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Servant Leaders' Use of High Performance Work Practices and Corporate Social Performance

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Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

Business researchers have shown that servant leaders empower, provide long-term vision, and serve their workers and followers better than do nonservant leaders. High performance work practices (HPWPs) and corporate social performance (CSP) can enhance employee and firm productivity. However, when overused or poorly managed, HPWPs and CSP can lead to the business problems of employee disengagement, overload, or anxiety. Scholars noted a gap in human resource management research regarding whether leadership styles affect HPWPs and CSP use. This study examined the relationship between leadership style and the use of HPWPs and CSP, by using a quantitative, nonexperimental design. U.S. business leaders (N = 287) completed a survey consisting of 3 previously published scales. A chi-square analysis calculated the servant to nonservant leader ratio in the population, finding a disproportionate ratio (1:40) of servant (n = 7) to nonservant (n = 280) leaders. Two t tests showed that no significant difference existed in how servant and nonservant leaders use HPWPs or CSP. However, a multiple linear regression model showed that a leader's self-reported characteristics of empowerment, vision, or service positively predicted CSP use; empowerment positively predicted HPWPs use; service negatively predicted HPWPs use; and vision had no effect on HPWPs use. Findings may help human resource practitioners identify leaders who use HPWPs or CSP differently. Positive social change may occur by hiring more visionary, empowering, or service-oriented leaders who can support overwhelmed or anxious workers, potentially leading to more engaged and productive workers, and an increase in the use of positive CSP.

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Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to the following people: Sean and Wes, my sons who have been my fellow Musketeers from their first breaths; Ken and Kristy, my bonus son and daughter, who I love like my own flesh and blood; my grandson, Colby, who gives me unconditional love, and is so much like his grandpa Ray that it takes my breath away; my parents, who, despite my growing pains, career changes, moving to the Caribbean, and being *that kid*, have always made me feel like the brightest coin in the pile; my godmother, Aunt Imy, who has always encouraged and praised everything I have done; my sister, Meg, who has my back; and my mini-me Anna, whose life is paralleling mine in unreal ways. Of course, and specifically, I acknowledge, thank, and adore my husband, Capt. Ray, who quietly endured my work on this project for endless days and nights, who paid the tuition bills when the tuition coverage ran out, who solved our real problems while I answered theoretical ones, and who rarely complained about the time away from him this dissertation took.

Mostly, I dedicate my dissertation to the few remaining servant leaders out there – those who serve their workers, while being treated like outliers. It is for you and all you do that I conducted this study. Keep the faith! Your workers need you.

Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge and thank the following people who have contributed to and helped me with this dissertation. First, and foremost, my dissertation chair, Dr. Jean Gordon, who has supported me without question throughout this process. Dr. Branford McAllister has steadfastly provided detailed, intricate, and minute attention to details, which allowed me to feel confident that my statistical analyses are accurate, triangulated, and merit-worthy. Dr. Sarah Inkpen provided immeasurable assistance during Advanced Quantitative Research Methods and my initial results analysis, and encouraged me when I was ready to give up. Dr. Thomas Spencer spent hours helping me align this study. My Walden-twin Angela Charles, my dear friend Rose LaMuraglia, my study-pal Sean Ryan, my cohort in trouble-making, Tracy Guy, my island BFF, Amy Jung, my second mom, Kim Lucas, my lifetime BFF Jana Walls, The Carpenter Club, my colleagues, Dr. Wanda Gravett and Dr. Jack McDonald, and my URR, Dr. Godwin Igein provided their support and encouragement. Dr. John Nirenberg warned me that servant leaders may be hard to find, thus stimulating the inclusion of Plan B. Dr. Henry Brashen, a dedicated servant leader, supported me throughout this program, even when I was at my lowest, and gave me a second chance with only a 3-minute reflection. All of these people had a supporting role in helping me complete this project.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Corporate scandals and economic retractions experienced during the first decade of the 21st Century brought leadership styles, corporate social performance (CSP), and high performance work practices (HPWPs) into the scrutiny of human resource management (HRM) researchers. Human resource managers (HRMs) encourage business leaders to treat employees fairly (Redeker, deVries, Rouckhout, Vermeren, & de Fruyt, 2014), and contribute positively to society (Chun, Shin, Choi, & Kim, 2013), while leaders focus on the profits and productivity that sustain business (Cleveland, Byrne, & Cavanagh, 2015, p. 147). Well-intentioned management practices can lead to unintended consequences. Studies have shown correlations between increased CSP requirements and worker stress (Van de Voorde, Paauwe, & Van Veldhoven, 2012); among increased HPWPs, worker overload, and anxiety (Jensen, Patel, & Messersmith, 2013); and between CSP over-reporting and bonuses paid to chief executive officers (CEOs) for their organizations' CSP outputs (Brown-Liburd & Zamora, 2015). Milligan (2016) confirmed that current employees work, on average, more hours per week than ever before in recorded history, and they are stressed, anxious, and overwhelmed (p. 28).

The competing interests of employee well-being, profit, and societal focus have led to a business need for finding leaders who can balance firm productivity with HPWPs and CSP use (Cascio, 2014). This balancing act requires special leadership skills. Zhang, Fan, and Zhu (2014) studied HPWPs and CSP's influence on employee engagement, finding that businesses need leaders who can balance the use of HPWPs and CSP. Demirtas (2015) suggested this balancing act requires that U.S. organizations hire leaders who protect society and employees from unethical business practices. Cascio (2014)

encouraged organizations to prioritize hiring leaders who can balance demands for socially responsible behaviors, efficient organizational high performance, and fair, safe, work-practices. Parris and Peachey (2013) showed that servant leaders balance modern work demands better than nonservant leaders. The term *servant leaders* refers to leaders who serve their followers (i.e., employees, mentees) through team-building, decision-sharing, long-term visioning, and ethical modeling (Parris & Peachey, 2013; Wong & Page, 2007). The term *nonservant leaders* refers to all other styles of leaders (Hammermeister, 2014).

Servant and nonservant leaders differ in how they relate to and work with their followers (Wong & Page, 2007). Hammermeister (2014) found that servant leader coaches inspired students to display more intrinsic motivation than students with nonservant leader coaches (p. 66). Furrow (2015) showed that teachers working for servant leader administrators were more likely to be servant leaders, than those working for nonservant leader administrators (p. 73). However, Panaccio, Donia, Saint-Michel, and Liden (2015) found that servant leaders experienced greater role overload due to their higher-level relationships with their followers than nonservant leaders (p. 349). Parris and Peachey (2013) called upon HRM researchers to study the servant leadership (SL) style, to better delineate it from other leadership styles, because SL "can perhaps provide the ethical grounding and leadership framework needed to help address the challenges of the twenty-first century" (p. 391).

Organizations need to make finding balanced leaders a higher priority (Cascio, 2014). However, more research is needed on the connection of leadership styles' to HPWPs and CSP use (Jensen et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2014). I designed my study to

provide quantitative data about the prevalence of servant leaders in the U.S. business management population, and how different leaders use HPWPs and CSP.

In Chapter 1, I define HPWPs, CSP, and SL, explain the business problem and research gaps in more detail, describe the purpose and nature of my quantitative study, identify the research questions and hypotheses, and explain why I conducted this research. My study has positive social implications. Its dissemination will provide other researchers ideas for furthering the findings of this research, potentially increasing knowledge about the theories of SL and CSP, while promoting the HPWPs' framework. It may also provide recruiters with ideas for ways to find better leaders.

Background of the Study

Parris and Peachey (2013, p. 378) and Cascio (2014) stated that current corporate leaders are unable to balance the varied needs of modern organizational stakeholders. Researchers believe that servant leaders are less likely to create business scandals than other leader types, but that businesses need a better understanding of servant leaders' skills (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Zhang et al. (2014) highlighted how CSP and HPWPs can increase employee anxiety or create disengagement if used incorrectly. Datta and Basuil (2015) cited statistics showing that during the last decade, CEO pay has never been higher while an unprecedented loss of 59,000,000 jobs occurred. They surmised that modern leaders have no vision for their workers (p. 198).

This massive downsizing resulted in businesses that returned to more simplified, core business models, therefore reducing support of CSP activities (Bansal, Jiang, & Jung, 2015). Some organizations heeded the calls for higher employee CSP outputs by increasing the workload for their remaining, overwhelmed employees (Salicru &

Chelliah, 2014; Van de Voorde et al., 2012). HRM experts believe the 2016 U.S. Department of Labor salaried worker regulations will lead to more downsizing, reorganizations, and job description realignments (Sherk, 2015). Research regarding HPWPs (i.e., flexible schedules, overtime arrangements, promotions, or job analysis) and CSP activities will become even more critical to finding workplace solutions for the increased worker stress and anxiety; leaders who consider how work practices affect their workers may assist with controlling these stress levels.

Servant Leadership

A misperception exists that servant leaders are meek and unable to meet the needs of the current business climate (Page & Wong, 2013). Parris and Peachey (2013) asked researchers to help refute this view of servant leaders, because SL is a positive, employee-centered, community-focused, service-oriented, and ethical management method (Redeker et al., 2014, p. 437). SL includes mentoring and coaching followers, modeling ethical and work performance skills, encouraging workers to give back to their communities, and finding ways to contribute to a better society (Hunter et al., 2013, p. 318). According to quantitative research studies, servant leaders create higher organizational performance outcomes than nonservant leaders (Ozyilmaz & Cicek, 2015; Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012), and act ethically (Parris & Peachey, 2013, p. 378). Servant leaders use long-term vision to build communities within and outside their organizations, while also focusing on employee development through empowerment (Greenleaf, 2002; Hunter et al., 2013; Mittal & Dorfman, 2012; Page & Wong, 2013; Parris & Peachey, 2013; Spears, 2010). Dennis and Winston (2003) found that leaders

who exhibited characteristics of employee empowerment, service to followers, and long-term vision were most likely to be servant leaders.

Ozyilmaz and Cicek (2015) recommended servant leaders as role models for employees, and stated that servant leaders balance productive work practices and CSP better than other leader types, because these behaviors come naturally to them. Page and Wong (2013) stated that servant leaders humanely implement difficult business decisions. Peterson et al. (2012) provided quantitative evidence showing that high performance organizations (HPOs) led by servant leaders had higher financial performance (i.e., return on assets) than those without servant leaders. They recommended that future researchers replace their study's financial performance variable with one tied to social responsibility (p. 588), which my study did. Liden, Wayne, Liao, and Meuser (2014) empirically tied SL to CSP usage and to increased firm performance (pp. 1435, 1446). Among leadership styles, only SL contains social responsibility within its definition and expected outcomes (Christensen, Mackey, & Whetten, 2014, p. 173). As a result, a study on SL, by definition, has the potential to lead to positive social change.

Corporate Social Performance

Intense debate and research began with Carroll's (1979) creation of the CSP model, which he created by removing financial performance from corporate social responsibility (CSR) theory. Wood's (1991) update to that model explained that CSP is the *voluntary* response and output by business leaders to their responsibility to society. Recently, Shahzad and Sharfman (2015) found that CSP can be tied to higher financial performance in organizations, even without including financial performance in the CSP variable. Christensen et al. (2014) said that ISO 26000, CSR's recent international

certification (p. 164), has significantly increased the demands for CSP, specifically in areas of diversity, worker treatments, and environmental protections. Van de Voorde et al. (2012) showed, however, that leaders who overwhelm their workers with CSP requirements can create stress and lowered performance. Businesses, therefore, need leaders who can ask employees for CSP outputs without increasing their stress levels.

High Performance Work Practices

In their meta-analysis, Combs, Liu, Hall, and Ketchen (2006) concluded that HPWPs have a significant effect on firm performance. HPWPs include fair, safety-conscious, and employee-focused work practices such as pay-for-performance, training, performance management and appraisal, use of personality and ability tests, inclusive decision-making, contingent- and skill-based rewards, flexwork, and family-friendly and work-life balance policies. Combs et al. explained that an additive nature of productivity exists when work practices are properly bundled together. They called these bundles high performance work systems (HPWSs), and stated more research about the practices was needed.

Research by Combs et al. (2006) led to a quest by HRM researchers to learn more about how HPWSs work (Jensen et al., 2013). Jensen, Patel, and Messersmith (2011) created an HPWSs quantitative instrument to study the role HPWPs play in employee anxiety levels, finding a significant correlation existed (Jensen et al., 2013). Shin and Konrad (2014) called for research on whether HPWSs usage depends on leadership type. Posthuma, Campion, Masimova, and Campion (2014) expressed frustration that very little clarity on HPWPs' effects on performance had improved over eight years, and called upon HRM researchers to compare and report the use of HPWPs by different

organizations, industries, or locations, to better understand how HPWPs are bundled. While HPWPs are a significant part of the HRM foundations of practice, the framework remains misunderstood, and therefore, research may assist in its eventual escalation to theory.

The Gaps in Research

The majority of SL researchers discuss theory, review instruments, or correlate SL factors to other outcomes, but whether servant leaders are being hired, or exist with any frequency in business management has been virtually unreported. This is a gap in descriptive statistical reporting within the SL literature, which Cumming (2014) mentioned as a problem in all quantitative research. Parris and Peachey (2013) expressed frustration that more studies need to explore how servant leaders manage differently than nonservant leaders. Zhang et al. (2014) combined HPWSs and CSP into a study that found some concerning indications about how these two concepts work together: whether organizations had higher or lower employee engagement depended on the levels and ways in which HPWPs and CSP were used. Zhang et al. noted that future researchers should investigate whether particular leadership styles could mediate HPWSs and CSP use better than others could (p. 431).

My research combined SL and CSP theories, with the HPWPs' framework, into a quantitative study. This combination responded to requests for research using theories of SL and CSP (Christensen et al., 2014), and leadership style, CSP, and HPWPs (Zhang et al., 2014). I sought to meet the business need stated by Cascio (2014), by determining how servant leaders use employee work practices, or contribute to social performance. My study was designed to provide a clearer understanding about servant leaders' and

nonservant leaders' usage of CSP and HPWPs, measure how many servant leaders exist in the U.S. business population, explain how servant leaders manage employees differently than nonservant leaders, provide suggestions for questions recruiters can ask to identify servant leaders, and elevate perceptions of the SL style.

Problem Statement

Companies with high CSP have more engaged employees, attract better job applicants, and increase organizational value (Tizro, Khaksar, & Siavooshi, 2015). Using HPWPs properly increases firm performance (Combs et al., 2006). Servant leaders encourage CSP (Parris & Peachey, 2013), and contribute to high performance (Ozyilmaz & Cicek, 2015; Peterson et al., 2012), but I found no study which measured how servant leaders use HPWPs. I designed this study to determine whether servant leaders could help reduce the business management problem of worker stress, disengagement, and anxiety, caused by the overuse of HPWPs or CSP. I wanted to extend previous studies by Jensen et al. (2013), Van de Voorde et al. (2012), and especially Zhang et al. (2014). Zhang et al. (2014) specifically iterated this study's research problem about whether specific leadership styles, such as SL, affect HPWPs and CSP usage (Zhang et al, 2014, p. 431).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of my quantitative, nonexperimental, survey study was to question U.S. business leaders in a SurveyMonkey panel about their leadership qualities, and their use of HPWPs, and of CSP, to determine if a relationship existed between leadership style and HPWPs and CSP usage. I divided the participants into servant and nonservant leaders, and I used inferential statistical analysis to answer four research questions concerning servant and nonservant leaders' usage of HPWSs and CSP, and two research

questions regarding how leaders' ratings on the characteristics of empowerment, service, and vision could predict their usage of HPWSs and CSP. I designed the study to create inferences from collected data that could answer those questions, guide future SL-, CSP-, or HPWSs-related studies, and provide insights into how certain leaders use HPWPs and CSP. A business need exists to find more balanced, ethical, community-focused leaders (Cascio, 2014), such as servant leaders (Parris & Peachey, 2013). A clearer understanding of whether leadership styles affect work practices may lead to positive social change in the workplaces for millions of workers.

Variables of the Study

The research included two separate analysis plans, comprised of six different variables, which operationalized the SL and CSP theories and HPWPs framework. The two analysis plans are represented throughout my study as Plan A and Plan B. Plan B was an alternative plan which was only to be included if the results of Plan A were not significant. Tables 1 and 2 show the six variables of my study, the tests in which they operated, and the role they played in each analysis for Plans A and B respectively.

Table 1

Study Variables for Analysis Plan A

Variable name	**Variable**	**Type**	**Value**	***t* test**	**Logistic regression**
SL	*SVL*	Dichotomous	0,1	Independent	Dependent
CSP use	*C*	Continuous	1—5	Dependent	Independent
HPWPs use	*H*	Continuous	0—100%	Dependent	Independent

Table 2

Study Variables for Analysis Plan B

Variable name	Variable	Type	Value	Multiple regression
CSP use	*C*	Continuous	1—5	Dependent
HPWPs use	*H*	Continuous	0—100%	Dependent
Empowerment	*E*	Continuous	1—7	Independent
Vision	*V*	Continuous	1—7	Independent
Service	*S*	Continuous	1—7	Independent

Rationale for Including Plans A and B

Plan A assumed that enough servant and nonservant leaders (each) would exist to conduct *t* tests and a logistic regression with useful results. Gaps in the SL literature raised my concern that statistical power could be limited by a study population containing very few (or no) servant leaders (called a *rare event* bias). Thus, Plan B provided for the occurrence of a rare event bias, by using three underlying dimensions measured by the SLI: empowering workers, service-orientation, and long-term vision. If the ratio between servant and nonservant leaders was significantly disproportionate, the analysis plan was to include both Plans A and B.

Plan A Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1A

What is the ratio of servant leaders to nonservant leaders in the U.S. management population?

Hypothesis 1A

$\mathbf{H_{A10}}$: $N_1 = N_2$. The ratio of servant leaders to nonservant leaders in the U.S. management population is equal, or 1:1.

H_{A1a}: $N_1 \neq N_2$. The ratio of servant leaders to nonservant leaders in the U.S. management population is unequal, or not 1:1.

I divided the servant and nonservant leaders by using the SLI key code algorithm. I used a one-sample chi-square goodness of fit test to evaluate the hypothesis and to explain the sampled ratio to the hypothesized ratio.

Research Question 2A

How does the use of HPWPs by servant leaders compare to the use of HPWPs by nonservant leaders in the U.S. management population?

Hypothesis 2A

H_{A20}: $\mu_{H1} = \mu_{H2}$. The use of HPWPs by servant leaders is equal to that of nonservant leaders, where μ_{H1} represents the mean index of HPWPs use by servant leaders (the mean of *H*), and μ_{H2} represents the mean index of HPWPs use by nonservant leaders (the mean of *H*).

H_{A2a}: $\mu_{H1} \neq \mu_{H2}$. The use of HPWPs by servant leaders is not equal to that of nonservant leaders.

The hypothesis was evaluated using a *t* test, comparing the mean of *H* from each of two groups (servant leaders and nonservant leaders) to determine if a difference existed.

Research Question 3A

How does the use of CSP by servant leaders compare to the use of CSP by nonservant leaders in the U.S. management population?

Hypothesis 3A

H_{A30}: $\mu_{C1} = \mu_{C2}$. The use of CSP by servant leaders is equal to that of nonservant leaders, where μ_{C1} represents the mean index of CSP use by servant leaders (the mean of *C*), and μ_{C2} represents the mean index of CSP use by nonservant leaders (the mean of *C*).

H_{A3a}: $\mu_{C1} \neq \mu_{C2}$. The use of CSP by servant leaders is not equal to that of nonservant leaders.

The hypothesis was evaluated using a *t* test, by comparing the mean of *C* from each of two groups (servant leaders and nonservant leaders). The *t* test compared the mean of *C* for the two groups (servant leader and nonservant leader), to determine if a difference existed.

Research Question 4A

How strongly can a U.S. leader's use of CSP or HPWPs predict whether the manager is or is not a servant leader?

Hypothesis 4A

H_{A40}: $\beta_C = \beta_H = 0$. The usage of CSP and HPWPs by a leader will not predict whether the leader is a servant or nonservant leader.

H_{A4a}: $\beta_C \neq 0$ and/or $\beta_H \neq 0$. The usage of CSP and/or HPWPs by a leader will predict whether the leader is a servant or nonservant leader.

The predicted relationship was analyzed using a logistic regression equation, where β_i is the *i*th coefficient in the standardized form of the logistic regression equation to answer the research question. The model used was the following:

$$P_{SVL} = 1/(1+ e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_C + \beta_H)}$$

Logistic regression is a nonparametric technique, and "does not require any particular distributional assumptions" (Osborne, 2015, p. 10), although it requires a "reliable measurement of variables" (p. 14). Logistic regression requires a dichotomous dependent variable (*SVL* in my study), and continuous independent variables (*H* and *C* in my study).

Plan B Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research questions for Plan B include the variables stated in Table 2, including *E* (empowerment), *V* (vision), *S* (service), *C* (CSP usage), and *H* (HPWPs usage).

Research Question 1B

How well do a leader's scores on *E, V,* or *S* predict that leader's *C?*

Hypothesis 1B

$\mathbf{H_{B10}}$. $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$. A leader's scores on *E, V,* and *S* do not predict a leader's *C.*

$\mathbf{H_{B1a}}$. β_1 *or* β_2 *or* $\beta_3 \neq 0$ At least one of a leader's scores on *E, V,* or *S* predicts a leader's *C.*

Research Question 2B

How well do a leader's scores on *E, V,* or *S* predict a leader's *H*?

