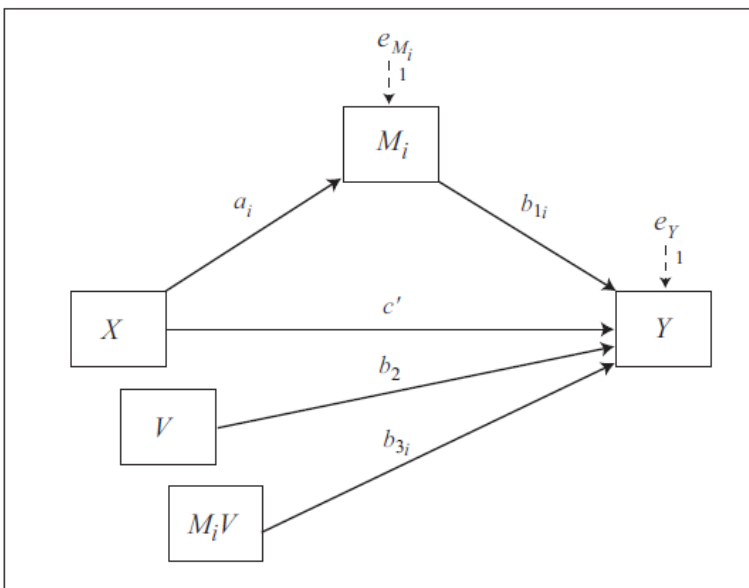


Figure 3: Model 14's Statistical Diagram.



Conditional indirect effect of X on Y through $M_i = a_i(b_{1i} + b_{3i}V)$
 Direct effect of X on $Y = c'$

In addition to moderated mediation analysis, PROCESS allows the use of bootstrapping, which is a statistical technique that enhances the accuracy of the analysis by resampling the data to gain a more representative depiction of the population. In the current study, 10000 bootstrap samples were used with a 95% confidence interval allowing a more accurate representation of the population.

RESULTS

(1) Correlational Results

Bivariate Pearson correlation was conducted to determine the relationships between the variables of the study (see Table 3). The correlation coefficients revealed that Servant Leadership was significantly and positively correlated with Affect-based Trust ($r=.72, p<.01$), Cognitive-based Trust ($r=.79, p<.01$), OCB-I ($r=.68, p<.01$) and OCB-O ($r=.59, p<.01$).

Table 3: Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations.

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender	1.58	.5										
2. Age	24.91	7.73	-.11									
3. Duration of Employment	18.49	31.69	-.12	.66**								
4. Propensity to Trust	3.04	.94	-.17*	.44**	.4**	(.9)						
5. Servant Leadership	3.25	.94	-.04	.29**	.16	-.17*	(.94)					
6. Affect-based Trust	3.3	.94	-.05	.36**	.21**	-.01	.76**	(.74)				
7. Cognitive-based Trust	3.52	.97	-.03	.24**	.1	-.26**	.83**	.63**	(.87)			
8. OCB-I	3.59	1.06	-.006	.24**	.13	-.28**	.74**	.55**	.74**	(.92)		
9. OCB-O	3.43	.93	.06	.16	.15	-.31	.65**	.43**	.66**	.77**	(.88)	
10. Well-being	3.13	.81	-.02	.35**	.3**	.004	.62**	.53**	.51**	.56**	.50**	(.9)

N=156. Reliabilities are shown in the diagonal.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Moreover, the bivariate correlation revealed that Affect-based Trust was significantly related to OCB-I ($r=.49, p<.01$) and OCB-O ($r=.37, p<.01$). Similarly, Cognitive-based Trust was found to be significantly related to OCB-I ($r=.66, p<.01$) and OCB-O ($r=.59, p<.01$). The positive and significant relationship between the two dimensions of Trust (Affect-based and Cognitive-based) on one hand, and the two dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Individual and Organization), as well as the positive relationship between Servant Leadership and the two dimensions of Trust seem to indicate that a mediating effect by the Trust variable is present in the model.