Hypothesis 2B

$\mathbf{H_{B20}}$. $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$. A leader's scores on *E, V,* and *S* do not predict that leader's *H.*

$\mathbf{H_{B2a}}$. β_1 or β_2 or $\beta_3 \neq 0$ At least one of a leader's scores on *E, V,* or *S* predicts that leader's *H.*

Plan B utilized multiple regression analysis to determine how the variations in (*C* and *H*), the dependent variables, were explained by (*E, V,* or *S*), the independent variables (Laerd, 2015, “multiple regression”). Garson (2014) provided the main effects multiple regression equation as

$$Y = {}_1(x_1) + {}_2(x_2) + {}_2(x_3) + c + e.$$

The models used to respond to these research questions were

$$C = \beta_0 + \beta_1(E) + \beta_2(V) + \beta_3(S) + e, \text{ and}$$

$$H = \beta_0 + \beta_1(E) + \beta_2(V) + \beta_3(S) + e.$$

Summary of Hypotheses

Chapter 3 explains the specific analysis process, theory, and steps used to compute the results of my study, provided in Chapter 4. (See Figure 1, a diagrammatic summary of my study’s hypotheses).

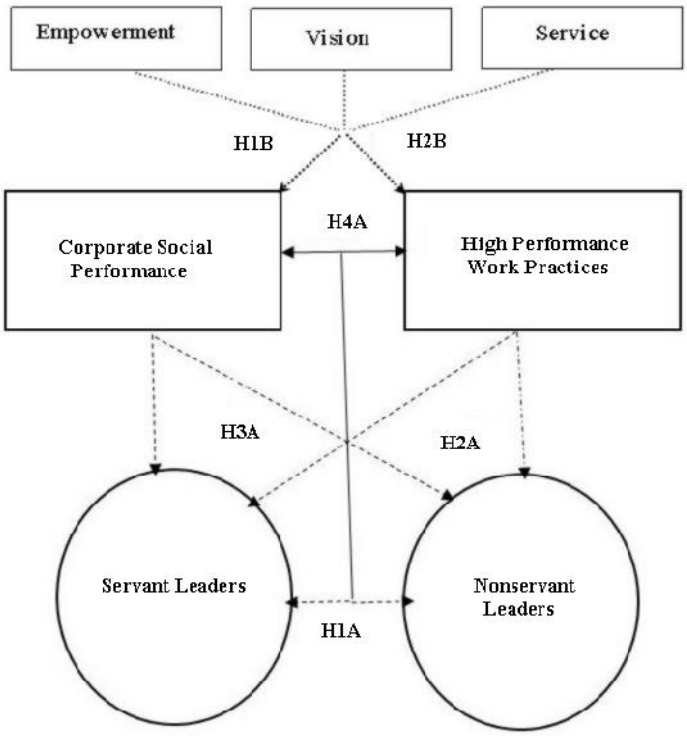

Figure 1. Model of hypothesized interactions among CSP, HPWPs, and SL, and the underlying dimensions of SL.

Theoretical Foundation and Conceptual Framework

SL and CSP theories and the HPWPs framework guided this study. Figure 1 showed how the hypotheses and theories interrelate. Studies of the theory of SL and the leadership style of SL (Focht & Ponton, 2015; Greenleaf, 2002) contribute to both scholarly and business literature. Recent studies of SL include examining how servant leaders operate in businesses (de Waal & Sivro, 2012; Reed, 2015), and creating ways to quantitatively operationalize SL (Page & Wong, 2013; Reed, Vidaver-Cohen, & Colwell, 2011; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011, Winston & Fields, 2015). Parris and Peachey (2013) and Winston and Fields (2015) claimed that the specific leadership qualities exhibited by servant leaders remain vague, confusing, and unclear. Winston's previous

work with Dennis (2003) found through factor analysis that the SL factors of empowerment, service, and vision were paramount to the SL style.

CSP theory suggests that organizations that voluntarily provide positive contributions to their community or society will, in the long term, be more sustainable and profitable (Carroll, 1979; Wood, 1991). CSP theory differs from CSR theory by its focus on the behavioral versus financial measures of organizational performance (Zhang et al., 2014, p. 426). Corporations have a social responsibility to consider the interests of not just their shareholders, but also the "government, trade unions, communities, suppliers, customers, and employees" (p. 425). CSP theory informs studies about fair treatment and respect of workers, ethical business behaviors, labor and overtime law practices, sustainability of organizations, charitable donations, community activities, and OSHA protections (p. 432). By using CSP theory instead of CSR theory, I was able to preserve the anonymity of the surveyed individuals, by avoiding the need to review their organizations' financial performances. Chapter 2 contains reviews of scholarly literature that studied, examined, analyzed, and furthered the theories of SL and CSP.

Jensen et al. (2013), Posthuma et al. (2013), and Zhang et al. (2014) provided guidance to researchers for using HPWPs as the basis for research of its framework. The HPWPs framework explains performance differentiation in organizations through specific and varying uses of work practices such as pay for performance, internal promotions, job security, career planning, performance management, and performance appraisal (Posthuma et al., 2013). Research on the framework is in progress, and it is not considered a theory. Therefore, studies testing the framework could elevate the framework to theory (Combs et al., 2006; Jensen et al., 2013; Posthuma et al., 2013;

Zhang et al., 2014). The creation of a robust quantitative instrument by Jensen et al. (2011) has allowed for quantitative analysis of the framework. The information pulled from the participants in my study provided new and relevant information about how current business managers use HPWPs and CSP, which has provided statistical data regarding these theories, and insights into how different leaders support their workers.

Nature of the Study

My study used a nonexperimental, quantitative, survey method approach. Answers to the research questions required the use of quantitative data, which corresponded to the empirical data requested from previous research in the areas (Jensen et al., 2013; Mulawarman, Nurfitri, & Kusuma, 2015; Peterson et al., 2012; Posthuma et al., 2013; Wong, 2013; Zhang et al., 2014). I collected the data from a panel of business leaders and managers in U.S. organizations, using a systematic randomized selection process created through an algorithm by SurveyMonkey panel survey methods. Three combined instruments made up the survey, which allowed me to statistically divide the respondents between servant and nonservant leaders, and then correlate the independent variable of *SVL* to the dependent variables of *H* and *C* in order to determine if a relationship exists. Using logistic regression, I tested a model to gauge whether SL can be predicted by the amount of CSP and HPWPs use reported by a given leader; using multiple regression analysis, I tested a set of models to determine whether leaders' scores on empowering employees, long-term vision, or service to others could predict their HPWPs or CSP usage.

Definitions

I used the following terms in my study, with these meanings:

Corporate social performance (CSP): "The extent to which businesses meet the legal, ethical, and discretionary responsibilities imposed on them by their stakeholders" (Zhang et al., 2014, p. 425). Stakeholders include owners, shareholders, employees, community, and society. Financial performance is specifically not part of this definition (Wood, 1991; Zhang et al., 2014). Zhang et al. operationalized CSP with a 9-question instrument, which they named the Social Performance Scale (SPSI).

Corporate social responsibility (CSR): A philosophy whereby organizations undertake to perform in ways increasing their reputations, long-term profit and performance, minimizing the need for laws and regulations to force proper behaviors, emphasizing "ethics, safety, education, and human rights" (Tizro et al., 2015, p. 541), and including social and financial performance (Zhang et al., 2014).

Empowerment: Servant leaders are those who, along with other factors, empower their employees through shared decision-making, development processes, and team building (Dennis & Winston, 2003; Wong & Page, 2007). In a factor analysis of the SLI, Dennis and Winston found that empowerment was the highest ranked dimension of servant leaders.

High performance organizations (HPOs): Organizations that have found successful ways to combine leadership strategies and HPWPs to become high performing (Florea, Cheung, & Herndon, 2013).

High performance work practices (HPWPs): The framework of practices used by companies to engage and motivate employees, believed by HRM researchers and practitioners to be combinations of compensation and benefits, job and work design, job analysis, training and development, recruiting and selection, job security through

employee relations, communication, performance management and appraisal, promotions, and career planning (Combs et al., 2006; Jensen et al., 2013; Posthuma et al. 2013).

High performance work systems (HPWSs): Work systems that use a combination of bundled HPWPs in specific ways, where feedback from the organization to leadership creates a loop, which then causes leaders to reconsider which of the HPWPs are used, creating a constant, updated, learning organization, increasing its performance (Zhang et al., 2014). Jensen et al. (2011) operationalized HPWSs with a 21-question instrument they named the Department-Level Measure of High-Performance Work Systems (HPWSI), described in Chapter 3.

Servant leader: A person who exhibits traits of servanthood, leadership, vision, empowerment, team building, shared decisions, and integrity, while eschewing traits of abusing power, high pride, and narcissism (Wong & Page, 2013; Wong, 2015, personal communication). They are follower-focused, altruistic, community-oriented, and ethical leaders (Parris & Peachey, 2013).

Servant leadership (SL): The leadership style of a servant leader (Greenleaf, 2002). The Wong and Page's Servant Leader Profile—Revised © 2007 (SLI) operationalized the style using a 62-question psychometric instrument, discussed in Chapter 3.

Service: This relates to the personality of servant leaders. Service to others means that a leader is willing to provide the tools needed to the employees, in order to therefore, empower the workers (Wong & Page, 2013). Dennis and Winston (2003) said service is

from the heart of the leader, and results in service to others "with integrity and commitment" (p. 456).

Vision: Considered a "functional attribute" of servant leaders (Dennis & Winston, 2003, p. 455), this includes "strategic vision," as well as long-term vision that "animates, inspirits, and transforms purpose into action" (p. 455). Laub (1999) explained that servant leaders use shared vision by modeling service actions, therefore empowering employees, and leading to employee service behaviors.

Assumptions

Assumptions in positivistic, inferential, quantitative research projects provide a frame of reference for the generalizability of the results of the research (Tsang, 2014, p. 175). The falsity of assumptions could lead future researchers to generalize the findings inappropriately (p. 179). I assumed the following:

- Participants would review all of the questions and then answer them truthfully. This survey design included some reverse coded questions to slow down respondents, or alternatively, to discern those who may have hurried through answering the questions (Kazai, Kamps, & Milic-Frayling, 2013, p. 143).
- SurveyMonkey's panel included the participant types as specified in the purchase order, and they were treated and selected ethically and appropriately.
- Previous findings of instrument reliability were valid and accurately computed.

I nevertheless analyzed and reported the reliability findings from my study's data using Cronbach's α analysis.

Scope and Delimitations

My study population included U.S. business leaders, with one or more employees, over the age of 18. Delimitations of a study include the demographic choices of the population members not selected for my study (Newman, Hitchcock, & Newman, 2015). I delimited as follows:

- All but U.S. leaders, to keep costs in line, and to avoid unnecessary noise in the survey results. This may have resulted in cultural restrictions.
- Respondents unwilling to answer 100 questions.

Limitations

Limitations included the potential impact of SurveyMonkey donating 50-cents to the charity of choice, or, the payment of Swagbucks (noncash points similar to bitcoins) for every panelist who completed a survey. This may have biased my study towards more CSP-oriented participants (who requested charitable payments) or, toward less CSP-oriented participants (who requested Swagbucks). The anonymous selection process means that I am unaware of which participants requested charitable donations or received Swagbucks, but this should be seen as a potential limit to future replicability using different respondents.

The SLI presented a methodological limitation. It converts 62 questions, scored on a 1–7 Likert scale, to a categorical, binary variable. Osborne (2015) stated that while this results in a cleaner and simpler method of analysis through logistic regression, the underlying data can also provide a wealth of information that could, through deeper analysis, provide more granular answers to critical research questions (pp. 141-142). The SLI proved itself valid and reliable in previous studies (Whorton, 2014), and it was the

only leader-focused SL instrument available which did not rely on follower data. The analysis Plan B, however, dug deeper into the instrument, overcoming this limitation.

Significance of the Study

I intended for this study to compare, empirically, whether servant leaders use HPWPs and CSP in significantly different ways to nonservant leaders to provide new data and information to fill gaps in SL and CSP theories, and in the HPWP framework. These data could create positive social change if used by HRM recruiters to find servant leaders to lead change.

Significance to Theory

My study contributes to scholarly, empirical understanding of whether leadership style affects the use of HPWPs or CSP by a leader. Posthuma et al. (2013) and Messersmith, Patel, Lepak, and Gould-Williams (2011) noted gaps in scholarly understanding of HPWPs use, calling HPWPs the *black box* of HRM researchers; Zhang et al. (2014) and Jensen et al. (2013) found a gap exists in knowing how particular leader styles affect use of HPWPs and CSP. Discerning an ethical leader from an unethical leader is not always easy (Demirtas, 2015), but Reed (2015) discovered that servant leaders' existence was significant in high performing, U.S. 9-1-1 emergency communications centers (p. 87); Melchar and Bosco (2010) found that SL prevailed in the high performing luxury automobile industry by developing a culture of servant leader followers; and de Waal and Sivro (2012) extended the Melchar and Bosco study to the HPO framework in a university medical center, but found no specific organizational performance connection. Before this study, no published research study examined the

HPWPs framework with CSP and SL theories. I combined CSP and SL theories, with the HPWPs framework, to lead to increased understanding of how these theories interact.

Significance to Practice

Begum, Zehou, and Sarker (2014) studied banks that used focused recruitment processes to hire persons with a willingness to provide "voluntary extra role behaviors" (p. 147), finding they had a competitive advantage over other recruiting methods. These researchers had expanded upon Zhang et al.'s (2014) research which considered whether HPWPs and CSP (specifically relationships and trust), were moderated by these extra-role behaviors. Arthur, Herdman, and Yang (2014) tested a model that top management values could predict HPWSs use; they found a correlation between executive managers' belief in the employee-centric values of human resource (HR) departments, and executives' "willingness and ability to successfully adopt and implement an HPWS" (p. 16).

In my study, I examined whether servant leaders use CSP and HPWPs differently than nonservant leaders, hoping that it could lead to new leadership recruitment methods as a competitive advantage. Although psychometric instruments provide ways to review potential new hires' personalities, my study was designed to lead to a tool that can review past behaviors of an individual to assist with determining whether that individual might be a servant leader. I knew that the results of my study may show no connection to leadership style with the use of CSP or HPWPs. This finding would encourage future researchers to look for different ways that servant leaders differentiate themselves from nonservant leaders. My study took a snapshot, survey view of the current state of the use

of HPWPs and CSP as perceived by U.S. organizational leaders, and determined the relationship among them.

Significance to Positive Social Change

Unethical business leaders' behaviors have led to consequences such as the Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002 (SOX), imposing stricter ethical rules on leaders in U.S. public companies, Australia's proposed law allowing stockholders to limit, or vote on executive pay (Azim & Ahmmod, 2014), and the U.S. Dodd-Frank Wall Street Reform and Consumer Protection Act of 2010, requiring companies to submit executive pay packages for shareholder proxy votes, every three years. The federal appeals court subsequently rendered this section of Dodd-Frank meaningless by refusing to permit shareholder lawsuits when executive teams ignored their votes (*Dennis v. Hart*, 2013). Subsequently, U.S. company leaders disregarded shareholder majority say-on-pay disapproval votes, refused to lower their own pay, and responded to such votes by increasing dividends, executive pay, and corporate investments (Brunarski, Campbell, & Harman, 2015). Examples such as these demonstrate that the recession has not resolved ethical and self-centered behaviors by corporate leaders. Mishel and Davis (2014) stated that organizations need leaders who care about their communities, provide shareholder returns, contribute to social performance, and support workers. Hiring more servant leaders can lead to positive social change, including improved worker support, higher engagement, and increased employee well-being.

Summary and Transition

I found no scholarly study that examined SL style, HPWPs, and CSP together. I designed my study to take the pulse of U.S. business leaders to address a business

management problem that organizations need leaders who can balance HPWPs and CSP, without overwhelming their workers. Knowledge and research gaps exist regarding operational aspects of servant leaders' behaviors. By examining whether servant and nonservant leaders used HPWPs or CSP differently, I hoped to assist HRM researchers in future HPWP, CSP, or SL studies, and HRM recruiters looking to hire servant leaders. I wanted to help job recruiters identify potential servant leaders. The business need, the scholarly research gap, the HPWPs framework, and the SL and CSP theories guided this project. Chapter 2 examines the SL, CSP, and HPWSs literature.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Global business ethical scandals created a "growing perception that corporate leaders have become selfish" (Parris & Peachey, 2013, p. 378). This perception has led to a business and scholarly need to research leadership styles, such as servant leadership. Employees and society need leaders who use work practices that protect safety, health, and economic fairness (Cascio, 2014). Servant leaders exhibit values, altruism, credibility, character, community involvement, and ethical motives (Greenleaf, 2002; Page & Wong, 2013; Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). HRM considers the work practices of highly performing organizations a black box needing further research (Messersmith et al., 2011). Despite empirical compilations of HPWPs (Combs et al., 2006; Posthuma et al., 2013), questions remain as to how leaders utilize HPWPs (Shin & Konrad, 2014). Some of these questions include whether certain types of leaders use HPWPs differently than other types (Zhang et al., 2014); researchers have suggested that improperly used HPWPs can harm employees, such as poorly conducted performance appraisals (Aguinis, Gottfredson, & Joo, 2012), or HPWPs combined with unreasonable expectations (Van de Voorde et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2014).

One type of firm performance that business, community, and HRM leaders have become interested in understanding better is social performance. CSP is considered a possible outcome from servant leaders' choice of practices because servant leaders have a community focus (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Zhang et al. (2014) studied businesses' simultaneous use of CSP and HPWPs. They posited that company leaders who care enough to implement work practices designed to improve worker performance would also recognize the utility of CSP, but the researchers found that combining the two

practices, sometimes negatively affected employee engagement. Zhang et al. suggested future research of leadership styles in conjunction with the use of HPWPs and CSP.

Parris and Peachey (2013) explained that servant leaders model ethical behaviors, focus on the well-being and support of their employees, and strengthen organizational and employee alignment. SL originated in Christian organizations (Xu, Stewart, & Haber-Curran, 2015, p. 203), but in the past decade, researchers and practitioners repurposed SL in secular organizations (Leem, 2015; McCann, Graves, & Cox, 2014, Xu et al., 2015). Organizational leadership experts such as Denisi and Smith (2014) have called for more research about servant leaders' behaviors.

In Chapter 2, I review and analyze seminal and current studies of SL and CSP theories, and the HPWPs' framework. In doing so, I explain why I connected the HPWPs framework with CSP and SL theories, in this research study.

Literature Search Strategy

I researched the literature using the following databases found in the Walden University Library: Ebsco, ProQuest, PsycTESTS, PsycARTICLES, Taylor and Francis, Sage, and Lexis-Nexis Academic. I linked representative key words searched between Google Scholar and the Walden University Library. I used searches including key words such as CSP, CSR, SL, transformational leadership, authentic leadership, HPWPs, HPWSs, HPOs, performance management and appraisal, ethical leadership, engagement, small business, and entrepreneurship. I used the "2011, 2014, 2015, and 2016" parameters in Google Scholar to assist in delimiting the results to articles published within the past 5 years, and I used the interactive methods in Google Scholar (i.e., articles cited by, alert settings by email) to update the results.

I searched for peer-reviewed, refereed articles. Each week, I updated my searches, and perused the latest editions of key journals, including *Journal of Business Ethics, International Human Resource Management, Personnel Management,* and the *Journal of Management.* I followed up on Google Scholar email alerts when new scholarship on these topics was published, set reminders for when new articles became available in the Walden Library, and used the Walden Library interlibrary loan service to gain access to difficult to find articles.

During the past 18 months, I have corresponded by phone and email with Drs. Herman Aguinis and Richard Posthuma, both of whom are recognized scholarly experts in the field of Performance Management and HPWPs, and I received updates from them on their continuing research in the field of high performance and performance management. I corresponded by email with Dr. Paul Wong, and by phone and email with Sheila Bailey, his former assistant at Trinity University, regarding the SLI. I emailed with Dr. Jacyln Jensen regarding the HPWSI, and Dr. Mike Zhang, regarding the SPSI.

Conceptual Framework and Theoretical Foundation

I examined the theories of SL and CSP, and the conceptual framework of HPWPs in my study. SL includes, as a defining quality, the use of social responsibility through community building (Reid, West, Winston, & Wood, 2015, p. 20). Thus, if current SL theory holds true, then servant leaders should be more likely to engage in CSP than nonservant leaders. Similarly, researchers have highlighted CSP as one of the HPWPs (Zhang et al., 2014). Servant leaders engage in specific practices shown to support employee productivity and behaviors (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Therefore, a potential connection between SLs and HPWPs exists. I divided the literature review into two

sections (seminal and current), with each section consisting of three subsections. In these subsections, I aligned the theories of SL and CSP with the HPWPs framework.

The seminal section addresses early and evolutionary aspects of the concepts and theories. It introduces the ideas, and it cites pivotal research studies contributing to concept definitions and construct debates. The seminal literature set the stage for the current literature, which focuses on recent empirical studies using one or more of the three studied variables. I selected seminal literature that Google Scholar "cited by" statistics supported their importance to theory creation. For some of the articles, I have provided the frequency statistic to highlight the popularity of the article.

Review of Seminal Literature

SL Theory

Most SL researchers attribute the beginning of the SL theory literature to Robert Greenleaf in 1970 (Reid et al., 2015). Parris and Peachey's (2013) meta-analysis of SL literature analyzed all published scholarly works about SL, finding that the top three named servant leader researchers were Robert Greenleaf, Larry Spears, and Jim Laub. Parris and Peachey stated they found no empirical works by Greenleaf, Spears, or Laub (except Laub's dissertation); I also have not. Nevertheless, due to these authors' work in publicizing the importance of SL, they appear in this seminal discussion of servant literature. I cite their work, and in very limited instances, others who cite their work.

Robert Greenleaf. Greenleaf's work publishing and explaining the goals and benefits of SL culminated in his creation of the Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership (Parris & Peachey, 2013), now housed in Atlanta, Georgia. Greenleaf encouraged others to research the theory thoroughly (Parris & Peachey, 2013) and

explained that SL theory holds that servant leaders care more about their followers, or employees, than about themselves (Greenleaf, 2002, p. 27; Washington, Sutton, & Sauser, 2014). Servant leaders achieve this by eschewing personal power, ego, and status, in exchange for sharing power with their employees through authentic, altruistic (i.e., self-less and compassionate), community-focused leadership, and by developing their employees through modeling proper behaviors (Washington et al., p. 11). Greenleaf (2002) explained that his servant leader test was to determine whether a servant leader's followers "become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants" (p. 1). Thus, his test included understanding how those served by the leaders reacted to the role model provided by those leaders. For that reason, many subsequent researchers have focused on organizational culture. One example is Dr. Jim Laub who, in 1998, invented the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) instrument for his doctoral dissertation, which tests organizational culture for the presence of servant leader behaviors.

Larry Spears. Spears met Greenleaf while researching SL, was hired by Greenleaf to run the Greenleaf Center as CEO for 17 years (1990-2007), and eventually established his own center, the Spears Center for Servant-Leadership (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Much of his work has been done through speaking engagements to secular and spiritual audiences, as well as through 21 popular books and many essays (Spears, 2015). Spears' biggest accomplishments have been in providing exposure to the theory of SL among popular business experts such as Peter Senge and Steven Covey (Spears, 2015). Spears (2010) claimed that SL is a paradox, because it brings together two opposite concepts: servant and leader (p. 26). While introducing Greenleaf's collection of essays,

Spears explained that Greenleaf conceived of, pondered, and then institutionalized the concept of SL while working at AT&T for 40 years. He then founded the Greenleaf Servant Leadership Center, where he served for 25 more years (Greenleaf, 1998, p. 2). Spears characterized the approach of SL as being "a long-term, transformational approach to life and work . . . that has the potential for creating positive change throughout our society" (Greenleaf, p. 3).

Spears (2010) identified ten important servant leader characteristics: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization of long-term goals and visions, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community. These characteristics operationalize the servant literature research in various ways. Spears also convinced popular and well-respected business leaders, philosophers, and leaders to support research for SL, including James Autry, Warren Bennis, Peter Block, John Carver, Stephen Covey, Max DePree, Joseph Jaworski, James Kouzes, Larraine Matusak, Parker Palmer, M. Scott Peck, Peter Senge, Peter Vaill, Margaret Wheatley, and Danah Zohar (p. 26). Spears and his followers remain instructive to the SL scholarship process, and his center provides access to SL information. Spears is a professor for Gonzaga University's School of Professional Studies, and was appointed their inaugural SL scholar in 2010 (Spears, 2015).

Jim Laub. Dr. Laub was the third most frequently cited SL expert within the literature reviewed by Parris and Peachey (2013). Laub created, as his Educational Doctorate dissertation project, an instrument to assess whether an organization (not a person) utilizes the precepts of SL (Laub, 1999). He segued that instrument into a research business, OLA Group, which provides to servant leader researchers (mainly

doctoral and master level students), the use of his instrument, for a fee, and then provides a web-based location where all such dissertations and theses are published (OLA Group, 2015). His tool assists with measuring the SL culture in organizations. Van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) criticized Laub's instrument for lacking multidimensionality. Statistical attempts to validate its factors showed multicollinearity on each of the six clusters, "personal development, valuing people, building community, displaying authenticity, providing leadership, sharing leadership" (p. 250). Parris and Peachey (2013) found no other empirical research by Laub. Searches of the literature revealed no empirical works by Laub, although a Google Scholar search returned 311 articles discussing SL that cited Laub, since 2011. Yet, most researchers consider him of seminal importance to the theory.

Paul Wong. Dr. Paul Wong collaborated with two different researchers (Davey and Page) at different times to study SL and then create and test a leader focused psychometric instrument for delineating a person as servant, or nonservant leader. Page and Wong (2013) reported spending a number of years creating, testing, and refining an instrument to assist with identifying servant leaders. Along with the help of Dennis and Winston (2003), Wong and Page (2007) finalized the SLI, allowing hundreds of companies, multiple dissertations, and various research studies to use it for identifying servant from nonservant leaders (Greasley & Bocarnea, 2014, p. 15; Wong, personal communication, March 18, 2015).

A respected Canadian industrial psychologist, Wong focused on ethical leadership and behaviors, justifying his work on SL as "a radical approach" (Wong & Davey, 2007, p. 3), where servant leaders place the workers instead of the shareholders at the center of

importance. Wong and Davey explicitly disagreed with those who claimed servant leaders are weak, arguing that servant leaders make tough decisions, such as dismissing negative or disruptive employees (p. 5). Page and Wong (2013) explained that servant leaders in organizations avoid negative power and prideful decisions, while they set goals collaboratively with their employees, they empower, coach, listen to, and mentor their people, they use foresight through systems approaches, and through self- and environmental awareness, and they build community within and without their organization (pp. 15-16). Chapter 3 describes the analysis of the SLI, created by Wong and Page (2007), and used in my study to identify servant leaders.

Increased interest in SL. Recent studies have used quantitative methods to discern the similarities and differences between SL and other forms of leadership (Reid et al., 2015; Washington et al., 2014). Other lines of research include attempts at creating validated instrumentation to measure servant leaders (Van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011), validating existing instruments (Page & Wong, 2013), and theoretical conceptualizations of how servant leaders could improve businesses and society (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Since Parris and Peachey's (2013) call for research, studies have examined the SL theory's practical applications. Despite these studies, a new call to action was put forth by Brown and Bryant (2015) asking for more research "to advance SL, both as a field of academic study and as a management practice" (p. 10) and explaining that the most serious issue within SL scholarship is construct clarity (p. 11). My study attempted to clarify the social performance behaviors and employee related work practices of servant leaders, while advancing both practical and academic uses for the theory.

CSP Theory

Commonly, researchers use CSP theory's terminology interchangeably with CSR theory's terminology. Some studies differentiate between the two, and the differences include whether financial performance is included in the metrics. My research differentiated between CSP and CSR, focusing on CSP. However, the literature review examines overlaps in CSP/CSR terminology.

Archie Carroll. Most CSP researchers cite Carroll's 1979 CSP model as the beginning of CSP theory; he used CSR as its underlying definition (Mascena, Isabella, Fishmann, & Mazzon, 2015). Over 8,545 researchers have cited Carroll's (1979) CSP model and article (Google Scholar search, September 2016). It was listed as the 25th most often cited article published in the Academy of Management Review Journal, down from the 24th in December 2015, but up from 27th in October 2015 (http://amr.aom.org/reports/most-cited). The model was conceptual, and designed to counter Milton Friedman, who argued that social responsibility in a free society was subversive (p. 497). Carroll described CSP as having four branches of responsibility, creating a framework of economic, legal, ethical, and *discretionary* responsibilities, all of which combined to create "social responsibilities" (p. 501). The concept of social responsibility being voluntary was thus operationalized within his model.

Donna J. Wood. Wood (1991) revisited Carroll's (1979) CSP model to create a framework that integrated business and social responsibility research. Her research has exceeded her predecessor's importance level by being the 23rd most often cited article in the Academy of Management Review (September 2016, and December 2015). She emphasized the role that *performance* played in the terminology, as requiring outcomes

rather than process alone (p. 692). She distinguished CSP from CSR by explaining that companies engaging in CSR are positive proponents of socially responsible behaviors and goals, while *all* companies can and should be rated on their CSP, whether through their negative or positive performance (p. 693). Thus, Wood purported that while CSR is a positive component of a company's values or viewpoint on behavioral expectations, CSP is the outflow or measurement of those behaviors, whether purposeful or not.

Wood's (1991) viewpoint was a subtle, yet important movement from Carroll's (1979) performance model that expressed as essential the voluntariness of the behavior. Wood stated that those outflows are not financially measured, but instead, socially measured. She suggested that the evolution of CSP was encapsulated in three principles: corporate legitimacy, granted from society to businesses, public responsibility, obliging business to society; and managerial discretion, exercised by leaders to society (p. 696). Wood argued that CSP was the link between two broken concepts: social responsibility and the corporate response to that responsibility (see Figure 2). Since 1991, Google Scholar found more than 4,240 studies that have attempted to resolve and assist in explaining how Wood's CSP can bridge the gap between CSR and outcomes.

Wood (1991) proposed a triumvirate model showing the links among leaders, society, and businesses' responses to the need for social responsibility; the output from this model was CSP, she believed. I adapted Wood's theory (p. 696) into a diagram (Figure 2) to illustrate her stated model.

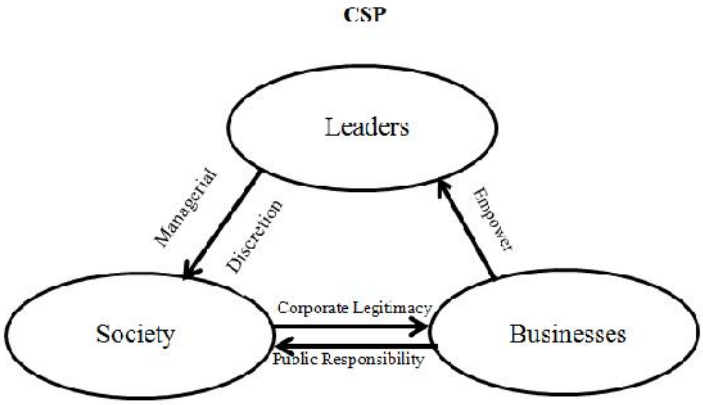

Figure 2. Wood's CSP Model.

Sustainability. Florea et al. (2013) explained that the goal to include sustainability as a factor in organizational outcomes initially contributed to the interest in CSP and CSR research, calling CSR the "third dimension of organizational sustainability" (p. 395). Their study claimed that the missing link between values and sustainability is the HR practices that help express the importance of CSP for an organization, especially in the areas of altruism, and a socially responsible culture. While sustainability is not a factor or focus of my study, much of the CSP literature includes it as a factor, tied to altruism and the performance output. Altruism and SL theory have close connections in their theoretical expressions, as do altruism and CSP.

Financial versus altruistic motives. Christensen et al. (2014) touched upon the connection between leadership style and CSP. They lent guidance to CSR/CSP definitions and its growing business prominence, while focusing on CSP's relationship to leadership styles. Their study questioned whether certain leader types (i.e., altruistic versus narcissistic) were more likely to engage in CSR/CSP. Their microanalysis explained that fuzzy definitions of CSR and CSP remain a significant hurdle to research

in the field. CSP definitions that include financial returns confuse issues, because selfish leaders may only care about the ultimate financial value to a social decision, whereas CSP definitions that exclude financial value, which Christensen et al. called *altruistic* CSR, may focus overly on leaders who reduce the value of the firm (p. 171).

Tying SL and CSR. Christensen et al. (2014) included SL in their review of multiple leadership styles related to the use of CSR, and stated that SL style was the only leadership style where "CSR is both foundational to the conceptual model and specified as an expected outcome of the model" (p. 173). Their definition of CSR explained it as an *organizational phenomenon* that shows concern for diversity, worker treatment, environmental, and social protections, while providing financial transparency.

Tying CSP and HPWPs. Zhang et al. (2014) studied firm CSP use, defined as when an organization considers its moral, ethical, and value-based obligations from a stakeholder, instead of shareholder perspective, whereby the needs and interests of "government, trade unions, communities, suppliers, customers, and employees" (p. 425) are considered before the financial interests of the shareholders. CSP definitively and specifically removes financial considerations from nonpractical obligations (i.e., responsibility), whereas CSR considers financial performance as part of the theory (p. 425). Zhang et al.'s (2014) definition comports with Wood's (1991) delineation of CSP from CSR. Zhang et al.'s study correlated CSP and HPWPs, but without looking at a leadership component.

HPWPs Framework

Increasingly, worker concerns have become a balancing act for HRM professionals. Ethical ramifications of worker treatment, pay fairness, and involuntary

unemployment as lasting effects of The Recession have become entrenched in the framework of HPWPs, requiring that mindful managers find ways to measure how practices affect production, worker motivation and engagement, and overall organizational performance. Youndt, Snell, Dean, and Lepak (1996) first raised the concept that HPWPs are bundled into packages. Combs et al. (2006) performed a meta-analysis that provided quantitative proof of this idea. HRM researchers suspect that different industries use different bundles of practices (Posthuma et al., 2013).

HR practices by Youndt et al. (1996). Youndt et al. (1996) elevated the role of HRMs and departments as well as the perceived value of humans as part of the competitive advantage of the modern organization. They studied whether the appropriate choices of HR practices, such as giving workers decision-making power, providing training, paying for performance with fair and incentive-based pay, and selectively staffing, would increase "a firm's strategic posture" (p. 837), while other practices, such as hourly pay and stagnant job opportunities, decreased performance, and increased employee turnover. Their research emerged as a reaction to the employee de-skilling that resulted during the '90s from technological replacements to humans in manufacturing. To assist with increasing the technological skills of employees and the quality of their outputs, Youndt et al. proposed that performance appraisal was a specific work practice which should be included in bundles of practices selected by high performing organizations, operationalized as "continuous employee feedback and developmental performance appraisal" (p. 845).

Youndt et al. (1996) tested these ideas using 512 manufacturing plants, 160 general managers, 102 operations managers, 97 production managers, and 90 HRMs over

a 2-year time study. They questioned whether HR systems and work practices would affect firm performance, and if so, in what amounts, and based on which practices. They found that in manufacturing environments using quality techniques, contingent HR practices affected performance, where HRMs used the practices based on the specific needs of their unique industry or organization. When used in a cost technique in manufacturing environments, HR practices did not increase performance, presumably due to their design to decrease costs, rather than professionalize workers (Youndt et al., 1996). Quality-minded organizations that used HR practices to enhance and develop talent, improve team processes and environments, and train workers on customer satisfaction principles, saw increased productivity and efficiency (p. 858). Youndt et al. asked future HRM researchers to assist with "clarifying and mapping out the distinctive HR, strategy, and performance relationships" (p. 861).

Changes in work practices. During the 1990s to early 2000s, the world of manufacturing gave way to knowledge-based workers, unforeseen technological advances, robotics, and offshoring practices affecting daily work life for workers (Combs et al, 2006). It became necessary for HPWP researchers to delineate among types of industries, organizations, and strategic mindsets while economic realities changed the face of employment practices forever.

In 2006, Combs et al. analyzed 92 quantitative, empirical studies on HPWPs to determine whether the Youndt et al. (1996) and subsequent researchers' ideas on bundling were empirically sustainable, and whether or how industry differences were operationalized. Their literature review helped formalize and create the actual HPWP framework used by modern researchers (Jensen et al., 2013; Posthuma et al., 2013; Zhang

et al., 2014). HPWPs framework includes incentive compensation, training, compensation level, participation, selectivity, internal promotion, HR planning, flextime, performance appraisal, grievance procedures, teams, information sharing, and employment security (Combs et al., 2006). These specific work practices are those that HRMs agree or studies have shown affect productivity, either negatively or positively (Tregaskis, Daniels, Glover, Butler, & Meyer, 2013). Tregaskis et al. found that the effects of the practices include motivating and empowering employees to increase their performance, while also increasing their knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs).

Combs et al. (2006) performed a meta-analysis calculating the HPWPs framework effect size at .28, for its effect on productivity in workplaces. They warned that their loose model of HPWPs and its relationship to strategic HPWSs was not a testable model, but only a framework (p. 517). Over the last decade, researchers have moved forward with the HPWPs framework, using Combs et al.'s explanation of HPWPs main effects and bundling as a basis for quantitative study; calls for research and instrument creation for the HPWPs framework continue.

Posthuma et al. (2013) performed a meta-analysis on the research done since Combs et al. (2006) performed theirs, and expressed frustration at the continued lack of clarity and construct definitions of the work practices. Posthuma et al. proposed a HPWPs' taxonomy, and demonstrated how it could work within systems by creating categories for groups, or bundles of practices. Their taxonomy of the framework could eventually result in a HPWPs theory. Zhang et al. (2014) studied the relationship of HPWPs and CSP to employee engagement; they found concerns that overwhelmed employees result when leaders combine HPWPs and CSP in nonproductive ways.

My study combined SL, HPWPs, and CSP, by focusing on extending the studies by Jensen et al., (2013) and Zhang et al. (2014) study to attempt to fill the express gap of studying leadership style with HPWPs and CSP. In the Review of Current Literature, I explore research studies about SL, CSP, and HPWPs from the past 5 years.

Review of Current Literature

The ensuing literature review examines current research of the theories of CSP and SL, and the framework of HPWPs. These concepts have overlapping components. *SVL*, *C*, and *H* are the variables in my study, which operationalize each of their partner theories. The literature from previous studies about these concepts will help to inform these variables, and show how the concepts align in my study.

SL Theory

The SL literature focuses in multiple categories. The organization of this section includes categories where the research provided grounded support to the theory of SL and its importance to business processes, where the research revealed or disputed relationships between SL and other work variables, and where researchers reviewed SL in high performing organizations. Other literature includes content that defined and differentiated servant leaders from other leadership styles, or described instruments in use and explained more about the SLI. Where a particular study fit into more than one of the categories listed, I chose the category that best fit for flow, timing, and argument within this paper.

Grounded SL studies connecting SL to other variables. SL research has become an important aspect of business research for managers, and especially, HRMs. Over the past decade, organizational ethical behaviors emerged as differentiators for

individual and firm performance (Demirtas, 2015). Identifying traits of ethical, yet effective leadership models remains a goal of HRM researchers (Mohamad & Majid, 2014; Sun, 2013). SL researchers consider the style used by servant leaders as an ethical leadership model that emphasizes the moral integrity of the leader, their organizations, and society (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012, p. 556). Whether or not servant leaders help improve the performance of the organizations in which they serve has been reviewed by researchers, although not specifically in connection to the HPWPs framework. Business needs surrounding performance management have become highlighted concerns of management, business leaders, employees, and HRM researchers. Recent decisions by Adobe, and Deloitte-Bersin to move from performance appraisal to coaching and mentoring have made SL studies even more pertinent to today's business methods because servant leaders are exceptionally good at mentoring and coaching their employees (Russell, Broomé, & Prince, 2015, p. 68).

SL and performance improvement. Leem (2015) reviewed how servant leaders can increase performance management utility while engaging greater acceptance by accounting teams. Leem credited servant leaders with the ability to increase customer satisfaction, and to create employees who see the organization as a community. Because previous studies showed that higher performance resulted from performance management plans that include nonfinancial and financial performance measures, Leem tested Korean credit union managers, quantitatively, to determine whether servant leaders were more likely to create performance goals for their employees that included both financial and nonfinancial performance goals. Their ANOVA results showed that servant leaders were more likely to use both types of goals, and that they focused on "employee relationships,

customer relations, and service quality improvements, which are considered crucial from a long-term perspective" (p. 259).

Chiniara and Bentein (2015) also studied the relationship of SL to employee performance improvement. They used a 7-dimension scale where they measured emotional healing, empowering, helping subordinates grow and succeed, placing subordinates first, creating value for the community, exhibiting conceptual skills, and exhibiting ethical behaviors (p. 3). They found that servant leaders are more conscious of their employees needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, and find ways to meet those needs, which then increases the individual performance levels of the servant leaders' employees.

SL and follower's attitudes and behaviors. Chan and Mak (2013) conducted a structured study on servant leaders' follower attitudes on 218 employees in China. They examined how servant leaders instill trust in followers, and considered the difference between short- and long-term employees' appreciation of servant leaders. Previous studies found that employee outcomes from SL included "vision, influence, credibility, trust, and service" as well as increased job satisfaction (p. 275). Chan and Mak posited that short-term employees would be more grateful for the coaching and support than longer-term employees, who may eventually find the oversight unnecessary. Their study measured organizational tenure ($\mu = 9.15$ years), gender, age, and education. SL was positively related to followers' trust in leaders and job satisfaction, which confirmed previous findings (Chan & Mak, 2013). Whether a subordinate trusted the leader partially mediated the effect of SL on job satisfaction. Using hierarchical linear regression, they

determined that servant leaders influenced short-term employees more than longer-term employees, supporting their original supposition.

A similar study reviewed whether servant leaders have employees with more positive psychological capital (PPC) and higher service-oriented organizational citizenship (SOOC) behaviors than nonservant leaders in the hotel industry (Hsiao, Lee, & Chen, 2015). Previous studies had suggested that employees who have optimism and hope tend to have better PPC and SOOC, both of which had been shown to lead to higher customer satisfaction. Hsiao et al. used a follower-focused SL instrument from 2004, modified it to 14 questions, and then combined those subscales into a composite determination of servant leader (i.e., servant leader versus nonservant leader). They cited three studies supporting this methodology (p. 49). Their quantitative results showed that SL was significantly related to PPC and SOOC, but that only SOOC was significantly associated with customer value creation. Because of their finding, Hsiao et al. suggested that HRM recruiters should consider finding ways to hire servant leaders for tourism and customer-focused management positions (p. 53).