To better understand these relationships, the entire model was entered into PROCESS. As mentioned earlier, PROCESS only allows testing of models that have one dependent variable. Therefore, two regressions were ran, the first one considering OCB-I as the dependent variable, and the second one considering OCB-O as the dependent variable. The results of these analyses are described in the next section.

(2) Mediated Moderation with OCB-I as Dependent Variable

The first mediated moderation model was found to be significant following the regression run by PROCESS ($R^2_{adjusted}=.65$, $F=53.21$, $p<.01$). It is worthy to note that PROCESS contains the option to automatically center the variables on the mean (standardization). This is done to better control for multicollinearity. In the present study, Affect-based Trust, Cognitive-based Trust, and Well-being variables were centered on the mean. The direct, indirect and interaction effects of the variables in the model on OCB-I are discussed below.

Direct effect of Servant Leadership on OCB-I:

The mediated moderation regression analysis revealed that the direct relationship between Servant Leadership and OCB-I within the full model was significant as predicted ($r=.34$, $p=.024$), thus showing support for hypothesis 1.

Indirect effect of Servant Leadership on OCB-I:

Surprisingly, the relationship between Affect-based Trust and OCB-I was not found to be significant in the model ($r=-.01$, $p=.91$). On the other hand, the relationship between Cognitive-based Trust and OCB-I was significant ($r=.32$, $p=.005$). That being the case, hypothesis 3 is only partially supported.

Interaction effects of Well-being on OCB-I:

The current model purports that Well-being moderates the relationship between both dimensions of Trust (Affect-based and Cognitive-based Trust) and OCB-I. To examine these relationships, PROCESS automatically created two interaction terms. The interaction between Affect-based Trust and Well-being was renamed “interaction 1”, while the interaction between Cognitive-based Trust and Well-being was renamed “interaction 2”. PROCESS then tested the effects of these two interactions on the outcome variable (OCB-I). Contrary to predictions, neither interaction 1

($r=-.085, p=.3$), nor interaction 2 ($r=-.15, p=.095$) were found to be significant, and thus no support was found for hypothesis 4.

The PROCESS analysis outputs of the mediated moderation with OCB-O as the dependent variable, as well as the relationships between Servant Leadership and both dimensions of Trust are depicted in Table 4 through 6.

Table 4: PROCESS output of the mediated moderation with OCB-I as the dependent variable:

Outcome: OCB-I

	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t-Value</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	2.8304	.4839	5.8495	.0000	1.8741	3.7867
Affect-based Trust	-.0101	.0907	-.1109	.9119	-.1893	.1692
Cognitive-based Trust	.3249	.1011	3.2139	.0016	.1251	.5248
Servant Leadership	.3449	.1245	2.7692	.0064	.0987	.5910
Well-being	.2603	.0857	3.0362	.0028	.0909	.4297
Interaction 1	-.0851	.0986	-.8635	.3893	-.2800	.1097
Interaction 2	-.1516	.0912	-1.6614	.0988	-.3318	.0287
Age	.0123	.0100	1.2299	.2207	-.0074	.0319
Duration of Employment	-.0006	.0023	-.2645	.7918	-.0051	.0039
Propensity to Trust	-.1860	.0685	-2.7146	.0074	-.3213	-.0506

Product terms key:

Interaction 1 Affect-based Trust X WB
 Interaction 2 Cognitive-based Trust X WB

Table 5: PROCESS output of the mediation with Affect-based Trust as outcome

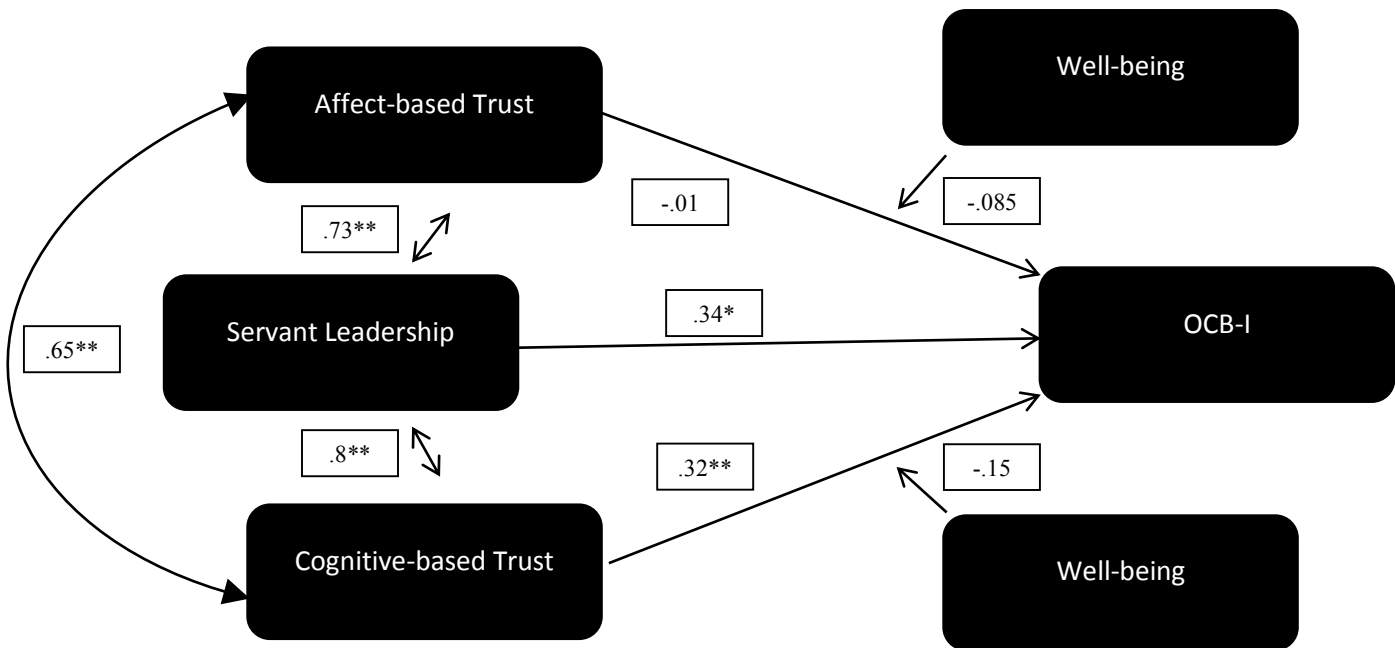
	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t-Value</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	-2.9413	.2807	-10.479	.0000	-3.4959	-2.3867
Servant Leadership	.7318	.0570	12.8304	.0000	.6191	.8445
Propensity to Trust	.0546	.0610	.8952	.3721	-.0660	.1752
Age	.0162	.0091	1.7826	.0767	-.0018	.0341
Duration of Employment	-.0004	.0020	-.1731	.8628	-.0044	.0037

Table 6: PROCESS output of the mediation effect with Cognitive-based Trust as outcome

	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t-Value</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	-2.3978	.2512	-9.5470	.0000	-2.8940	-1.9015
Servant Leadership	.7987	.0510	15.6501	.0000	.6979	.8996
Propensity to Trust	-1.784	.0546	-3.2675	.0013	-.2863	-.0705
Age	.0144	.0081	1.7718	.0784	-.0017	.0304
Duration of Employment	-.0007	.0018	-.3931	.6948	-.0043	.0029

A visual representation of these results is presented in Figure 4.

Figure 4: Moderated mediation with OCB-I as dependent variable



(3) Mediated Moderation with OCB-O as Dependent Variable

The second mediated moderation model was also found to be significant following the regression run by PROCESS ($R^2_{adjusted}=.45$, $F=27.53$, $p<.01$). The direct, indirect and interaction effects of the variables in the model on OCB-O are discussed below.