Abid, Gulzar, and Hussain (2015) also looked at the role trust played in team cohesiveness where servant leaders were involved. They replicated studies done earlier, to see if Pakistani organizations would have similar results. They looked specifically at whether trust bridged SL and organizational commitment behaviors in employees, and whether SL moderated group cohesiveness (p. 235), and found that their hypotheses were all accepted. Servant leaders in Pakistani, as in other countries, significantly influenced organizational-commitment behaviors in employees, improved group cohesiveness, and did so through trust building among their followers (p. 240).

Schwepker and Schultz (2015) explained how servant leaders influenced sales performance, ethical culture, and customer value by studying these variables together. Making sales is a complicated process that combines multiple levels of behavioral requirements. Often, the concept of ethics and sales are not naturally combined, but Schwepker and Schultz argued that customers become more engaged when the sellers share their purpose; thus, they argued that servant leader behaviors in engaging and creating followers fits into sales organizations more than some would originally think.

Servant leaders in HPOs. Melchar and Bosco (2010) selected luxury automobile dealers as the sampling frame of their study on servant leaders to determine whether that industry had servant leaders who modeled SL theories, and attracted other servant leaders. They wanted to provide empirical support for the notion that servant leaders help improve firm productivity and financial performance (p. 78) and that firms with servant leaders at executive levels will have more midlevel servant leaders. They also wanted to show that servant leaders existed across their tested demographic groups (age, experience, and education level). They studied three separate automobile dealerships that reported high performance in both sales and customer satisfaction. The study was mixed methods, using ANOVA and interviews. Their results showed that age, education, and years of experience did not correlate with SL characteristics, but that having a servant leader as a role model did. Their study was based on a small sample size, but had the unique aspect of selecting a high performing industry.

De Waal and Sivro (2012) reviewed the relationships among SL, organizational performance, and the HPO framework (a framework similar to HPWPs except focused more on outputs and less on practices). Their study used servant leader definitions from

multiple researchers, and focused on eight factors of humility, authenticity, empathetic forgiveness, follower appreciation, empowerment, accountability, stewardship, and courage. They compared SL to the HPO framework factors, and discovered overlapping factors, such as sharing information with followers, trustworthy role modeling, and follower appreciation, while HPO factors such as continuous improvement and long-term orientation did not match up to SL. A case study tested two hypotheses gleaned from the framework and theory comparisons, to determine whether SL factors influenced HPO factors, or if SL and organizational performance were linked (de Waal & Sivro, 2012). Leader-member exchange surveys found few significant correlations, and those few were weak. Stronger correlations occurred when the executive leader was a servant leader, than when the direct reporting line leader was a servant leader. De Waal and Sivro's study had significant limitations, including low survey response, small sample set, and the use of an invalidated instrument. They recommended that future research should continue in this field, especially in larger numbers of organizations and on other HPO factors.

Peterson et al. (2012) attempted to connect servant leader executives to firm performance in their study of 126 technology CEOs. Their study revealed that company founder CEOs are more likely to be servant leaders than subsequent, nonfounder CEOs. They raised the issue of how little the HRM profession understands about "how to identify people who are most likely to engage in servant leader behaviors" (p. 570) as the reason they chose to study executives who scored higher on SL to learn more about their behaviors.

Peterson et al. (2012) also studied the role narcissism played in SL. They questioned whether servant leaders inspired higher firm performance than nonservant

leaders. Using a time study of 308 CEOs, they compiled data regarding founder status, narcissism, level of organizational identification, SL firm performance, and control variables; they also surveyed the CFOs of the companies to rate their CEO's transformational leadership behaviors, which they considered a control variable. Their findings showed that CEOs with the highest ratings of narcissism were the lowest rated on SL, founders were more likely to be servant leaders, and that the organizations with servant leaders showed higher firm performance, even after they controlled for transformational leadership traits. They argued that the theoretical implications warranted further SL studies, and that finding predictive models for understanding leadership characteristics was needed. Peterson et al. recommended that future studies use CSP as a predicting variable, instead of the return-on-assets variable they used. I designed my study to further Peterson et al.'s research in both areas, by using CSP as a predictor variable for potentially identifying servant leaders by their past behaviors.

Reed (2015) specifically reviewed the behaviors of leaders in 9-1-1 call centers, which are considered HPOs. She predicted that more servant leaders may exist in call centers, enabling her to gain more insights into their behaviors, and she wanted to see if employee retention related to SL. First responders, such as 9-1-1 operators, work to serve others, and previous research she had undertaken led her to consider the role SL had in providing high performance to those in danger, or needing assistance. She wanted her research differentiated from much of the SL literature touting what servant leaders should do, and instead, look at what they actually do. She used a follower-focused SL instrument created by Vidaver-Cohen, herself, and Colwell in 2011, and received almost 900 responses from 9-1-1 operators. Findings included that the 9-1-1 operators did perceive

their leaders as being servant leaders, and they felt stimulated into proactive followership as a result (especially in the area of taking responsibility for potential problems at work). Reed also found a correlation between servant-led employees and outcome-based cultures.

Servant leaders' characteristics. Some SL research focuses on whether SL characteristics support business functions. Choudhary, Akhtar, and Zaheer (2013) found that servant leaders predict the needs of their employees, and react to those needs, unlike other types of leaders who expect followers to react to their leaders. Servant leaders ethically promote responsible work practices (McCann et al., 2014). Servant leaders' workplaces show higher levels of employee commitment, emotional healing, wisdom, and in some studies, organizational performance (McCann et al., 2014). Servant leaders use situational factors to guide their behaviors (Sun, 2013, p. 547). Orazi et al. (2014) described servant leaders as showing behaviors such as high service motivation, agreeableness, high morals, low ego, self-determination, and cognitive complexity (pp. 39-40).

SL instruments. Table 3 lists some popular SL instruments, providing the instrument's name, authors, creation year, available Cronbach's α, total number of questions, whether it is leader or follower focused, and its measured characteristics or dimensions. I selected the Wong and Page's (2007) SLI for my study because it is leader focused and has acceptable Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$ (Stephen, 2008). Its length makes it more cumbersome and expensive to use, but the leader focus made it most applicable to my research's participants. I discuss the SLI in Chapter 3, Instrumentation. Although there are other SL instruments besides those shown in Table 3, these are the most often cited,

as well as having reliability statistical data published. In Table 3, the column *dimensions measured* shows the different qualities attributed to SL by various studies.

Liden instrument. Liden et al. (2015) updated their servant leader instrument from 2008, shortening it from 28 questions to a "short form" of seven questions. They utilized exploratory factor analysis results from their previous instrument to do so. They reflected that SL positively relates to "individual self-efficacy, job performance, engagement, organizational citizenship behaviors, community citizenship behaviors, organizational commitment, commitment to the supervisor, creativity, customer service behaviors, and turnover intentions" (p. 256).

Liden et al.'s (2008) instrument was not designed to break leaders into servant or nonservant buckets. However, Chan and Mak (2013) combined the Liden et al. (2008) servant leader index into a yes/no style answer in order to do so. They argued that this was necessary in order to attribute behaviors to one group or the other, for comparison or correlation purposes. Chan and Mak, however, did not report the number of servant to nonservant leaders in their study, but instead turned the variable into an index score, using the mean of all respondents.

Winston and Fields (2015) instrument. Table 3 depicts SL instruments containing different qualities and factors for SL. This problem was noted by Winston and Fields (2015), who began creation of a new follower-focused SL instrument, which is in the pilot stage. Winston has been on a quest for the perfect SL instrument for many years, including his analysis of the original SLI (Dennis & Winston, 2003). Winston and Fields argued that the variance in SL factors highlighted in the different instruments shows the lack of agreement among SL researchers as to what defines a servant leader. Among six

different instruments, Winston and Fields found qualities comprising SL, in varying and different combinations in SL instruments, as follows:

> humility [twice], relational power, service-orientation [thrice], follower development, increased follower autonomy, altruistic calling, emotional healing [twice], persuasive mapping, wisdom, organizational stewardship, moral love, altruism, vision [twice], trust [twice], . . . follower empowerment, . . . influence, . . . credibility, voluntary subordination, authentic self, covenantal relationship (service to followers), responsible morality, transcendental spirituality, transforming influence, . . . , creating value for the community, conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates grow and succeed, putting subordinates first, and behaving ethically. (p. 414, duplicates, and citations removed).

Table 3

SL Instrument Comparisons

Instrument	Authors	Year	Validity	Leader/ Follower/ Organization	Items	Dimensions measured
Organizational Leadership Assessment***	Laub	1999	Cronbach α = .90 to .93	Organization	80	Valuing and developing people, building community, being authentic, providing and sharing leadership
Servant Leadership Questionnaire ***	Barbuto & Wheeler	2006	Cronbach α = .87 and .93	Follower	56	Altruistic calling, emotional healing, wisdom, persuasive mapping, organizational stewardship
Servant Leadership Instrument (SLI)*,***	Wong & Page	2007	Cronbach α = .92	Leader	62	Servanthood, leadership, vision, empowerment, team building, shared decisions, integrity
Servant Leadership Scale***	Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson; Liden, Wayne, Meuser, Hu, Wu, & Liao	2008, updated in 2015	Cronbach α = .86 to .91	Follower	28, update has 7	Emotional healing, community value, conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates and putting them first, ethical behavior
Servant Leadership Behavior Scale***	Sendjaya, Sarros, and Santora	2008	Cronbach α = .72 to .93	Follower	73	Voluntary subordination, authentic self, covenantal relationship, responsible morality, transcendental spirituality, transforming influence
Servant Leadership Survey***	van Dierendonck & Nuijten	2011	Cronbach α = .69 to .91	Follower	30	Empowerment, accountability, standing back, humility, authenticity, courage, interpersonal acceptance, stewardship

Note. The table compares six different SL instruments to support the use of the SLI. I adapted this from multiple sources.

*Information from Wong and Page (2007); ** Information from Stephen (2008)

*** Information from Green, Rodriguez, Wheeler, and Baggerly-Hinojosa (2015)

Comparing SL to other leadership models. A number of researchers have examined SL literature through the lenses of other forms of leadership to distinguish SL from other types of leadership models. This section explains the results of these studies.

Level 5 Leadership by Jim Collins. Reid et al. (2015) compared SL to Collin's Level Five Leadership. Level Five Leadership is the type of leader Collins has stated is one of the *Good to Great* business leaders. Collins' team of experts considered, but then avoided, the name SL for Collin's leadership model, due to their perception that servant leaders are meek (Reid et al., 2015, p. 20). The study results showed that a lack of personal will differentiated SL from Level Five Leadership, which allowed servant leaders to be more willing to encourage followers to model their behaviors, while also modeling following. But for this missing trait, they found that SL and Level Five leadership are very similar.

Ethical leadership. Demirtas' (2015) study on ethical leadership showed that a leader's values and ethical perspectives influence the level of ethical behavior experienced within an organization. The positive effect that servant leaders can make on employees' behaviors is often referred to as the *trickle-down effect* (Ling, Lin, & Wu, 2016; Wo, Ambrose, & Schminke, 2015). Demirtas explained that numerous exploratory studies on ethical leadership are underway to determine how leaders perceive and operationalize ethical leadership (p. 274) and encouraged more of such studies. Friedman and Friedman (2013) argued that most leaders today are "CEOs who have no integrity and use their companies for self-glorification" (p. 3). Hassan, Mahsud, Yukl, and Prussia (2013) found that ethical leaders, defined as altruistic, honest, trustworthy, fair, and compassionate, create trusting environments that lead to committed, loyal employees.

SL, in particular, has regained momentum as a possible way to improve corporate and organizational performance. Servant leaders consider other people before their own interests, and for this reason, "are considered ethical" (Redeker et al., 2014, p. 437). Farrell (2015) expressed concern about the difficulty in finding ethical leaders, describing them as those who promote CSP and focus on making society better. Ling et al. (2016) showed that top-level servant leaders in Chinese hotels influenced middle managers to be servant leaders, which led to increased service quality and service behaviors of front-line workers, when the serving culture trickled down to the front lines (p. 350).

Transformational and/or transactional leadership styles. Many of the SL studies try to delineate transformational leadership from SL, or argue they are the same. Transactional leadership tends to be included as a third comparison, due to having enough differences as to create a control style option for comparison. This section discusses the literature that uses one, or both as a comparison.

Washington et al. (2014) hypothesized that servant and transformational leadership are basically the same thing with different names, but they differentiated SL from transactional leadership by virtue of their relationship with their followers (employees); transactional leaders motivate employees with rewards, pay, and giving orders, whereas servant leaders use more inspirational modeling behaviors and value-based morale boosting to gain followers' willingness to work toward organizational goals (pp. 14-15). Using a survey of 207 employees, they determined that while servant leaders are also transformational leaders, it did not hold true that transformational leaders are also servant leaders (p. 21), making SL a possible subset of transformational leaders. Washington et al. found this confusing because the instruments used to measure both

types of leaders were nearly identical, yet expressed the need for further studies to help understand SL's unique qualities.

Duff (2013) compared servant leaders to transactional and transformational leaders while also studying gender and its relationship to servant leaders and performance management coaching. He wondered whether servant leaders, and especially female servant leaders, are the best employee coaches. He also wanted to differentiate servant leaders from transactional and transformational leaders, because he felt that previous studies which had provided differentiation, had also given credence to the idea that servant leaders "will have the greatest positive influence on team effectiveness overall" (p. 212). Duff merely explored the literature to find possible outcome connections among these aspects, and did not specifically conduct research in the field. He recommended that other SL researchers include gender as a variable in their SL research, to understand whether females are over or underrepresented in the leadership style.

Van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, and Alkema (2014) also looked at SL and transformational leadership, in light of follower outcomes, to see if the two styles were the same, or different. Their research helped explain why Wong and Page (2007) and other researchers felt that judging servant leaders on a scale based on their strength of SL tendencies is not appropriate, but instead, determining whether or not someone is (or is not) a servant leader is more accurate. Van Dierendonck et al. explained that in a knowledge-based economy, finding leaders who are in tune with their employees' needs is critical, and small nuances such as meeting employee needs may make servant leaders more effective than transformational leaders. Using a robust, mixed-methods, three-study

approach, they set out to determine which of the two styles, SL and transformational leadership, are more in tune with employee needs.

Transformational leadership encourages followers to perform highly to assist with the organization, using rewards and praise, and has positive effects such as higher motivation, satisfaction, innovation, and lower accidents (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014, p. 545). SL encourages followers, but does so through one-to-one communication, altruism, individual (versus organizational) caring, community (versus organizational) interests, and shows positive effects for increased job satisfaction, work engagement, trust, team performance, organizational citizenship behavior, team potency, and firm performance. Van Dierendonck et al. noted the many overlaps between transformational leadership and SL styles, but identified small but significant differences, such as in follower focus: servant leaders focus on teaching followers to become servant leaders (thus creating more of them in the organization), whereas transformational leaders focus on teaching followers to perform better.

Study one analyzed survey results from 184 students using a fictional scenario and survey (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014). Organizational commitment was the same between both leadership styles; leadership effectiveness was higher for transformational leaders, and servant leaders provided greater psychological needs support (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014). No significant interaction effects were found when business stability was created in the scenario, except that overall leadership effectiveness and meeting psychological needs increased for both styles (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014). While transformational leaders were perceived as being more effective than servant leaders, servant leaders fulfilled the needs of employees better, and both styles worked

equally well during periods of instability. Van Dierendonck et al. conducted a second experiment to verify their results in a bigger, more realistic sample set, using 200 nurses and doctors. They compared two additional leadership styles, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire leadership (LFL).

Servant leaders' employees exhibited the highest work engagement, transformational leadership next highest, then transactional leadership, with LFL the lowest; transformational leaders rated the highest in leader effectiveness during uncertain times, with SL and transactional scoring nearly the same, but LFL very low (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014). When environments were certain**,** SL scored above all forms of leadership, including satisfying their employees' needs, and work engagement (p. 554). The third study replicated the second study's results. They concluded that while transformational leaders persuade their followers to consider them great leaders, servant leaders are better at actually supporting the needs of their followers and affecting their work engagement.

Winston and Fields (2015) included aspects of transformational leadership within their pilot of their new SL instrument. They found that in a study of 456 working adults, 93% from the United States and working with the same leader for over a year, approximately equal numbers of males and females, nearly 75% white, and with 15+ years of work experience, SL correlated positively with all of the transformational leadership aspects, "except 'inspirational motivation'" (p. 424). They speculated this might be the result of their follower focus, making the use of inspirational leadership unnecessary to persuade them to follow (p. 429). They found that SL had a higher correlation to transactional leadership, as well as a strong relationship between positive

feelings of followers to their leaders and strength of SL behaviors. They noted that employees who had not worked for their leader for more than a year had significantly stronger memories of servant leader behaviors than employees who were currently working for their leaders. They suggested this could be a halo effect over the past or a pitchfork effect from the present (p. 429).

Machiavellian leadership. An example of a nonservant leader style, Machiavellian leadership, avoids altruism, operates unethically, is self-serving, and ignores the needs of the employee (Sendjaya & Cooper, 2011), directly opposite qualities of a servant leader. Sendjaya and Cooper's quantitative analysis comparing servant leaders to Machiavellian leaders found a strong negative correlation (r = -0.65) between them, where servant leaders' behaviors "squarely contradict" the behaviors of Machiavellian leaders (p. 430). Redeker et al.'s (2014) quantitative study similarly found that servant leaders converge highly with inspirational, coaching, and participatory leadership styles, and are inversely related to withdrawn or "despotic leadership" (p. 446). Redeker et al. (2014) also explained that achieving higher social performance requires leaders who can adapt to rapidly changing societal norms, incorporate community and worker demands into work practices, and meet the many varied business requirements. Servant leaders have been described as having exceptional, ethical awareness of their business environments, with heightened levels of foresight (Klein, 2014, p. 20).

Correlating SL with other variables. SL studies often use SL as a variable to compare its use to outcomes in work environments. Zhang, Kwan, Everett, and Jian (2012) looked at the relationship of SL, organizational identification, and work-to-family

enrichment among 280 married managers in eight different organizations in China using a survey methodology. They felt that work-life balance may be supported more fully by servant leaders, due to their caring natures, and people focus. They also felt that followers of servant leaders would be more committed to their organizations, which would improve the overall culture of the company. They used an instrument invented by Barbuto and Wheeler in 2006, which surveyed followers' view of their leaders. Zhang et al. (2012) found that SL was positively related to organizational identification and work-family enrichment. They encouraged organizations to increase support for servant leaders and their behaviors, so that work-family enrichment could be increased. They also encouraged future research of servant leaders to determine if other outcomes may be part of their legacy in organizations.

Sun (2013) explored the leaders' perspective of SL. He wondered why servant leaders want to serve, and how their leadership actions differ from other leaders' actions. Servant leaders' ability to address their follower's needs, show they have special adaptation skills, which align with organization's specific situations (p. 547), and that this *situational* aspect made up the central difference between servant leaders and nonservant leaders. Yet, no empirical studies have measured specific situational factors utilized by servant leaders. Sun noted this as a gap, as well as the "fragmented nature" of the servant leader literature, definitions, and research to date (p. 555).

Yoshida, Sendjaya, Hirst, and Cooper (2014) reviewed SL in team and employee creativity and invention. They focused on the leader-follower relationship, and posited that servant leaders' focus on follower *growth*, rather than their *following*, and this, they felt, differentiated SL from nonservant leadership forms. In other words, servant leaders'

egoless leadership meant they could work with their followers on learning, growing, and developing, instead of simply modeling behaviors for the sake of having a team of identical followers. The researchers theorized that this slight nuance opened servant leaders to innovation, (p. 1396) rather than lock stepped followers, and the quantitative results found significant correlations between individual and team innovation with SL (p. 1402).

HPWPs Framework

HPWPs are practices implemented by HR departments, management, leaders, and undertaken by workers that contribute to the high performance of work organizations (Combs et al., 2006). Nearly two decades of research has contributed to the framework of HPWPs, yet defining and delineating these practices remains in-progress (Jensen et al., 2013; Posthuma et al. 2013). Combs et al. (2006) conducted a meta-analysis of the literature regarding HPWPs and HPOs, and calculated the frequencies of particular HPWPs noted in the literature, along with the difference between the organizational performance effects from HPWP systems versus individual HPWPs. They estimated that $r = 0.28$ for HPWP systems (i.e., bundles of HPWPs), whereas individualized HPWPs were $r = 0.14$ for the relationship between the use of HPWPs, HPWSs, and organizational performance. Combs et al.'s meta-analysis lent credibility to the additive nature of HPWPs' and their relationship to organizational performance.

Recent and current studies focus on determining relationships between HPWPs and their use in specific industries, businesses, or leadership styles. Until Posthuma et al. (2013) and Jensen et al. (2011, 2013) utilized Combs et al. (2006) meta-analysis to create instruments and a describe a framework, no uniform taxonomy for HPWPs existed,

making it difficult to quantify, compare, or research the practices' use (Zhang et al., 2014). Posthuma et al. (2013) listed the significant HPWPs empirically tied to organizational performance as compensation and benefits, job and work design, job analysis, training and development, recruiting and selection, job security through employee relations, communication, performance management and appraisal, promotions, and career planning. Shin and Konrad (2014) noted the importance of the delineation of the HPWPs framework, but also expressed concern that many researchers use slightly different terminology to refer to the HPWPs framework, including HPOs, HPWSs, and even strategic HR practices. Other researchers discussed in the Review of Current Literature use other names such as High Impact Work Practices (HIWPs) and High Commitment Work Practices (HCWPs), yet list the same work practices as comprising HPWPs.