Direct effect of Servant Leadership on OCB-O:

The mediated moderation regression analysis revealed that the direct relationship between Servant Leadership and OCB-O within the full model was significant as predicted ($r=.27$, $p=.044$), thus showing support for hypothesis 2.

Indirect effect of Servant Leadership on OCB-O:

Equally to the previous model, the relationship between Affect-based Trust and OCB-O was not found to be significant ($r=-.12$, $p=.13$). Conversely, the relationship between Cognitive-based Trust and OCB-O was significant ($r=.33$, $p=.0027$). That being the case, hypothesis 3 is only partially supported.

Interaction effects of Well-being on OCB-O:

As before, the interaction between Affect-based Trust and Well-being was renamed “interaction 1”, while the interaction between Cognitive-based Trust and Well-being was renamed “interaction 2”. PROCESS then tested the effects of these two interactions on the outcome variable (OCB-O). Neither interaction 1 ($r=-.14$, $p=.12$), nor interaction 2 ($r=-.055$, $p=.49$) were found to be significant, and thus no support was found for hypothesis 4.

The PROCESS analysis outputs of the mediated moderation with OCB-O as the dependent variable, as well as the relationships between Servant Leadership and both dimensions of Trust are depicted in Table 7 through 9.

Table 7: PROCESS output of the mediated moderation with OCB-O as the dependent variable:

Outcome: OCB-O

	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t-Value</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	3.2377	.4805	6.7381	.0000	2.2881	4.1874
Affect-based Trust	-.1245	.0901	-1.3817	.1692	-.3025	.0536
Cognitive-based Trust	.3259	.1004	3.2463	.0015	.1275	.5244
Servant Leadership	.2697	.1237	2.1810	.0308	.0253	.5142
Well-being	.2267	.0851	2.6630	.0086	.0585	.3949
Interaction 1	-.1410	.0979	-1.4402	.1520	-.3345	.0525
Interaction 2	-.0550	.0906	-.6071	.5447	-.2340	.1240
Age	-.0029	.0099	-.2925	.7703	-.0224	.0167
Duration of Employment	.0036	.0023	1.5810	.1160	-.0009	.0081
Propensity to Trust	-.1960	.0680	-2.8809	.0046	-.3304	-.0615

Product terms key:

Interaction 1 Affect-based Trust X WB
 Interaction 2 Cognitive-based Trust X WB

Table 8: PROCESS output of the mediation effect with Affect-based Trust as outcome

	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t-Value</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	-2.9413	.2807	-10.4790	.0000	-3.4959	-2.3867
Servant Leadership	.7318	.0570	12.8304	.0000	.6191	.8445
Propensity to Trust	.0546	.0610	.8952	.3721	-.0660	.1752
Age	.0162	.0091	1.7826	.0767	-.0018	.0341
Duration of Employment	-.0004	.0020	-.1731	.8628	-.0044	.0037

Table 9: PROCESS output of the mediation effect with Cognitive-based Trust as outcome

	<i>Coefficient</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t-Value</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>LICI</i>	<i>ULCI</i>
Constant	-2.3978	.2512	-9.5470	.0000	-2.8940	-1.9015
Servant Leadership	.7987	.0510	15.6501	.0000	.6979	.8996
Propensity to Trust	-.1784	.0546	-3.2675	.0013	-.2863	-.0705
Age	.0144	.0081	1.7718	.0784	-.0017	.0304
Duration of Employment	-.0007	.0018	-.3931	.6948	-.0043	.0029

A visual representation of these results is presented in Figure 5.