Rabl, Jayasinghe, Gerhart, and Kuhlmann (2014) performed a HPWPs meta-analysis, from Combs et al. (2006) through 2013. Their focus was to look at how HPWPs are reported used by different geographic locations and cultures. They relied on the Hofstede power-distance categories to define cultures, and reviewed the literature for HPWPs' effect on organizational performance. They reported the same overall main effect (r = 0.28) of HPWPs on organizational performance as did Combs et al. However, differences among certain culture styles and managerial types were found. The Rabl et al. meta-analysis used 156 studies, representing 35,767 organizations over 29 countries (p. 1016). They found that in almost all cases, fitting the HPWPs choices to national culture did not make HPWSs work better (i.e., where the selected bundles were matched to the cultural or legal requirements). They had posited that HPWSs would work better in

cultures with low power distance and higher institutional flexibility. Their supposition was not founded; instead, the opposite was true. Countries with high power distance and high collectivism and low performance orientation had a strong, positive effect on organizational performance from HPWPs than the opposite, although the difference was not significant (p. 1020). Rabl et al. challenged future researchers to look at possible reasons for these results, and specifically suggested that management style, instead of culture, was one possible variable for influencing the effectiveness of HPWSs on performance. They found that 68% of variance in main effects was not explained by geographic location or culture (p. 1021). But, even where smaller main effect findings existed, *all* HPWSs improved performance (i.e., had a positive net main effect); managerial flexibility seemed more positioned to affect the success of HPWSs than location or culture. This confirmed the need for research on how specific managerial styles' influence HPWSs use.

Job control and anxiety. Jensen et al. (2013) explained that HPWPs are bundled, and that a particular bundle creates the HPWSs of an organization. They used the HWPSI to test the HPWPs framework in an organization, to compare departmental differences in employee stress and role overload, correlated to leader and employee perceptions of HPWSs use. Jensen et al. (2013) found that a significant relationship existed between job stress and HPWPs when employees have low job control. They noted that future HPWPs researchers should look at "the effects of managerial styles and behaviors" to the use of HPWPs (p. 1716).

Civic duty, work overload, and HPWPs. Gould-Williams et al. (2014) studied how HCWPs, work overload, civic duty, and employee outcomes worked together in a

Wales public organization. Gould-Williams et al. reviewed how leadership style might affect employees' public service motivation (or attitudes toward their community). Their study focused on how HCWPs and work overload each influenced employee outcomes. They found that while work overload increased intent to quit, HCWPs helped overcome that increase, while also increasing employee outcomes; however, the connection between HCWPs and civic duty was less than between employee outcomes. Further, work overload actually increased public service employees' desires to contribute to civic work.

Work-life balance and HPWPs. Wang and Verma (2012) showed a connection between the use of HPWPs and employee work-life balance. Certain HPWPs, such as flexwork, relate directly to increasing the ability for employees to balance the needs of work with the needs at home. Their hypotheses included how HPWSs mediate work-life balance, and how different leadership strategies implement HPWSs in various ways. They found that product leadership business strategy utilized more HPWPs than a cost leadership business strategy, which used fewer HPWPs. The results of their study showed that the use of HPWPs fully mediated any adoption of a work-life balance system. They explained that this means that work-life balance systems nearly always operate within already established HPWSs.

Firm performance and HPWPs. Messersmith et al. (2011) explored the connection between firm performance and HPWPs, by looking at how HPWPs influence organizational commitment behaviors (OCBs) by employees. OCBs are extra-role behaviors that improve work relationships but do not relate to actual job duties (p. 1107). Their study tested whether OCBs were mediators to HPWPs' effect on performance.

They argued that HPWPs tend to increase employee job satisfaction and loyalty, which creates higher engagement and desire to perform OCBs. They posited that the desire to perform OCBs caused increased communication among employees, improved psychological empowerment of the employees, and therefore, would increase performance. Their quantitative study showed a positive relationship between HPWSs and department performance, and supported their hypotheses that OCBs mediated the HPWSs and performance relationship, and that HPWSs increased employee psychological empowerment.

Tregaskis et al. (2013) criticized studies on HPWPs that used survey reports to consider whether the use of HPWPs effected organizational performance. They conducted an intervention and time study research process, using longitudinal interview and survey reports over time. They cited research showing that HPWPs have increased worker safety and compliance levels, but expressed concern regarding the role HPWP implementation had on worker fatigue and overwork. They wanted to conduct research to clarify whether the improvements to productivity were worth the resulting costs to employee health. Their five-year time study occurred within a United Kingdom heavy-engineering plant in an overseas multinational corporation from 2003-2008. Quantitative data showed that over time, the increased HPWPs (training and communication) led to increased job satisfaction, commitment, and positive attitudes (p. 234); long-term data verified, however, that increased "workloads and feelings of pressure and stress" (p. 235) also resulted from implementation of HPWPs, including practices involving union relations interventions. The qualitative data showed that during the HPWPs implementation, a new senior manager came on board whose strategy included high-

visibility support for the practices. Tregaskis et al. interpreted these data to suggest that "appropriate senior management leadership is important for implementing HPWPs" (p. 235). Overall, their very robust study gave credence to the concept that HPWPs do increase firm performance, safety, and employee behaviors, and that having senior leaders who support HPWPs in positive ways also contribute to stronger results.

Whether HCWPs affect worker creativity was the focus of a study by Chang, Jia, Takeuchi, and Cai (2014), while citing the HPWPs literature. Chang et al. delineated HCWPs (training, high pay, performance based pay, and selective hiring) from control based work practices that tend to be lower performing. They wondered if the use of HCWPs led to greater worker creativity, and studied how performance appraisal, teamwork, training, job rotation, rewards, and participative management led to more creative employees. Their findings, from quantitative survey results of >1500 respondents suggested that HCWPs do lead to more creative work practices by employees, especially in companies which commonly use teams with high-level tasks. In low-skilled organizations with less team use, Chang et al. found that the need for costly HCWPs is less apparent, especially in the Chinese IT industry organizations where the study was focused.

HPWPs in small businesses. Wu, Bacon, and Hoque (2014) studied businesses with less than 50 employees in the United Kingdom, to determine whether they had adopted HPWPs. They claimed that previous studies had linked high performance with HPWP use in small businesses, and quantitatively analyzed the accuracy of this claim. HPWPs measured in the study included sophisticated recruitment, induction (onboarding), off-the-job training, internal labor market, performance-related pay,

performance appraisal, teamworking, team briefing, consultation committee, employee attitude surveys, quality circles, functional flexibility, benefits packages, flexwork, equal opportunity practices, grievance procedures, and job security. The most prevalent practices included performance appraisal, teamworking, onboarding, sophisticated recruitment, and off-the-job training (p. 1167).

Small businesses showed a high correlation between highly skilled workers and wide use of HPWPs; a highly prevalent use of HPWSs in the education, health, and community services sectors; a midsized prevalence of HPWSs in transport and finance small businesses; a low prevalence in hotels, restaurants, or wholesale businesses; and no correlation with market-related factors, such has having a large or dominant customer (Wu et al., 2014). Not significant for level of HPWPs use included the threshold of 50 employees, business age, number of business sites, union or HR department presence; however, whether a business was a member of a business advisory network did show the existence of a higher use of HPWPs (p. 1163).

In a related study, Ingvaldsen, Johansen, and Aarlott (2014) pondered whether HRM departments are needed when HPWSs are present. Similar to Wu et al.'s (2014) study in looking at the influence of having an HR department or not having one on how well HPWPs influence small business performance, Ingvaldsen et al. studied the impact of HPWSs where no HRM is present, even in larger organizations. These researchers explained that HPWPs are the "high road" style of managing organizational employees, whereas traditional scientific management methods of control were "low road [and] cost cutting" (p. 295). In particular, they wondered if change agents who were not part of HRM could implement effective HPWSs without the need for HRM departments.

Ingvaldsen et al. (2014) studied one Norwegian organization with 3,000 employees, where the workers successfully implemented HPWPs without HRM assistance. They noted that "the common theme is to increase shop-floor workers' skills, flexibility and discretion, which is traditionally captured in the terms job quality or autonomy" (p. 296). Whether the workers experience greater decision-making authority is a key component to whether a work environment includes HPWSs or not (p. 296). The researchers found that practices common to HPWPs frameworks were present. Ingvaldsen et al. attributed the informally implemented HPWSs to the high level of skills the workers in the department exhibited, their pride in their manufactured product, and the length of time on the job. They suggested that organizations with long-term employees might reap benefits of the creation of HPWSs without the need of intense HRM involvement.

Similarly, Sikora and Ferris (2014) considered how line managers influence HPWPs and suggested that future researchers should test whether they make HPWPs use less or more effective. Previous research had established that line managers filter HRM practices, and their ability to implement HRM practices determines the level of their contribution to employee high performance (p. 272). For example, performance appraisal is a well-known work practice that when used poorly by managers, hurts employee motivation and outcomes (p. 273). Combs et al. (2006) had found that performance appraisal had a negative influence on employee performance, and yet it was the most often-cited work practice in HRM literature.

HPWPs and employee age. Some researchers considered whether older workers would be more or less motivated by HPWPs, or whether younger workers would be best

served by them. Kooij et al. (2013) felt this study was needed because people are working for more years, and more generations are working together, so understanding how HPWPs impact work productivity on different age groups might be helpful. They reasoned that because the HPWP framework suggests that it motivates employees to work harder, finds more skilled employees, and trains and develops employees, that younger employees would find them more necessary. This team used eight factors of HPWPs to compare among differing age groups of employees: performance appraisal, career advice, job information, formal training for operational skills, formal training for future skills, job challenge level, use of training, and opportunity to suggest work improvements (p. 35). They found that younger workers, predictably, prefer development HPWPs and older workers prefer maintenance HPWPs; further, as workers age, they prefer more challenging work, and thus job enrichment HPWPs become more important.

HPWPs in multinational companies (MNCs). In a study looking at whether HPWPs serve to increase psychological contracts between host-country nationals and expatriates in MNCs, Shih, Chiang, and Hsu (2013) used 300 MNC Taiwanese companies in China, and surveyed employees and their supervisors about their perceptions of HPWPs use. They used job tenure and hours worked as control variables, and measured the level of psychological contract with the MNC, and level of HPWPs use. Their quantitative study showed a positive correlation between positive psychological contracts with the MNC and the use of HPWPs, which then contributed to increased job performance. However, as a significant limitation, the authors stated that the current failure for HRM researchers to agree on the HPWPs within the framework meant that their study might not be easily replicated, or extended to organizations using

different practices within their systems. The practices used in the HPWPs instrument in their study included employee influence, work structuring, reward systems, relational psychological contract, work involvement and job performance (p. 544). Even with this limitation, however, their study shows the importance of using HPWPs in global organizations, supports their global extension, and provides ideas for future studies about HPWPs.

HPWP role in corporate turnaround. Mihail, Links, and Sarvanidis (2013) described HPWSs as a global new paradigm of HRM that promises to replace the Taylor management model (p. 191). Because increasing the productivity level of a firm is almost a universally accepted method of increasing market share, Mihail et al. argued that finding how HR practices can increase productivity is crucial. Previous research looked mainly at how practices were bundled (pp. 197-199). Their case study focused on how one company's successful turnaround processes relied on using HPWPs, such as organized work practices, training, team-based processes, better communication, worker inputs, job security, career development, and targeted employee recruiting. Adopting HPWPs successfully required creating a culture of trust (p. 208), with "good leadership, a clear vision, [and] commitment to continuous improvement" (p. 201). They argued that studies that are only on HPWPs without some aspect of the other needed ingredients are inappropriate.

HPWPs and social capital. Jiang and Liu (2015) examined social capital's role in HPWPs effectiveness on organizational performance. Since companies with HPWSs invest money and effort to develop their employees, HPWPs build competitive advantages by improving KSAs, motivation, job commitment (p. 128) and

"intraorganizational social capital" (p. 129) of employees. For example, selective staffing finds new employees with good fit, self-managed teams increase interaction opportunities, decentralized decision-making facilitates information sharing, formalized training increases employee KSAs, flexible work assignments increase managerial skills and develop interdepartmental relationships, open communication shares organizational knowledge, and group- and performance-based pay fosters team cooperation (pp. 131-132).

Specific HPWPs use. Some researchers examined unique bundles of HPWPs within varying industries or job types.

Hotel employees. Karatepe (2013) studied HPWPs connection to hotel employee performances, using work engagement as a mediating variable. He considered engagement a result of HPWPs, and engagement as a contributor to higher performance and extra-role behaviors. The bundle of practices he found prevalent in the hotel industry were training, empowerment, and rewards. Although he found significant positive connections between HPWPs and engagement, and HPWPs and performance, he noted some indications that HPWPs can create stress in employees. He felt that studies on ways to lessen the impact of stressors from increased demands on employees were needed.

Flight attendants. Karatepe and Vatankhah (2014) studied whether job embeddedness acted as a mediator to HPWPs and flight attendants' performance. Airlines need creative ways to improve branding, service, and performance, and Karatepe and Vatankhah hypothesized that selective staffing, job security, training, empowerment, rewards, teamwork, and career opportunities would encourage flight attendants to be more creative and exhibit extra-role, customer-service performance (p. 29). Most of the

leading airline companies used HPWPs, resulting in the retention of high performing employees. HPWPs resulted in higher job embeddedness and "novel behavior in the service delivery process" (p. 32). Training was one of the most significant of the HPWPs, because of the signal of job security it sent to the employees (p. 34).

Contingent workers. Along with the impact of using HPWPs on employee performance, Stirpe, Bonache, and Revilla (2014) studied how well HPWPs could create higher worker performance from temporary or contract workers. Since earlier studies showed that job security is a critical HPWP, this combination of variables seemed disconnected. Stirpe et al. strived to show how the use of contingent workers among long-term employees weakens the impact of HPWPs on those long-term employees. Previous research had shown that when contingent workers are present, standard, full-time employees feel less empowerment, less job security, and exhibit less innovative behaviors (p. 1335). Because HPWPs use has been shown to increase these outcomes in other studies, Stirpe et al. queried whether the impact of HPWPs were negated by the use of contingent workers, or if HPWPs could overcome the decreased innovation, performance, and feelings of job insecurity that contingent worker presence created. Although they found that the use of contingent workers was relatively low (17%), in those organizations that employed contingent workers, the effects of HPWPs use was significantly less than in organizations that did not employ contingent workers, even though those organizations, on average, used more HPWPs than the firms that did not use contingent workers (p. 1339). The use of contingent workers erased the positive effects of practices such as training, recruiting, pay methods, and worker inputs; they found that

mixing contingent workers with full-time workers actually negated HPWPs influence entirely.

Nonprofits. A case study showed HPWPs can work for nonprofit organizations. Robineau, Ohana, and Swaton (2015) selected five practices, staffing, compensation, training and development, flexible job assignments, and communication, to review a how a nonprofit improved its performance. By interviewing the managers and employees, and reviewing the employment handbook, Robineau et al. concluded that HPWPs were successfully implemented, where they found benefits that included bonuses tradable for training opportunities, and they considered feeling good about what one accomplished as a HPWP special to nonprofits (p. 108). Workload levels made open and timely communication difficult, but the consensus was that better communication was needed to improve teamwork and overall productivity, lending credence to the potential need and benefit of a more structured implementation of HPWSs. Despite the initial cost in implementing HPWPs, Robineau et al. concluded with a recommendation that nonprofits could improve performance using work practices that best support team, communication, and benefit improvements for workers.

Containing conflict in health-care settings. Lee, Hong, and Avgar (2015) reviewed HPWPs, but called them HIWPs. They focused on the bundle of HPWPs most known for increasing *involvement* of the employees. The four HIWPs included employee decision-making, information sharing through teamwork, selective staffing and training, and performance-based compensation. The study sought to determine whether these practices could help to control conflict within health-care organizations, first between employees, and then, between patients and employees. They hoped to find that the use of

these four HIWPs could improve employee relationships to the extent that employee-patient conflict decreased. They used survey data from 20 nursing homes, in a time study. Fifteen of the nursing homes were provided a HIWPs intervention between the two times of data collection; five control group homes were not provided intervention. HIPWs did lessen the level of inter-employee conflict and employee-patient/employee-patient's family conflicts. They pointed out that because HIPWs improve more than just financial performance, finding nonfinancial performance ties to high performance practices is as important as financial connections. Zhang et al.'s (2014) research highlighted this concept by combining HPWSs research with CSP.

CSP Theory

CSP exists when companies respond to the "legal, ethical, and discretionary responsibilities imposed on them by their stakeholders" (Zhang et al., 2014, p. 425). Zhang et al. distinguished CSP from CSR: responsibility is what a company should or ought to do for society in general, whereas the performance is what is actually done. CSP often refers to an organization's voluntary willingness to integrate "social and environmental concerns in their business" (Chahal, Mishra, Raina, & Soni, 2014, p. 718). Other researchers have delineated CSR between legally required CSR and normative, or voluntary CSR (Harjoto & Jo, 2015). Still others have explained that CSR includes financial performance measures, while CSP does not (Zhang et al., 2014).

For purposes of my study, I accepted the financial (CSR)/nonfinancial (CSP) distinction as stated by Zhang et al. (2014). CSR literature has debated whether social performance adds to the bottom line of companies. This project, while noting that the impact of socially responsive activities on financial performance is important, did not

foray into financial performance because the research questions and hypotheses did not cover financial performance, and new research in this area is being provided daily using archival data on public databases. The instruments in this project did not request financial performance data, which ensured confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents, making CSP the more appropriate theory for use in my research.

CSP compared with SL. Christensen et al. (2014) reviewed leadership styles, including SL, with respect to CSR and CSP. Their study included detailed explanations of why they felt leadership style might influence a leader's use of social performance methods. Researchers are trying to find a connection between financial performance improvements using socially responsible behaviors. Profit-motivated leaders may accept value in CSP if they are provided a financial motive. Christensen et al. found that servant leaders naturally believe in and use CSR. They model CSP for their followers, and encourage their followers to behave in socially responsible ways (p. 174). They stated that "servant leadership is the only one in which CSR is both foundational to the conceptual model and specified as an expected outcome of the model" (p. 174). Christensen et al. recommended that management school curriculums consider incorporating SL as a program of study, and that much more research on the topic is mandatory if better uses of CSR are to be seen in businesses. They called for research comparing and correlating CSR and CSP with leadership styles, and especially with SL.

CSP compared with HPWPs. Zhang et al. (2014) compared CSP with HPWSs, and determined that CSP contributed to increased employee commitment, satisfaction with the work system, and citizenship behaviors. Their research did not review leader style within the studied relationships. They also found the use of win-lose CSP versus

win-win CSP caused lowered employee engagement if CSP requirements were imposed on employees without providing them with the resources they needed to carry them out, or when the HPWSs caused more stress than support.

Zhang et al.'s (2014) study complemented Van de Voorde et al.'s (2012) warning that CSP requirements can lead to increased stress in the work environment, and harm worker health. Acting ethically and responsibility can take more time, more effort, and be less productive than unethical behaviors, so the desire for high performance may not complement using high levels of CSP (Zhang et al., 2014). Understanding the interactions among ethical behavior, demands for higher performance, and CSP, may help provide suggestions for possible solutions to worker health issues.

CSP compared with extra-role behaviors. Shen and Benson's (2014) research showed that HRMs can positively affect worker's behaviors by creating CSR as a social norm in the organization's culture. Their study found that perceived organizational support of CSR and employee organizational identification led to increased extra-role helping behaviors by employees.

CSP and CEO pay. Hart, David, Shao, Fox, and Westermann-Behaylo (2015) compared CEO pay to social performance outputs, as well as reviewing the importance of top management's dedication to CSP. Hart et al. explained that firms with CSP outlooks view their responsibility to multi-stakeholders as crucial to being good corporate citizens; firms with lessened CSP outlooks are shareholder focused. Their hypothesis was that the more CSP related firms would have lower CEO pay, and the more shareholder-focused firms would have higher CEO pay. However, Hart et al. explained that most previous research in this area focused solely on CEO pay and neglected to look at the overall top

management pay. They noted that previous research had provided mixed results, with some researchers finding a connection between higher pay and lowered CSP, others finding the opposite.

Hart et al. (2015) surmised that a study of total top-management pay might yield more correlation. They compared firms with disparate pay among top management to firms with less disparate pay, to see if this influenced the levels of CSP of the firm. They posited, based on previous research, that firms that encouraged high competition among executives by differentiating their pay levels would have a shareholder, versus stakeholder mindset; firms that provided a lower level of pay disparity, thus encouraging collaboration and collegiality, would have a higher CSP output due to their multi-stakeholder mindset. Their study used SEC reported date from 1997 (pre-SOX) through 2011 (post-SOX) to make their comparisons.