Figure 5: Moderated mediation with OCB-O as dependent variable

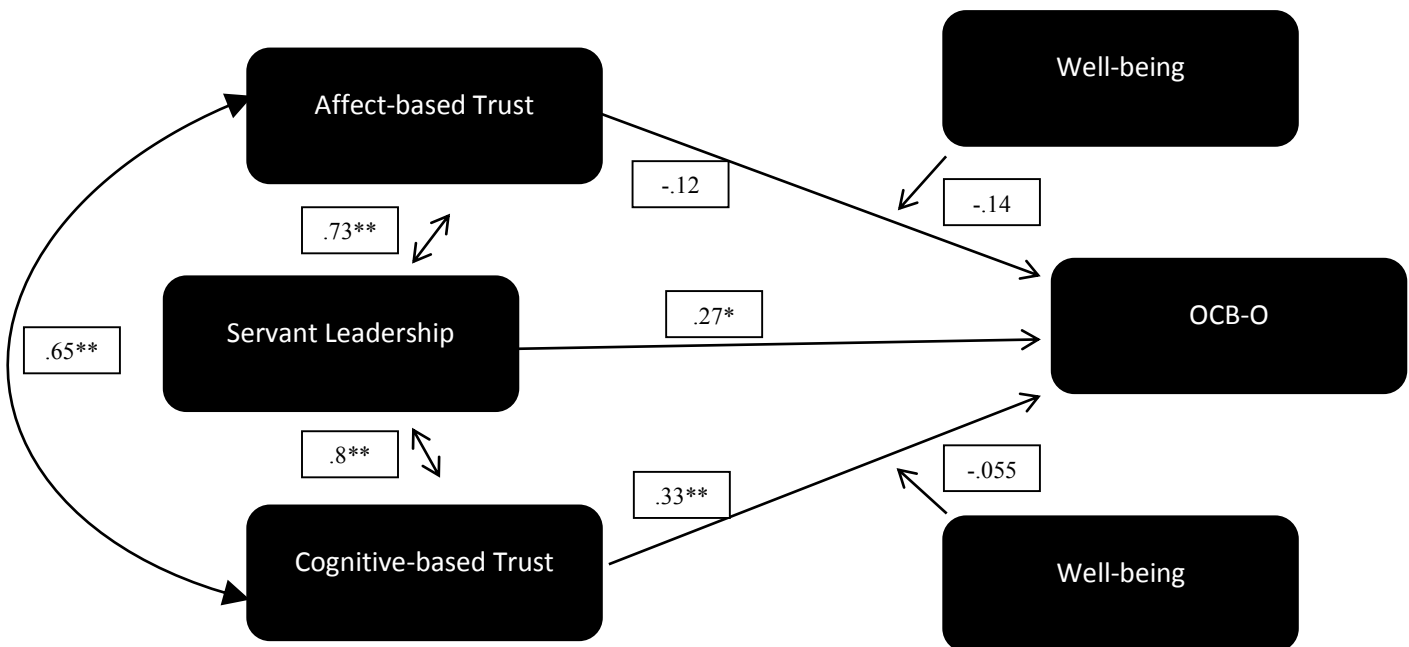


Table 10 below summarizes the implications of the results on the hypotheses of the study.

Table 10: Supported hypotheses using the moderated mediation model

Hypotheses	Supported	Partially Supported	Not Supported
H₁ : Servant Leadership behaviors are positively related to employee OCB-I.	✓		
H₂ : Servant Leadership behaviors are positively related to employee OCB-O.	✓		
H₃ : Trust in the leader mediates a positive relationship between Servant Leadership behaviors and employee Organizational Citizenship Behaviors.		✓	
H₄ : High employee well-being will lead to a stronger relationship between trust in the leader and employee Organizational Citizenship Behaviors.			✓

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship between Servant Leadership behaviors in the leader, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors in the employees. More specifically, we wanted to test the role of both Affect-based and Cognitive-based trust as mediators of that relationship, as well as explore the moderating effects of Well-being on the link between Trust and OCB. Given that the model includes both mediation and moderation, a mediated moderation analysis using PROCESS for SPSS was conducted.

In concordance with previous research in this area (Ehrhart 2004; Walumbwa et al., 2010; Lu, 2014...), the results of the present analysis revealed that servant leadership is indeed significantly and positively correlated with both dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior (individual dimension and organizational dimension). However, while other research in this area looked at the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior through the mediating lens of procedural justice (Ehrhart, 2004; Walumbwa et al., 2010), person-organization fit and organizational identification (Vondey, 2010), service climate (Hunter et al., 2013), no research has been conducted on the possible mediating role of Trust in the leader on the Servant Leadership-OCB relationship (Bambale, 2014). That being the said, the results of this study revealed that between the two dimensions of Trust, only cognitive-based trust was found to have a significant mediating effect on that relationship. This is also in concordance with previous research that found that servant leadership behaviors is positively correlated with leader trust (Joseph & Winston, 2004). A possible explanation of these results is that employees who perceive that their supervisors possess high levels of knowledge and skill and contribute greatly to the success of the organization may feel the need to perform extra-role behaviors to prove themselves to said supervisors, and demonstrate that, they too contribute heavily to the overall well-being of the organization. On the other hand, employees who bond with their supervisors on a more emotional level may not feel as pressured to go above and beyond the job descriptions to please their supervisors.

The present study proposes that employee well-being is a moderating variable influencing the relationship between both dimensions of trust (Affect-based and Cognitive-based) and OCB. It was suggested that the relationship between the employees' trust in the leader and employee organizational citizenship behavior is moderated by the employees' well-being, such that the

employees will be more likely to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors if their well-being is high. The results of the analysis failed to support that hypothesis as the moderating effect of well-being was not found to be significant for either dimension of trust and OCB. While this result was quite puzzling, a possible explanation is that employees whose supervisors are highly knowledgeable and competent will be motivated to exert extra efforts in the workplace in the form of organizational citizenship behaviors regardless of their own levels of well-being. They will see in as an opportunity to gain the approval of their knowledgeable and competent supervisor.

Limitations

This study has some limitations. First, the cross-sectional nature of the study makes it hard to establish causation between the independent and dependent variables. Moreover, the cross-sectional nature of the study makes it impossible to ascertain how the relationships between the variables change over time.

Another limitation is the nature of the sample. In fact, the majority of the participants in this study were university students whose work experience comes from intermittent, short-duration internships. In fact, students participating in these co-op internships know that they will only be in their positions for a short amount of time before moving on to other opportunities. As such, these students may not accord the same valence to servant leadership behaviors and leader trust that more mature professionals (who value stability and career-building) do. Moreover, the small size of the mature sample ($N=27$) does not allow for enough statistical power to make reasonable conclusions about the relationships of the model. Therefore, the results of this study might not be generalizable to more mature employees.

A third limitation concerns the measure used to assess both dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior. Although both measures were found to be reliable ($\alpha=.92$ for OCB-I and $\alpha=.88$ for OCB-O), the fact that they were altered to allow the participants to self-report their work behaviors (as opposed to asking the supervisors to assess the employees' work behaviors) may have caused the positive behaviors to be over-inflated.

A fourth and final limitation is more technical in nature. As previously mentioned, PROCESS only allows the inclusion of one dependent variable per analysis. That being the case, two analyses were conducted: one for the model where OCB-I was the dependent variable, and one for the model

where OCB-O was the dependent variable. Even though both models were found to be significant, had I been able to analyze a model containing both dependent variables simultaneously, the results might have been different, specifically with regards to the moderating effect of well-being which previous research overwhelmingly found to be associated with increased effort and other positive outcomes.

Practical Implications

As mentioned in the beginning of this section, this study is the first to examine the mediating role of trust on the relationship between servant leadership and employee organizational citizenship behaviors, thus expanding the current servant leadership literature. In fact, the results of this study have shown that Cognitive-based trust partially mediated the relationship between servant leadership and both dimensions of organizational citizenship behavior, which, together with previous findings on this topic, allow a better understanding of the nature of that relationship. Contrary to predictions however, employee well-being was not found to be a significant moderator of the relationship between the trust dimensions on one hand, and the organizational citizenship dimensions on the other hand.