Hart et al. (2015) reviewed 1834 firms in 54 industries using 13,464 observations. Their CSP variable was operationalized by using a public database called Kinder, Lydenberg and Domini Co. (KLD), which uses the factors of "human rights, corporate governance, employees, products, environment, community, and diversity" (p. 206) for measurements. They used each firm's top-five executives' pay to calculate whether pay disparity existed. All of their statistical analyses were significant. The pay disparity levels were inversely related to the levels of CSP: where higher levels of pay disparity existed, CSP was lower; where lower pay disparity existed, CSP was higher. They recommended research on correlations between leadership behaviors and CSP, to help understand how pay motivates CSP, and how competition among leaders motivates CSP behaviors. Their

study helped to explain how leadership styles and individual motivations such as pay, and pay competition, can lead to social responsibility or socially neglectful behaviors.

Brown-Liburd and Zamora (2015) twisted the view of CEO pay and CSP performance by studying how CSP performance is impacted by whether the CEOs are paid for CSP performance and whether that pay incentive increases the voluntariness of the disclosure of CSP outputs. The researchers posited that pay for CSP would increase the incentive to greenwash the CSP reporting. Their study, however, reviewed how the investors interpreted the CEO pay and CSP levels reported. What they found was that investors only value the reports of CSP when those reports are independently validated through audited measures, especially in situations where CEOs are paid incentives for CSP. Their study showed that investors are aware of the aspect of greenwash, and therefore, do not trust the outputs reported by such CEOs unless they have the value of being reported by an independent auditor. Where, however, such independent verification exists, they found that investors are willing to pay higher prices for such stocks, and therefore, they recommended that organizations willing to pay CEOs for CSP outputs, should also be willing to ensure that their CSP outputs are verified, as it could result in higher stock values.

Firm performance and CSP. Short, McKenney, Ketchen, Snow, and Hult (2015) reported on the connection between the use of CSP and firm performance. They used publicly reported data from KLD, and used random coefficient modeling to determine whether CSP grew, over time, in relation to the firm performance growth. They wanted to find a way to attribute differences in industry, and firm performance with CSP. Industry-specific regulation changes can affect how CSP is operationalized within

those specific types of firms; thus, while levels of CSP vary, the types of variances among and between industries may help shed light on how mandating CSR can affect firm performance and CSP, especially over time. Short et al. argued that, unlike market share, the ability to perform in socially responsible ways has no cap, and therefore, can grow, even when firm performance does not. They found that about 15% of the change in CSP can be attributed to industry differences, whereas the remaining change is a result of firm level and temporal variations (p. 13). Over 9 years, they showed that CSP changed in a linear fashion, and industry impacts were discernible.

Reasons for using CSP. Shahzad and Sharfman (2015) researched whether organizational selection created bias in correlation studies of CSP and firm performance. Because quantitative analysis of CSP and firm performance was done by selecting firms with reportable CSP, these studies were biased because the firm selection was nonrandom. They strove to overcome this bias by randomly selecting firms to determine whether their CSP and firm performance levels could be replicated from nonrandom studies. Their study sought to review this possible discrepancy, to determine whether CSP is a profitable venture, despite reporting bias. They also sought to show that reasons other than firm performance are necessary motivators to CSP. They cited studies showing no correlations between CSP and firm performance, while controlling for factors such as industry and firm size, stakeholder pressures, desires of leadership to appear to be doing "good deeds," and the desire for market competitive advantage.

Shahzad and Sharfman's (2015) study spanned 4 years, and used statistically valid methods for removing sampling bias from their firm choices. After removing the bias, they confirmed a CSP-firm performance positive linear relationship existed, over time, in

randomly selected organizations. They felt that this gave credence to firm decisions to embark on CSP, regardless of the immediate impact on firm performance, with the understanding that over time, both stakeholder and competitive advantages would work to the benefit of firms that use CSP.

Voluntary undertaking of CSP. Harjoto and Jo (2015) reviewed the difference between legally required CSR, and voluntary CSP. They argued that business leaders perceive that overinflated CSR costs money, and that this perception by them influenced how they portrayed their firms' CSR with financial analysts. Altruistic CSP, for example, was often kept private whereas legally prescribed CSR was notorious and reported by analysts, regardless of firm discussion. Voluntary CSP is typically done with a long-term focus, and therefore, the value creation may be missed by the usual method of analysts who review financial performance over shorter-term periods (p. 5).

Harjoto and Jo (2015) found that legally required CSR created less analyst discord or disagreement in valuations of firm branding as a result of the CSR; voluntary CSP, however, had disparate treatment by analysts, and therefore, created fluctuations in analyst predictions on firm future value. They also found that when leaders disclose openly their voluntary CSP, the positive impacts are higher, than when leaders fail to do so. They found that long-term benefits from voluntary CSP tended to overcome short-term drops in firm value (p. 16).

Summary and Conclusions

The framework of HPWPs includes activities and work practices that are regularly engaged in by cognizant and competent HRM professionals and managers of organizations. Studies show that organizations, which properly bundle HPWPs, have

HPWSs and can become HPOs. Furthermore, CSP is a performance measure of organizational activities that contribute to positive social goals, positive social change, or respond to legal, ethical, or moral requirements of society. Some research suggests that HPWPs can include CSP. Multiple studies show that imbalanced use of HPWPs and CSP can overwhelm and harm workers, leading Jensen et al. (2013), and Zhang et al. (2014) to recommend research that included leadership style with variables of HPWPs, and CSP. Servant leaders are managers and mentors who make their employees' well-being and development their main priority, instead of themselves, or even their organizations. The literature showed that servant leaders look more into future goal setting and performance, and less on short-term outputs. Similarly, CSP is more long-term oriented than short-term focused. Chapter 3 describes the process this study used to analyze whether servant leaders use CSP and HPWPS differently than nonservant leaders.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Companies with high CSP have more engaged employees, attract better job applicants, and increase organizational value (Tizro, Khaksar, & Siavooshi, 2015). Proper use of HPWPs can increase firm performance (Combs et al., 2006). Servant leaders encourage CSP because they care about community (Parris & Peachey, 2013), and they create higher organizational performance than nonservant leaders (Ozyilmaz & Cicek, 2015; Peterson et al., 2012). No previous study has measured how servant leaders use HPWPs. My study addressed the business management problem that imbalanced HPWPs and CSP creates worker stress (Van de Voorde et al., 2012), anxiety (Jensen et al., 2013), or disengagement (Zhang et al., 2014); it addressed the research problem regarding the lack of knowledge of how leadership styles, such as SL, affect leaders' use of HPWPs and CSP, and extended the research of Zhang et al.

The purpose of my quantitative, nonexperimental, survey study was to question U.S. business leaders in a SurveyMonkey panel about their leadership qualities, and their use of HPWPs and CSP. In the first set of research questions, I divided the participants into servant and nonservant leaders and used inferential statistical analysis to examine differences between servant and nonservant leaders' usage of HPWSs and CSP. In the second set of research questions, I measured participants' scores on the SL dimensions of empowerment, service, and vision, and analyzed whether those dimensions could predict their use of HPWSs and CSP. I designed my study to create inferences from collected data to answer six research questions; guide future SL-, HPWSs-, or CSP-related studies; and provide insights into how certain leaders use HPWPs and CSP. A business need exists to find more balanced, ethical, community-focused leaders (Cascio, 2014), such as

servant leaders (Parris & Peachey, 2013). A clearer understanding of whether leadership styles affects work practices may lead to positive social change in the workplace.

This chapter describes the process that I used to conduct my research. It explains and operationalizes the variables; provides the history, purpose of, and examples from my instruments; describes my sampling method, size, and rationale; and describes the statistical analysis methods I used in my study (chi-square, *t* tests, logistic regression, and multiple linear regression). Ethical protections and concerns, along with the information regarding how my panel of participants was selected is explained, as well.

Research Design and Rationale

In Chapter 3, I systematically detail the data collection and analysis plans for this project. The research included two analysis plans (A and B). The initial Plan A assumed I would find a relatively equal distribution of servant to nonservant leaders in the population, allowing for sufficient power to run statistical tests to answer research questions 2, 3, and 4. I designed Plan B to use only in the event I found a significantly disproportionate distribution of leader types. Plan A used the full responses and key-code of the SLI to divide the participants, whereas Plan B used the underlying dimensions of the SLI to delineate participants.

Variables of the Study

The theory of SL was operationalized into an independent variable for a *t*-test analysis and into a dependent variable for regression analysis. The categorical, binary variable was represented as *SVL* (1 = *servant leader*; 0 = *nonservant leader*), used in a logistic regression. The continuous variables *E, V,* and *S* represented empowerment, vision, and service levels of the participants, for use as independent predictor variables in

multiple linear regression analysis. Participant responses to questions from the SLI provided measures for *E,V,* and *S* using a 7-point Likert scale, and were created by using the mean score for each of the questions that made up the dimensions of empowerment, vision, and service, as stated within the Dennis and Winston (2003) study. (See Appendix A).

I operationalized the framework of HPWSs and theory of CSP into dependent variables for a *t*-test analysis and multiple linear regression analysis; and into predictor, independent variables for a logistical regression analysis. HPWSs usage was represented as *H*, a continuous variable with values of 0-100%, and CSP usage was represented as *C*, a continuous variable with values on a 5-point Likert scale. Appendix F includes my complete instrument.

Methodology

I selected participants randomly using a SurveyMonkey panel. I designed the survey instrument using three previously validated instruments and eight demographic questions. I collected data to answer six research questions. I used inferential statistics to analyze the collected data. I conducted the following tests:

- a chi-square goodness of fit test to test the significance level of the observed ratio of servant to nonservant leaders to a hypothesized, 1:1 population.
- two *t* tests, comparing the difference in means from two independent groups (servant and nonservant leaders) for their usage of CSP and HPWPs.
- a logistic regression analysis to explain the predictive nature of the variable relationships.

- two multiple linear regression analyses to explore the predictive nature of the underlying SLI dimensions of empowerment, service, and vision, to the use of CSP and HPWPs.

I decided to use a survey, quantitative study based on the research questions, empirical nature of the business management and HRM fields, and nature of the studies I hoped to extend. Zhang et al. (2014) studied CSP and HPWPs using a quantitative, survey methodology. Jensen et al. (2013) also used quantitative, survey methodology in their use of the HPWSI when they studied organizational use of HPWSs. Previous studies found the instruments I selected internally reliable, including the SLI (Whorton, 2014), the HPWSI (Jensen et al., 2013), and the SPSI (Zhang et al., 2014). An intervention was not required, or practical for the random, anonymous, dispersed, and diverse population under consideration. I chose the SurveyMonkey panel method to provide qualified respondents who fit the needs and parameters of my sampling frame, and to complete the project in a reasonable, and cost-effective manner.

Study Population

I sought study participants who were 18 years or older, and who were U.S. managers or leaders who currently work in business organizations, with leader and/or supervisory responsibilities. To have leader and/or supervisory responsibilities, each of the respondents needed to have had at least one employee currently or previously reporting to them, to whom the respondents provided supervision, mentoring, or monitoring of performance. Alternatively, the respondents needed a strategic planning role, setting policy or practices for workers in an organization. The respondents needed to be willing to answer 100 survey questions. The exact population size of this target

population was unknown, but according to the October 2015 information from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, approximately 58 million people fit this target population (inclusive of persons aged 16 and 17, and persons engaged in professional occupations), but without considering whether they would answer 100 questions or respond to a survey if received.

Sampling Strategy

My study used a random sampling strategy. Randomly selected respondents received an email from SurveyMonkey administrators, who emailed the survey to all SurveyMonkey panelists who fit the parameters requested. Once the total requested responses were completed, SurveyMonkey administrators closed the survey.

Sampling Size Calculation

Sample size calculation for quantitative, survey studies includes making an educated decision after reviewing known factors such as the number of accessible respondents, previous research's estimate of the variable's effect size, desired α (significance) level, desired power (Button et al., 2013, p. 372), and type of statistical test used (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). Educated estimations of group proportions for tests comparing groups must be made, and a priori sample size analysis should be trusted over post hoc analysis (Cumming, 2014, p. 8; Faul et al., 2007, p.176). Social science research traditionally sets significance at 95% (α = .05) and power at 80% [= .20] (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). I followed this tradition.

Group breakdown. In order to calculate sample size for *t* tests and logistic regression, having an estimation of group sizes is important (Faul et al., 2007). The *SVL* variable has two values. Williams (2009) purposely utilized a 1:1 ratio of servant to

nonservant leaders (N_1 = 17; N_2 = 17). Her small, purposively selected population, however, created a limitation on the generalizability of her findings, including group sizes. Whorton (2014) conducted an analysis of SL in an engineering firm, using leader/follower dyads purposively selected by upper management. Her studied population included 30 servant leaders and 109 nonservant leaders, which is a 1:3.5 ratio. Joseph and Winston (2005) used Laub's (1999) organization-focused SL instrument and reported that of 69 represented organizations in their study, 11 were servant-led organizations and 58 were nonservant-led organizations, a 1:6 ratio. I located no other studies that expressly reported group breakdowns from using the SLI or similar instrument. Because the literature does not provide strong indications of the expectations in the population's ratio, for purposes of the chi-square null hypothesis and for sample size estimation, a 1:1 ratio was estimated.

Effect size. Another important piece of data for sample size calculation is estimated effect size (Faul et al., 2007). Using meta-analysis, Combs et al. (2006) established the effect size of HPWPs as r = 0.28, and Zhang et al. (2014) calculated the CSP main effect on engagement as *.41*, with HPWSs effect size at .55 (p. 430). For sample size purposes, I chose a medium effect size for each test.

Tails. The hypotheses in this study were two-tailed. This affected the number of samples needed to achieve power. The use of one-tailed tests as an alternative, by assuming that servant leaders would use more CSP and HPWPs than nonservant leaders, would have increased power by 50% (Strugnell, Gilbert, & Kruger, 2011, p. 6) or allowed for the use of a smaller sample size. However, Nosanchuk (1978) explained that loss of power is more forgivable than biasing the study by planning for a one-tailed

result. He warned that results that differ from the originally expected direction results in a loss of significance. Although the two-tail choice sacrifices power, “the desire for scientific neutrality” (Strugnell et al., 2011, p. 6) is critical. Thus, I used the two-tailed option in the sample size calculations.

G*Power. Bartlett, Kotrlik, and Higgins (2001) recommended calculating the needed samples for each statistical test planned, and using the highest required number for the sample size. Faul et al. (2007) invented G*Power Calculator, which allows social scientists to accurately estimate sample sizes for almost any statistics test; they updated their research and calculator in 2009. I used G*Power version 3.1.9.2 to calculate the necessary number of respondents to give my project 80% power, at a 95% significant level, using a medium effect size, with two tails, and 1:1 group ratio. The resulting screen shots for the sample size results needed for the chi-square test, *t* tests, and the logistic and multiple regression analyses appear as Figures F1, F2, F3, and F4, respectively, in Appendix F.

Sample size decision. SurveyMonkey required a minimum order of 300 samples to use a 100-item questionnaire (J. Hickey, personal communication, November 20, 2015). Based on the G*Power calculations, 300 samples were to provide me with at least 80% power (significance of 5%) for the logistic regression test ($N = 208$), and all of the other tests (which required fewer respondents), and included enough for a separate pilot group. SurveyMonkey guaranteed that 300 responses, with no missing data, would be provided (J. Hickey, personal communication, November 20, 2015).

Procuring the Data from Respondents

Recruitment. SurveyMonkey provided the survey link to a panel of U.S. corporate leaders and managers who fit the target population. SurveyMonkey panel populations are derived through volunteer panelists who receive no personal remuneration for the service to SurveyMonkey, although they are given a choice of receiving Swagbucks (a type of noncash bitcoin) or a 50-cent donation to a charity of their choice. In order to ensure credible responses, SurveyMonkey uses "a disciplined approach" (SurveyMonkey, 2015, "our audience") which ensured the following protections:

- Panel members are limited to the number of surveys they can respond to each week to avoid over participation.
- Member rewards are noncash, and response times are monitored to avoid rushing through surveys.
- Members complete detailed profiles.
- Participation rewards are charitable donations, Swagbucks, or partner organization sweepstakes entries (with random chances to win).
- SurveyMonkey runs "regular benchmarking surveys to ensure" members represent the U.S. population ("our audience").

Case studies using SurveyMonkey panels include data collection reports for Fortune 100 companies such as Netflix, Amazon, and Bloomberg, as well as startups and smaller companies such as HomeAdvisor, 99designs, Ogilvy, iAcquire, LoungeBuddy, and Prezi (SurveyMonkey, 2015, "case studies"). I did not have access to personally

identifying information of respondents, other than demographic information; the participants in my research were entirely anonymous, and protected from ethical instances of retaliation or detrimental behaviors of any kind. Dissertations often use SurveyMonkey panels (e.g. Boatright, 2014; Swider, 2013) and their external validity is acceptable (Heen, Lieberman, & Miethe, 2014).

Consent. In order to participate, respondents read and agreed to a consent form based on the Walden Institutional Review Board (IRB) consent form and template. By electronically submitting that form, consent was expressly requested and assumed complete. The ability to opt out at any time without repercussions was communicated throughout the survey. The use of panels was not free. The total cost, with programming, was $4500.00 ($10/response + programming).

Data Collection. CINT, the SurveyMonkey partner organization in charge of panel surveys, emailed the survey to the panel using a SurveyMonkey URL. The survey contained the SLI, SPSI, HPWSI, and a short demographic section. The data collected into an SPSS- and Excel-ready set of files, accessible online through my secure, password-protected SurveyMonkey Gold account.

Exiting the Study. When the respondents hit the final submit button on the survey, they automatically exited from the study.

Pilot Study

I conducted a pilot study before the actual study to calibrate and test the instruments and collection process. I directed SurveyMonkey and CINT to open data collection, and collect 5% of my research's calculated sample size, 10 responses (208 * .05 = 10.4). The actual pilot number reached 18 because the results came in so rapidly. I

analyzed the pilot data in the same manner as the actual research data, to ensure that the algorithms, scaling, question order, and answering process were accurate, concise, easy to use and understand, and that the collection process worked as intended. I requested a few technical adjustments, and then, the final collection process ensued. I did not use the pilot samples in the final study. The actual study data and analysis came from the additional responses generated after SurveyMonkey reopened the survey.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

The survey instrument consisted of five sections (Appendix E). I decided the instrument order, and the demographic questions. Previous researchers designed the SLI, SPSI, HPWSI, and the majority of the consent content.

SLI. Wong and Page (2013) developed the SLI during a decade of research. I chose their leader-focused instrument because previous research studies contributed reliability data about its performance (Greasley & Bocarnea, 2014, p. 15; Whorton, 2014, p. 71), and because no other leader-focused SL instrument exists. Its questions align with the literature regarding servant leaders. It asks leaders to self-reflect on their methods and style of leading. The answers to the questions lead to a determination of whether the respondent is a servant, or nonservant leader (Stephen, 2007). Unlike many of the instruments that have been created for followers to fill out (Liden et al., 2015), the SLI allowed me to combine self-reflections of leaders about their leadership choices in style, HPWPs, and CSP, to create a full picture of the way the leadership style (servant or nonservant) of the respondent relates to each respondent's use of HPWPs and CSP.

Wong and Page (2000, 2007) created two versions of their instrument while reviewing it multiple times and openly calling on other researchers to assist (2000, 2003,

and 2007). The first version of the SLI was 100 questions, created in 2000 (see Appendix A for the history and instruments), measuring 12 dimensions of SL: integrity, humility, servanthood, caring for others, empowering others, developing others, visioning, goal setting, leading, modeling, team-building, and shared decision-making. Dennis and Winston (2003) analyzed the Wong and Page Servant Leader Self-Profile (2000) using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and published the 23 items where they found Cronbach's α scores >.70 (see Appendix A). Dennis and Winston determined that only three dimensions of the original 2000 version of the SLI were reliable: empowerment, visioning, and servanthood.

For the new SLI, Wong and Page (2007) reduced the 100-factor questionnaire to a 62-factor questionnaire (see Appendix A). I used the 2007 version. This 2007 version reduced the 12 dimensions to seven dimensions: empowerment, humility, authenticity, openness, inspiration, vision, and courage. These dimensions included positive qualities: servanthood, leadership, vision, empowerment, team building, shared decisions, and integrity; and negative qualities: abusing power, high pride/narcissism. The humility dimension is reverse measured as the negative factor to allow for psychometric controls while the taker answers the questions. The SLI uses a 7-point Likert-styled scale (1 = *strongly disagree* and 7 = *strongly agree*; 2, 3, 5, and 6 represent gradations towards strong agreement or disagreement; and 4 = *undecided*, which is to be used sparingly).

Stephen (2008) used the SLI in a dissertation studying elementary school principals, and reported Cronbach's α = .92 on all questions in the instrument (p. 65), showing that the SLI is sufficiently reliable for use in social science research. Reliability is measurement "free of purely random error" (Drost, 2011, p. 105).

The SLI was appropriate to this study because it is leader-focused, previously shown to be reliable, and aligned with SL theory. But, it had drawbacks. Its length makes it overwhelming to participants, increases costs, and neglects to ask leaders about their use of CSP, which many SL researchers, including Page and Wong (2013), use in the definition of SL. My computer-based survey helped overcome the length concern. I asked leaders about their CSP use using the SPSI, so I hoped that my research could help clarify that aspect of SL theory and overcome this threat to the SLI's validity.

HPWSI. I decided to use HPWSI from Jensen et al. (2011). Its authors used it in a 2013 study and found it to be internally reliable and valid. (See Appendix C). The HPWSI measures HPWPs use and creates a scaled index score from the different practices used, but it also provides data about the underlying practices used. I needed the scaled index score for the logistic and multiple regression aspects of this project. It will provide valuable data for post-doc research as well. The authors used it in a similar study where they looked at the relationship between a department's use of HPWPs and its employees' anxiety levels.