The benefits of both leader trust and employee organizational citizenship behaviors have been discussed at length in previous sections of the paper. Briefly, trust in the leader as well as organizational citizenship behaviors have both been linked to lower transaction costs, increased employee motivation and commitment, higher customer loyalty, as well as better overall organizational effectiveness (Pirson and Malhotra, 2011). In light of results of the current study, employers should keep in mind that in order to increase the likelihood of their employees engaging in extra-role behaviors, supervisors and lower to mid-level managers (those who are in constant contact with employees) should both have servant leadership qualities, as well as expert knowledge and skill in their fields. Since affect-based trust was not found to mediate the relationship between servant leadership and OCB, another recommendation would be to invest more in improving the leaders' technical skills and knowledge (through training workshops and educational programs) instead of focusing on developing emotional bonds between supervisors and employees. Moreover, results indicate that well-being does not moderate the relationship between trust and OCB, meaning that while employee well-being is important to the manifestation of other employee outcomes, it is not necessary to get employees to engage in organizational citizenship behaviors.

Accordingly, being aware of the relationships between these variables, and harnessing the full potential of their positive outcomes can provide any organization with much-needed competitive edge.

Future Directions

The impact of servant leadership on employee outcomes, specifically employee organizational citizenship behavior, is still somewhat underdeveloped, especially when compared to other types of leadership (such as transformational leadership). Future research should focus on the factors that would make servant leadership more effective on employee outcomes. To that end, other mediators and moderators must be considered and tested. So far, research has focused on the roles of procedural justice climate, service climate, person-organization fit and organizational identification in mediating the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior. Other mediators could include variables related to employee attitudes such as self-efficacy, intrinsic motivation and identification with the leader (Walumbwa et al., 2010). Moreover, other moderators could be proposed to better understand these relationships. These can include work-related variables such as task interdependence and group cohesiveness (Balambe, 2014).

CONCLUSION

The aim of the present study was to investigate the relationship between Servant Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. In doing so, the study sought to expand the servant leadership literature by examining the mediating role of leader trust on that relationship, as well as the moderating effect of employee well-being on the relationship between trust and OCB, thus, filling a gap in the literature. The findings found, in accordance with previous research, that a significant and positive relationship exists between servant leadership behaviors and employee citizenship behaviors. Results also showed that Cognitive-based trust partially mediated that relationship. The mediating effect of Affect-based trust was not found to be significant. Surprisingly, the moderating effect of employee well-being was not found to be significant either, and thus the hypothesis that well-being positively moderated the relationship between trust and OCB could not be supported.

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Appendix A
Cover Letter

Dear Participant:

My name is Ali Chraim and I am a graduate student at Concordia University's John Molson School of Business. I am inviting you to participate in my research study, which is a partial requirement for my degree.

The attached questionnaire will require approximately 10 minutes to complete. There is no compensation for responding nor is there any known risk. In order to ensure that all information will remain anonymous, please do not include your name. If you choose to participate in this project, please answer all questions as honestly as possible and return the completed questionnaires promptly to me, sealed in the envelope I have provided. Participation is strictly voluntary and you may refuse to participate or discontinue at any time. Your individual responses will be held in the strictest anonymity and will not be revealed to your employers or any other party.

Thank you for taking the time to assist me in my educational endeavors. The data collected will provide useful information and allow me to complete my thesis requirement. If you would like to learn about the final results of the study, or require additional information, please contact me at the number or email listed below. You may also contact my supervisor, Dr. Linda Dyer, at linda.dyer@concordia.ca.

Please note that completion and return of the questionnaire will indicate your willingness to participate in this study.

If you have any questions or concerns about the manner in which this study is being conducted, you may contact the Office of Research at Concordia University at 514-848-2424, ext. 4395.

Sincerely,

Ali Chraim

Cellphone number: 438-863-6899

Email: ali.chraim@gmail.com