I considered the use of a different, unpublished Work Practices Survey instrument, created by Posthuma, Campion, Masimova, and Campion (sent to me by Postuma, personal communication, May 2015), but the instrument had not yet been published, or proven reliable or valid for use in any study. They designed their instrument to examine whether different industries and geographic locations use different bundles of HPWPs, but did not include a way to ascertain those bundles, or create a scaled score. I also considered the instrument for HPWPs measurement that Zhang et al. (2014) used in their study on CSP and HPWPs. However, their instrument focused on employees, not

leaders, and, unlike the HPWSI, did not align with the full list of HPWPs provided in the meta-analysis by Combs et al. (2006). Thus, I selected the HPWSI instrument.

The HPWSI (Jensen et al., 2011) requests department heads or managers to provide the "percentage of employees . . . managed by HPWS practices" (p. 1707). It has 21 questions, each of which lists one of the known HPWPs. Respondents answer with a number between 0 and 100, representing percentage. The authors noted that previous instruments used "yes or no" answers to determine whether a practice was used. They designed the HPWSI to use continuous data to capture the presence "and prevalence of" (p. 1707) the practices. They reported Cronbach's $\alpha = .81$ (Jensen et al., 2013, p. 1707). Internal consistency was determined by use of a counterpart survey given to employees of the department heads, and was found to be consistent, where $r = 0.59$, $p < .001$ (p. 1708).

SPSI. CSP levels are measured by the instrument created by Zhang et al. (2014). (See Appendix B). They designed their instrument for a quantitative study of CSP and HPWPs, so it fit well for my study. The instrument designers utilized the instrument to compare the relationship between use of HPWSs and CSP on employee engagement and organizational commitment behaviors. Their scale measures the social performance of a firm (CSP) using nine items, including treatment of employees, tolerance for unethical behavior, labor law adherence, voluntariness of overtime, charitable donations, union tolerance, community activities, environmental protection, and OSHA/safety adherence. Zhang et al. (2014) reported Cronbach's $\alpha = .87$ from the use of their instrument. It uses a five-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree the practices are used,* 2 = *disagree*, 3 = *unsure*, 4 = *agree,* and 5 = *strongly agree the practices are used*).

In Chapter 4, I report the Cronbach's α results for each instrument used in my study. (See Table 5). All instruments were internally reliable (>.70). I included the authors' permissions for publishing and using each of the instruments in my study in Appendix D.

Operationalization

Variable *SVL*. I divided the groups of servant leader and nonservant leaders using a predetermined algorithm from the SLI key code. The instrument measured six positive and one negative set of factors, where multiple questions represented each factor. An example question from the instrument relating to the factor of service is "I seek to serve rather than be served" (Wong and Page, 2007, question 17). Answers to each question were based on a 7-point Likert-styled scale, where 1 = *strongly disagree*, 7 = *strongly agree*, and 2, 3, 5, and 6 were gradations on the scale, with 4 = *neither agree nor disagree*.

The SLI key code provided a strict algorithm to create the groups (Whorton, 2014, p. 71; S. Bailey, personal communication, April 22, 2015). The algorithm breaks leaders into four possible quadrants based on their total averaged scores of the six positive factors and the one negative factor. Page and Wong (2013) provided guidelines for interpreting results (also S. Bailey, personal communication, April 22, 2015). Scoring $M \geq 5.6$ on the six positive factors, while also scoring $M \leq 2$ on the negative factor, equates to being a servant leader. Scoring $M < 5.6$ on the six positive factors, while also scoring $M > 2$ on the negative factor, equates to being a nonservant leader. This code left one quadrant for servant leaders, and three remaining quadrants for nonservant leaders (see Figure 3). I created the categorical, binary variable *SVL*, coding each case as 1

(*servant leader*) or 0 (*nonservant leader*). I incorporated the Wong and Page (2007) key code algorithm into SPSS v. 21, and used it to measure each case's *SVL* variable.

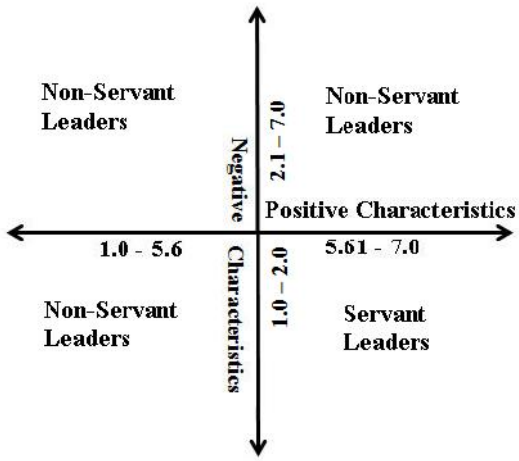

Figure 3. Servant leader and nonservant leader quadrants.

Variables *E, V,* and *S*. Dennis and Winston's (2003) CFA found that the SLI had three main factors that were most reliable for SL: empowerment (*E*), vision (*V*), and service (*S*). The variables were derived from the SLI questions, shown in Appendix A and denoted with superscripted *E, V,* and *S,* based on Dennis and Winston's CFA results, and from the SLI Key Code factor breakdown (S. Bailey, personal communication, April 22, 2015). To create each variable, I computed a mean index score based on the questions in the dimensions noted as empowerment, vision, and service. Those variables represented each case's mean index score of the composite of the questions related to each factor. I created values for each of the three variables (*E, V,* and *S*) for each case. Each of the variables was a continuous number, 1.0—7.0.

Variable *H*. The HPWSI instrument (Jensen et al., 2011) included questions such as "Indicate what percentage of employees, from 0 to 100% are organized in self-directed

teams in performing a major part of their work roles" (Jensen et al., 2013, p. 1720; see Appendix C). Thus, if a respondent had 20 out of 60 employees organized into self-directed teams, the respondent answered that question with the value of *33%*. The variable *H* represented the HPWSs index, averaging a respondent's scores of the 21 questions, with the range of possible values being 0 to 100% (continuous).

Variable *C*. The Zhang et al. (2014) instrument, SPSI, measured CSP usage. The overall CSP index by respondent was the mean response of the nine questions from the instrument. An example of one of the questions is "Our Company does not tolerate unethical business behavior" (Zhang et al., 2014, p. 432). The value of the variable for each respondent is the CSP index number, a variable *C*. The SPSI measured all items on a 5-point Likert scale, so the range of possible values for *C* was 1.0 through 5.0 (continuous).

Data Cleaning, Descriptive Statistics, and Analysis Plans

The SurveyMonkey electronic survey form provided the participant responses in MS Excel and SPSS files. I used the SPSS export feature to create a Minitab compatible file for the best-subsets logistic regression analysis.

Data Cleaning.

I examined the data using the SPSS descriptive statistics function, missing data functions, (such as frequency figures), and outlier review. I reported all descriptive statistics in full, without using missing data functions. SurveyMonkey committed to providing fully completed responses, and I had no missing data.

Descriptive Statistics

Fritz, Morris, and Richler (2012) lamented the dearth of descriptive statistics in reported research, finding that less than 25% of studies report important descriptive data (p. 4). Fritz et al. stated that researchers who fail to report descriptive data contributed to lower-quality meta-analysis, and in the end, harmed the richness of those studies' essential premises and later implications. Researchers should take the time to describe, statistically, the important groups in their studies, to assist future researchers with comparing data (p. 16).

I used the descriptive statistics *explore* feature of SPSS to understand and describe the data set, including reporting the demographic breakdown of the respondents, and any unique, concerning, or remarkable aspects of the data. Descriptive data provided demographical information of the survey respondents, including the number of servant and nonservant leaders in the sampled population.

Data Analysis Plans A and B Rationale

This project included two data analysis plans, Plans A and B, which were designed to ensure that statistical analysis could continue, since the population of servant (or nonservant) leaders was significantly skewed. Originally, I established a method to determine which plans I would use for the final statistical analysis, as follows:

- Plan A only, if enough of both types of leaders were in the population to run the logistic regression with significance;
- Plan B only, if there were no leaders of one type in the population; or

- Plan A and Plan B, if there were both types of leaders, but both *t* tests were nonsignificant and an insufficient number of one type of leader existed to successfully run the logistic regression.

I used both plans in the final reporting of results. I designed the plans to answer the following research questions and hypotheses.

Plan A Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1A

What is the ratio of servant leaders to nonservant leaders in the U.S. management population?

Hypothesis 1A

$\mathbf{H_{A10}}$: $N_1 = N_2$. The ratio of servant leaders to nonservant leaders in the U.S. management population is equal, or 1:1.

$\mathbf{H_{A1a}}$: $N_1 \neq N_2$. The ratio of servant leaders to nonservant leaders in the U.S. management population is unequal, or not 1:1.

I divided the servant and nonservant leaders by using the SLI key code algorithm. I used a one-sample chi-square goodness of fit test to evaluate the hypothesis and to explain the sampled ratio to the hypothesized ratio.

Research Question 2A

How does the use of HPWPs by servant leaders compare to the use of HPWPs by nonservant leaders in the U.S. management population?

Hypothesis 2A

H_{A20}: $\mu_{H1} = \mu_{H2}$**.** The use of HPWPs by servant leaders is equal to that of nonservant leaders, where μ_{H1} represents the mean index of HPWPs use by servant leaders (the mean of *H*), and μ_{H2} represents the mean index of HPWPs use by nonservant leaders (the mean of *H*).

H_{A2a}: $\mu_{H1} \neq \mu_{H2}$. The use of HPWPs by servant leaders is not equal to that of nonservant leaders.

The hypothesis was evaluated using a *t* test, comparing the mean of *H* from each of two groups (servant leaders and nonservant leaders). A *t* test finds "the significance of the effect of independent variables on the dependent variable individually" using "a probability value" (Madeten, 2015, p. 6). The *t* test compared the mean of *H* for the two groups (servant leader and nonservant leader), to determine if a difference existed.

Research Question 3A

How does the use of CSP by servant leaders compare to the use of CSP by nonservant leaders in the U.S. management population?

Hypothesis 3A

H_{A30}: $\mu_{C1} = \mu_{C2}$**.** The use of CSP by servant leaders is equal to that of nonservant leaders, where μ_{C1} represents the mean index of CSP use by servant leaders (the mean of *C*), and μ_{C2} represents the mean index of CSP use by nonservant leaders (the mean of *C*).

H_{A3a}: $\mu_{C1} \neq \mu_{C2}$. The use of CSP by servant leaders is not equal to that of nonservant leaders.

The hypothesis was evaluated using a *t* test, by comparing the mean of *C* from each of two groups (servant leaders and nonservant leaders). The *t* test compared the

mean of *C* for the two groups (servant leader and nonservant leader), to determine if a difference existed.

Research Question 4A

How strongly can a U.S. leader's use of CSP or HPWPs predict whether the manager is or is not a servant leader?

Hypothesis 4A

$\mathbf{H_{A40}}$: $\beta_C = \beta_H = 0$. The usage of CSP and HPWPs by a leader will not predict whether the leader is a servant or nonservant leader.

$\mathbf{H_{A4a}}$: $\beta_C \neq 0$ and/or $\beta_H \neq 0$. The usage of CSP and/or HPWPs by a leader will predict whether the leader is a servant or nonservant leader.

The predicted relationship was analyzed using a logistic regression equation, where β_i is the *i*th coefficient in the standardized form of the logistic regression equation to answer the research question. The model used was the following

$$P_{SVL} = 1/(1+ e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_C + \beta_H)}$$

Plan A used chi-square, *t* test, and logistic regression to analyze the data and answer the research questions and hypotheses, as discussed in Analysis Plan A.

Plan B Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research questions for Plan B include the variables stated in Table 2, including the predictor variables *E* (empowerment), *V* (vision), and *S* (service), and the dependent variables *C* (CSP usage), and *H* (HPWPs usage).

Research Question 1B

How well do a leader's scores on *E, V,* or *S* predict that leader's *C?*

Hypothesis 1B

H_{B10}. $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$. A leader's scores on *E, V,* and *S* do not predict a leader's *C.*

H_{B1a}. β_1 *or* β_2 *or* $\beta_3 \neq 0$ At least one of a leader's scores on *E, V,* or *S* predicts a leader's *C.*

Model 1B

$C = \beta_0 + \beta_1(E) + \beta_2(V) + \beta_3(S) + e.$

Research Question 2B

How well do a leader's scores on *E, V,* or *S* predict a leader's *H*?

Hypothesis 2B

H_{B20}. $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$. A leader's scores on *E, V,* and *S* do not predict that leader's *H.*

H_{B2a}. β_1 or β_2 or $\beta_3 \neq 0$ At least one of a leader's scores on *E, V,* or *S* predicts that leader's *H.*

Model 2B

$H = \beta_0 + \beta_1(E) + \beta_2(V) + \beta_3(S) + e.$

Plan B used multiple linear regression analysis to answer the research questions and hypotheses, as discussed in Analysis Plan B.

Scale Reliability

Cronbach's α

Using SPSS, I measured reliability of each of the three scales in the survey questionnaire, using the Cronbach's α test, which determines whether measured items on

a scale are internally consistent (Bonett & Wright, 2014). Cronbach's α relies on the basis that "relative magnitudes of covariances between item scores compared to those of corresponding variances serves as a measure of similarities of the items" (Heo, Kim, & Faith, 2015, p. 1). Heo et al. expressed the following equation (p. 2):

$$C_\alpha = k/k\text{-}1\ (1 - \text{trace}\ (\mathbf{\Sigma})/\ 1^T\mathbf{\Sigma}1)$$

- where k items in an instrument create a covariance matrix $\mathbf{\Sigma}$, and
- *trace* is the sum of the diagonal elements of a square matrix, 1 is a column vector with k unit elements, and 1^T is the transpose of 1.

Bonett and Wright (2014) recommended reporting the sample value of reliability. I reported the results of Cronbach's α for each of the three instruments in the survey questionnaire: HPWSI and SPSI are both unidimensional instruments and SLI is multidimensional. I reported each instrument's Cronbach's α value, and each of the SLI's underlying dimension's value.

Analysis Plan A

Pearson's Chi-Square Goodness-of-Fit Test

Field (2013) described the Pearson's chi-square goodness-of-fit test as a way to compare a known population distribution to another, hypothesized population**.** The chi-square test, or χ^2 test, allows researchers to compare the counts of categorical responses between two independent groups. In this case, I used the test assuming equal proportions. The test is done typically by using a two-way contingency table which displays the frequency of occurrence of items of interest and items not of interest for each group; the hypothesis test uses a test statistic that is approximated by a chi-square (χ^2) distribution;

this is similar to the *Z*-test for the difference between two proportions, which provides a confidence interval of the proportion.

The hypothesis for the chi-square test is expressed as follows:

H_0: $\pi_1 = \pi_2$

H_A: $\pi_1 \neq \pi_2$

where π represents the population proportion of each respective group.

The test statistic is expressed as the following:

$$\chi^2_{stat} = \Sigma_{all\ cells} (f_o - f_e)^2 / f_e$$

where

f_o = observed frequency in a particular cell of a contingency table

f_e = expected frequency in a particular cell if the null hypothesis is true (normally that the proportions are equal).

Using SPSS v. 21 to calculate and report the chi-square distribution, I reported the degrees of freedom, critical values, and *p* values. Because I had a fairly large sample size, Field (2013) suggested that follow-up correction tests were not necessary.

Analysis Process for *t* test

Using SPSS v. 21, I followed the steps outlined by Laerd (2015) for an independent means *t* test. The *t* test appropriately answered Research Questions 2A and 3A because my data included the continuous dependent variable (*H* or *C*), and a categorical independent variable with two groups (*SVL*) required for independent samples *t* test (Laerd, 2015). The *t* test determines whether "a difference exists between the means

of two independent groups on a continuous dependent variable" (Laerd, 2015, *t* test, p. 1) and whether that difference is significant (p. 1).

Field (2013, p. 366) expressed the *t*-test equation for the null hypothesis as

$$t = [M_1 - M_2]/ \text{(estimate of standard error)}.$$

The assumptions for the *t* test include normality, independence, and common variance (Wood & Saville, 2013, p. 285). I checked for outliers, and did not remove any data. I reported the significance of the Shapiro-Wilk test for normality, and corrected violations (if $p < .05$) by reporting a Mann-Whitney U test (Laerd, 2015, "Dealing with violations", para. 4). Using ANOVA, I determined equal variances or nonequal variances in the population, and reported the *F*-statistic. Levene's test tested for any violation of the homogeneity of variance assumption (Laerd, 2015, "Assumption #6"). I reported the standard results and Welch *t* test, when appropriate (Field, 2013).

I reported the final inferential statistical results including the confidence interval, the *t*-value, the degrees of freedom, the *p*-value, and the results' significance. Based on these results, I rejected, or failed to reject the null hypotheses and accepted the alternative hypotheses, reported the findings, including providing relevant descriptive statistics, such as the *M, SD,* and group breakdowns (Laerd, 2015, "*t* test"). I used charts and graphs to depict findings and their importance.

Predictive Model: Logistic Regression

Researchers use logistic regression when they desire or hope to predict the levels of existence of one (or more) values of a variable, using values known from other variables (Daugherty, 2012, p. 55). Binary logistic regression assumes that the dependent variable (*Y)* has two values, typically shown as 0 or 1 (Osborne, 2015), such as "male"

and “female,” or as in my study, “servant leader” or “nonservant leader.” Independent variables *predict* the category of the logit of the dependent variable in binary logistic regression (Laerd, 2016).

Using logistic regression, I tested the final hypothesis and model for Plan A using SPSS and following the process explained by Osborne (2015), and stepped through by Laerd (2015). Logistic regression tested the probability that, based on the usage of CSP and HPWPs, SL was predictable. Assumptions of logistic regression include independence of observations, absence of high collinearity of independent variables, a nonsparse data matrix, perfect measurement, accurate model, and removal of outliers (Osborne, 2015, p. 86-117).

Logistic regression analysis using a dichotomous dependent variable with continuous predictor variables analyzed the data to test Hypothesis 4. Osborne (2015) explained that using logistic regression first determines the probabilities of being in a population (pp. 21-22). The probability of being a servant leader is

$$(P_{SVL}) = N_{\text{SVL}} / N_{\text{total respondents}},$$

and the probability of being a nonservant leader is

$$(1 - P_{SVL}).$$

Osborne (2015) provided an example of a social science problem solved with logistic regression where he predicted student dropouts (Y = 0, 1) from high school using continuous variables (x_1, x_2, $x_{3,\ldots}$). The intercept (or constant) is represented as b_0, b_x is the slope coefficient to determine the logit of Y, and e is the error term.

$$\text{logit}(Y) = b_0 + b_{x1} + b_{x2} + e$$

Field (2013, p. 762) expressed the logistic regression equation for the probability of *Y* using predictor variable x_1 as:

$$P(Y) = 1/1+e^{-(b_0+b1_{x1})}$$

where additional predictor variables can be added, infinitely (p. 763). In my study, two continuous variables were used in a logistic regression as predictor variables (*C* and *H)* to predict the dependent variable *SVL,* creating the following model:

$$P_{SVL} = 1/(1+ e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_C + \beta_H)}).$$

Interpreting and Reporting the Results. The omnibus tests of model coefficients table helped determine if the model was significant ($p < .05$). I reported the model's adequacy through the Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test, where fitness is shown when $p > .05$. The variance was explained through the Nagelkerke R^2 value (Laerd, 2015). Next, I calculated the percentage accuracy in classification of *SVL* using the predictor variables by comparing it to the original model without the predictor variables included (Osborne, 2015).

The Wald statistic resolved whether either *C* or *H* (or both) is a significant predictor; the odds ratio showed the change for "each increase in one unit of the independent variable" (Laerd, 2015, "binary logistic"). Case diagnostics showed any cases with residuals > 2.5. To handle potentially impactful outliers, Osborne (2015) recommended the use of studentized residuals, and dropping values > 4, while reporting both results. Reporting both sets of results provides additional analytical information of how outliers have influenced the results (pp. 105-106). In this case, dropping the outliers meant failing the initial assumption for binary logistic regression of a dependent variable with two groups. While Plan B was included in the initial proposal to handle such an

event, because there were some servant leaders in the population, I reported the final Box-Tidwell procedure results to test the linearity assumption, reported of the constant, and of each of the predictor variables (*C* and *H*), completing the model. The results of this analysis answered the fourth research question and hypothesis.

Analysis Plan B

Multiple Linear Regression

Multiple linear regression is used to determine how the variation in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variables, or to predict one variable based on another variable's value (Laerd, 2015, "multiple regression"). Multiple regression answered the research questions and tested the hypotheses to analyze whether leaders who score higher for empowering, vision, or service are more or less likely to use CSP or HPWPs. Garson (2014) provided the main effects multiple regression's equation as follows:

$$Y = {}_1(x_1) + {}_2(x_2) + {}_2(x_3) + c + e.$$

Previous theory determined the choice of three underlying scaled dimensions from the SLI as the strongest indicators of being a servant leader (Dennis & Winston, 2003). Those dimensions included empowerment, vision, and service (see Figures A4 and A5). Multiple linear regression allowed me to utilize those variables as potential predictors of CSP or HPWS, and test the predictive strength of each independent variable on the dependent variables. Multiple linear regression begins by evaluating all independent variables, and the best-subsets approach (McAllister, 2012) helped me to select the final and most appropriate regression model.

In my research, the dependent variable *Y* was alternatively *H* or *C* (HPWSs or CSP usage), and $x_{1,}$ $x_{2,}$ and x_3 were *E, V,* and *S* respectively. The models expressed with each dependent variable's hypothesis relate to this multiple regression model. I also addressed *F*-values through the ANOVA tables, and reported r^2, adjusted r^2, Mallows C_P, *t*-values, *p*-values, and VIF.

Assumptions. Multiple regression assumptions include (a) additivity and linearity, (b) independent errors, (c) homoscedasticity, (d) normally distributed errors, (e) uncorrelated predictor to external variables, and (f) the absence of multicollinearity (Field, 2013, pp. 309-312).

Independence of errors. I had no reason to expect related observations, and looked for a Durbin-Watson score close to the value 2. I reviewed and discussed values that were not close to 2 (Field, 2013).

Linearity assumption. I checked this assumption by using the scatterplot of the studentized residuals against the unstandardized predicted values (Laerd, 2015, "multiple regression in SPSS"). The scatterplot should show a linear relationship, and this explains overall linearity. Next, I checked all of the partial regression plots produced between each of the independent variables and the dependent variable selected. If any of those relationships are nonlinear, then the variables involved in the nonlinearity need to be transformed, and the analysis rerun to this point (Laerd, 2015, "multiple regression in SPSS").

Homoscedasticity. I reviewed the Levene's test for significance, to determine if the assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, looking for a Levene's test result of $p > .05$ (Field, 2013, p. 193).

Multicollinearity. Using the correlations table, I reviewed all independent variable correlations for any values > 0.7, the tolerance box for any values < 0.1, or VIF values > 10.

Outliers. I examined the case answers for outliers of greater than +/- 4 *SD*s; I explained my decisions regarding retaining or removing outliers (Osborne, 2015).

Normality of errors. Using the histogram of the errors and the P-P plot provided in the regression results, I interpreted skewness or kurtosis, and deviations from the standard line on the P-P plot. I looked for $M \approx 0$ and $SD \approx 1$ (Laerd, 2015).

Interpreting and reporting the results. Each of the model fit and model coefficients were reported. Best-subsets analysis and ANOVA both assisted with model fit.

Model fit. I reported the adjusted r^2, which is the portion of variation in *Y* that can be attributed to the regression model, adjusted for the number of independent variables (Laerd, 2015). I compared the *F*-statistic to the critical value of *F*, to report whether the overall model (comprised of the three independent variables *E, V,* or *S*) was significant. I used Minitab v. 17 to do a best-subsets analysis, and reviewed the Mallows C_P, adjusted r^2, VIF, and *p*-values of the remaining models to select the best fitting model.

***Estimated model coefficients*.** The coefficients table provides for each independent variable and the constant, whether the individual predictors are significant (i.e., their reported *p* values <.05), and their confidence intervals (Laerd, 2015). I reported the results, and created a table of the summarized analysis. From this table and the

subsequent regression model, a prediction was made of a leader's value of *C* or *H* based on known values of *E, V,* and *S*.

Threats to Validity

Threats to validity include multiple factors, and "a single study typically cannot maximize all types [of validity] simultaneously" (Luft & Shields, 2014, p. 552). This section explains and highlights the plan's threats to validity with the attempts to control the threats, or justify the methods that contribute to them. Arguably, empirical research results in a tradeoff between high interval validity and low generalizability or high external validity and low understanding of the underlying relationships among the variables (Siegmund, Siegmund, & Apel, 2015). In Chapter 5, I revisit these concerns while explaining their impact on my study's results.

External Validity

The validity of the participants' data through their responses to the questions was one threat to external validity in this study. Further, the length of the survey could contribute to potential fatigue of the participants. Even though SurveyMonkey panelists are uncompensated, the panelists are human, and could embellish answers, misunderstand questions, or rush through the survey. Methods to avoid these threats included a statement at the beginning of my study explaining the length of the survey with approximation of time it would take; the survey was broken into multiple online pages, as described in Chapter 3, Instrumentation. SurveyMonkey programmers and I designed the survey for ease of reading and viewing, in a comfortable font, and with radio buttons. It had a tablet–cell phone friendly option. The consent form explained how to answer the different types of questions appropriately, and encouraged truthful answers.

Another potential threat to external validity arises by virtue of the use of the SurveyMonkey panel of respondents. It is possible that the panel of U.S. business leaders were not representative of the general population of business leaders. Because the SurveyMonkey panel offered a charitable donation (of 50 cents per respondent) or Swagbucks (a type of bitcoined-style noncash credit toward "stuff") as a reward for completing a survey response, it is possible that the respondents in the panel had more users of CSP than the general population, or, instead, were more "capitalistic" and less likely to be servant leaders. It is possible these two canceled each other (there is no way to know which respondent chose what reward). This threat to validity should be considered a limitation on the generalizability of the potential results of this study.

A recent University of Nevada study on the generalizability of SurveyMonkey panels (in a comparison of them to Mechanical Turk and Qualtrics panels) found that SurveyMonkey panels typically have a slightly overrepresentation of older (>60 years of age) respondents as to the general population (32% SurveyMonkey panelists to 24% in the general population) and are overly inclusive of white respondents (Heen et al., 2014, pp. 2-3). Because SL studies have shown that servant leader behaviors increase with experience and age (Beck, 2014), this may have tainted the generalizability of the results of this study; however, I reported the demographic information to assist in controlling for validity concerns. I achieved a diverse reflection of demographic factors. Heen et al. (2014) found that panel platforms such as those of SurveyMonkey are an "extremely efficient and inexpensive method" (p. 6) to handle exploratory research on a national level, and that their advantages "far exceed their disadvantages" to external validity (p. 6).

Internal Validity

Internal validity "reflects the extent to which a causal conclusion based on a study is warranted" (Garousi et al., 2015, p. 679). As with external validity, it is possible that during the course of taking a survey, a respondent could become ill, be interrupted and forget the consent terms, or misunderstand the questions and respond inaccurately. To attempt to avoid these validity challenges, I broke the survey into pages, and chose instruments with direct, straightforward language. Another internal validity threat is from the instrument questions themselves. Previous studies found the questions valid and reliable, with results of Cronbach's $\alpha > .70$ for each instrument. My study results confirmed internal reliability.

Construct or Conclusion Validity

Construct validity threats relate to whether the measurements involved in the study actually measure what was attempted to be measured (Garousi et al., 2015, p. 679). Conclusion validity threats relate to experimental quantitative studies, and do not apply to this study, which is nonexperimental. I gave a great deal of attention and a priori review to my sample size decisions, to give at least 80% power to the results, and thus, attempt to overcome threats to construct validity. Effect size results will be included with the data analysis to assist with construct validity, and the data analysis will include a discussion of assumptions, whether they are met for each test, and will include data tools to assure readers of how well the conclusions relate to the measurements in the study (Garousi et al. 2015; Luft & Shields, 2014, p. 553).

Ethical Procedures

The method of obtaining survey participants for this study did not create any chance for emotional, physical, or psychological harm greater than that of normal life to any of the participants. The survey methodology included protections to survey panel members, as follows:

(a) I obtained Walden University IRB approval (number 05-12-16-037341) prior to submitting the surveys to panelists, with all requested changes implemented. The survey invitation included a statement of explanation for the purpose of my study, the potential for harm (minimal to none), projected answers to most potential questions a participant might have, a thorough explanation of the use of the results, and my contact information for questions. It provided a confidentiality statement, did not require that they sign or initial any documentation, and assured them that I would report only aggregated results in the completed research publications and papers.

(b) SurveyMonkey ensured that panel members receive no more than two invitations each week (Hickey, 2015, "ESOMAR"). The survey panel methods comply with the ESOMAR ethical requirements, which adhere to ISO 20252. SurveyMonkey uses a partner organization called CINT, which also complies with the ethical requirements of ESOMAR global organization (adhering to ISO 20252), ensuring that panelists cannot submit more than one response to a particular survey using technology such as RelevantID and TrueSample. These processes, along with explicit demographical profiling techniques, mean that the target audience is properly vetted and organized by sampling frame needs, while providing solid demographic data of the participants, and ensuring that the requisite number of potential participants is surveyed to ensure the

requested response rate (Hickey, 2015, “CINT”). Heen et al. (2014) noted that by using a partner organization to find survey panel members, the external validity assurances increase by creating a more generalizable population for the study panel. Thus, the inclusion of CINT by SurveyMonkey may have lessened the threat to validity mentioned earlier.

(c) CINT and SurveyMonkey required minimum ethical considerations to use the service, as follows:

- the purpose of the study described, generally;
- the estimated length of the survey instrument (time);
- promise statement of confidentiality and anonymity;
- a closing date for responding;
- access to full disclosure of incentive terms and conditions applying to the project;
- explanation of the background of the researcher;
- the ability to unsubscribe, opt out, or quit the survey without completing; and
- a privacy policy or statement (Hickey, 2015, “CINT”, slide 7).

(d) If participants opted out prior to completing the survey, their charity did not receive 50 cents, they were not placed into a weekly drawing for a sweepstakes opportunity, they did not receive Swagbucks, and their responses did not get included in the results. No other repercussions occurred.

Data treatment (including archival data). SurveyMonkey sent the data in SPSS and Excel ready file formats. I stored these in a cloud-based storage system called

Dropbox, and the file is password protected and encrypted. The only individuals with access to the data are my committee members, the Walden University IRB (if requested), and me. The data included no personally identifiable information (participants are anonymous). SurveyMonkey prohibits the transmission of such data. We received access to demographic information, but because we do not know who the potential respondents could have been, we cannot identify any participants.

I have shared the stored data and password with my committee members, and will protect it in the Dropbox account until completing the research, receiving approval from Walden University, plus five years. After 5 years, I will change the password and become sole owner of the data. I may use the data in the future to correlate, compare, or analyze it with similar research data about SL, HPWPs, or CSP. I may be required to make the data available to publishers who plan to publish the results of my study. Because the data set contains no personally identifiable information, no potential ethical concerns exist with future use.

Conflicts of interest or other ethical issues. I have no conflicts of interest within the research parameters. I have no financial interest in SurveyMonkey or CINT, except for the payment to them for the cost of the panel survey ($4500), including the survey design expert ($1500.00) who loaded the instrument into the survey, access to the survey panel, 50 cent/response charitable donation or Swagbucks, a gold package for one year, a pilot test of the instrument with results, and a guarantee of 300 responses with no missing data. SurveyMonkey provided the information needed for the IRB application and proposal (explaining their ethics process). The cost was $15/response, total. I requested bids from Survata and Cypher Research as well. Cypher Research did not

respond, but the quote from Survata was $25/response + programming fees (per hour). Thus, I felt the SurveyMonkey panel cost was equitable, and their terms were ethical. I have worked with SurveyMonkey in the past, and have found their products to be high quality and trustworthy.

Summary

In Chapter 3, I described my study's purpose, process for data collection using SurveyMonkey, methods to overcome validity, reliability, and ethics concerns, and analysis plans using a chi-square goodness-of-fit test, two *t* tests, logistic regression, and multiple linear (best-subsets) regression to analyze variables measuring CSP, HPWPs, SL, and SL's underlying dimensions of empowerment, vision, and service. This quantitative research study answered research questions regarding servant leaders' use of HPWPs and CSP. In Chapter 4, I provide the results of data analysis, and answers to the stated research questions.

Chapter 4: Results

I used a quantitative, nonexperimental survey method to collect data designed to answer six research questions regarding how servant and nonservant leaders use CSP and HPWPs. I selected participants anonymously and randomly from SurveyMonkey panel members. I analyzed the data using descriptive and inferential statistical analyses. In this chapter, I describe the pilot study and its results, explain the data collection process, follow the Chapter 3 data analysis plans, provide full statistical and analytical results of each of the research questions and hypotheses using inferential tests, and provide an overarching summary of results.

Pilot Study Results

The pilot test data collection occurred on May 17, 2016. I acquired 18 cases of participant responses via a random sampling process fielded by SurveyMonkey through its partner CINT. Participants picked between two reward options: either SurveyMonkey donated 50-cents to the charity of the participant's choice, or the participant received Swagbucks (noncurrency product points, similar to Bitcoins). Pilot participants answered 100 questions eliciting information about SL, CSP, and HPWPs (see Appendix E).

Data Examination and Cleaning

After receiving the study data results via the SurveyMonkey data download website, I downloaded IBM SPSS and Microsoft Excel data files. Each of these files contained answers from 18 participants. In the SPSS file, the SLI questions did not appear in the labels of the variable view window, but they did appear in the Excel view. I validated that the order of the questions was identical, and pasted the questions from the survey instrument Excel view into the 62-question variable list in SPSS. I notified

SurveyMonkey programming team of this anomaly, but they were unable to resolve the issue. The SurveyMonkey programming manager validated that my resolution method was appropriate (B. House, May 18, 2016, personal communication). I validated that each instrument question appeared in the list of variables, and named each variable in the data file to correspond to the questions in the instrument (see Table E1).

Missing data. There were no missing data. A validation check of the data showed that, after removing the *other* text options (which were empty), there were no missing items and no incomplete identifiers in the data sets.

Pilot analysis. I ran all of the statistical analyses and tests explained in Chapter 3 on the pilot data. However, because I had no servant leaders in my pilot study population, I could not conduct analysis Plan A. I successfully completed the Cronbach's analyses on the scales, and the tests in analysis Plan B.

Data Validation and Corrective Measures from Pilot

The SPSS data report included a few technical errors with string widths, and miscoded variable types. This issue created an error in the frequency reporting which prevented me from automatically calculating the mean, mode, and other statistics, and required manual updates to the data file. I noted this change because the SurveyMonkey programmer stated that an automated process was not possible, and therefore, I would need to manually calculate these same items in the final study.

Programming errors in the back-end of the data collection process necessitated change orders, as follows:

1. Age should be numeric, not string.
2. Widths for all variables should be "8."

3. Questions should be provided in SPSS results for SLI.
4. Engineering/manufacturing and IT should be added to the industry dropdowns.
5. Questions with 0-100 answers should be changed to numeric and scale.

I provided this feedback to the programming team at SurveyMonkey. The team replied that only number 4 on the list could be repaired on their end, and that I would need to manually resolve all remaining issues after the final study data collection occurred. I received approval from my chair, Dr. Jean Gordon, to proceed with the full study, and I notified SurveyMonkey to begin the final data collection.

Final Study Data Collection and Preparation

This section discusses the data collection for my final study. Data collection began on May 23, 2016, and ended on May 26, 2016. SurveyMonkey and its partner CINT corresponded with the participants who answered the questions in my survey.

Completion Statistics

SurveyMonkey and Cint emailed 428 potential participants a link to the survey. After opening the survey, 32 participants declined to participate and exited without answering any questions, while 38 did not have the requisite management or policymaking experience to continue forward with the survey. Although 349 completed the demographic section, 308 participants (88%) completed the entire 100-question survey. Of these, the first 18 responses were used for the pilot results, and were not included in the final results. This left 290 participants for the full study. Of the 290, three answered that they managed or created policy for “0” employees, and therefore they were

not eligible for the study. I deleted those three cases from my data file, leaving 287 participants for my final study.

Data Collection Discrepancies

I found slight discrepancies in the SPSS data file. I recoded the same items in the variable view (variable labels, type, width, question list for the SLI and SPSI, and decimal places) that I found problematic in the pilot study. I deleted the blank, unused variables that the SurveyMonkey form had created for names, IDs, and ISPs.

I found no data discrepancies different from the pilot study's discrepancies. I created the variables for running the tests using the compute variable format in SPSS. See Table E1 for the variable list that I used.

External Validity

I validated the data using the SPSS standard uploaded rules. The results of the data validation were that all data were valid. There were no missing data, as guaranteed by SurveyMonkey. I have discussed outlier treatment and normality issues within each of the data analysis tests within this chapter.

Baseline Demographic and Descriptive Statistical Characteristics

Out of $N = 287$ participants, 141 were female, 141 were male, and 5 were transgender or unsure. The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 65 years ($Mdn = 36$; $M = 38$, mode = 35, $SD = 9.74$). The participants represented 22 industries, with the most working in IT (15.7%), and 41 U.S. states, with nearly half residing in California (16%), New York (13.5%), Florida (8.7%), and Texas (8.4%). The participants worked in companies with 1 to 50,000 employees ($M = 2{,}705$; $Mdn = 213$; mode = 500; $SD =$

8,153). The 287 participants supervised or created policy for a range of 1 to 15,000 employees (M = 569, mode = 1, 20, SD = 2,262.51).

The participants had self-selected the leadership style with which they identified, and chose from a series of leadership style options (Table 4). The most frequent self-reported leadership style was inspirational leader and the least was Machiavellian, a style which Sendjaya and Cooper (2011) found to be the polar opposite of servant leadership. The SLI categorized only two of the 31 self-reported servant leaders as SLI-determined servant leaders. Table 4 shows the difference between self-reported style and SLI-determined style.

Table 4

Self-Reported Leadership Styles Compared to SLI-reported Style

Leadership Style	**Self-reported Style**	**SLI-determined Servant Leader**
Inspirational leader	90	1
Ethical leader	68	2
Transformational leader	35	1
Transactional leader	35	0
Servant leader	31	2
Machiavellian leader	6	0
Don't know	22	1
Total	**287**	**7**

Thirty-one participants self-reported as servant leaders and 256 self-reported as nonservant leaders (a ratio of 1:8, servant leaders = 10.8% of the participants). However, the SLI algorithm to delineate between servant and nonservant leaders categorized the participants differently, finding seven servant leaders, and 280 nonservant leaders (a ratio

of 1:40, servant leaders = 2.4% of *N*). The parameters of my study required that I use the SLI delineation for characterizing a participant as servant or nonservant leader, as opposed to their self-reported delineation.

Some remarkable findings regarding the participants included the following:

- Equal division between male and female.
- *SD* = 8,153 for number of employees/organization size; the largest outlier was organizations with 50,000 employees. I did not remove the six cases.
- The participants who scored as servant leaders using the SLI were produced as the only outliers in the multiple regression tables (discussed further in the results). I did not delete their cases because the answers to their questions, in total, reflected that they had read the question, and answered them thoughtfully, and in appropriately varied ways.
- Case #5 listed “0”s for all HPWPs items. This female salesperson from Maryland, supervised 4 out of 20 total employees. Her answers to the SLI and CSP questions were normal, so I did not delete her case. This only created an issue during the Box-Tidwell procedure for the logistic regression process.
- Case #279 listed all 1s for HPWPS, all 7s for SLI, and all 5s for CSP. This 54-year male, who worked in sales in Illinois, managed one employee in a company with one employee. He spent less than 3 minutes on the entire survey. Although I did not delete the case, it is likely he rushed through the questions. I preferred to err on the side of caution because he had only one employee, which may have lent to unusual work practices.

Leadership styles correlation. Since the SLI key code analysis resulted in my finding only seven servant leaders, the statistical analysis for the Plan A tests had low power. I correlated the self-identification to SLI identification of leadership styles in Table 4.

Cronbach's α and Scale Descriptions

I measured reliability of each of the three scales in the survey questionnaire, using the Cronbach's α test, which determines whether measured items on a scale are internally consistent (Bonett & Wright, 2014). HPWSI and SPSI are both unidimensional instruments, and therefore had one reliability value; SLI is multidimensional, so I reported each dimension's value and the overall instrument's value. All Cronbach's α results for each scale and underlying dimensions are provided in Chapter 4, Table 5. Every scale was internally reliable (Cronbach's $\alpha > .70$).

SPSI. The SPSI used a Likert-scale of 1–5, measuring whether nine CSP practices were used in the participant's workplace. All cases were valid, and the Pearson correlation was high, with the lowest item, "Our company does not tolerate unethical business behavior," of $r = 0.37$. The SPSI scale had a high level of internal consistency, Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.859$. The question with the highest agreement was "Employees are all respected and treated fairly," ($M = 4.34/5.0$) and the lowest was "Unions can represent and protect worker's rights," ($M = 3.84/5.0$).

HPWSI. This instrument measures each participant's best estimate of HPWPs used by and for their employees. All cases were valid, and the scale was internally consistent (Cronbach's $\alpha = .934$). The Pearson correlation was relatively high; its lowest item ($r = 0.49$) was "Offered flextime working." The most often used HPWP was "Have

access to a formal grievance and/or complaint system" (*M* = 58.34%); "Receive a formal personal performance appraisal/feedback on a regular basis" (*M* = 56.43%) was second highest; and "Are routinely administered attitude surveys to identify and correct employee morale problems" (*M* = 30.76%) was the least often reported used.

SLI. The SLI (Likert-scale 1–7) has positive and negative dimensions, and underlying character dimensions of empowerment, vision, and service deemed important by Dennis and Winston's (2003) review of the instrument, and Wong and Page's (2007) dimensions of "Development and Empowering Others," "Power and Pride," "Authentic Leadership," "Open, Participatory Leadership," "Inspiring Leadership," "Visionary Leadership," and "Courageous Leadership." The SLI has been found reliable in many previous studies (see Chapter 3, Instrumentation), but Dennis and Winston criticized its predecessor instrument for exhibiting multicollinearity issues. The Cronbach's α for the full instrument and each underlying dimension showed consistent, internal reliability. The Pearson correlation among the items was high, with nearly all > 0.3, except for two of the reverse-coded questions (which should be expected), with the lowest item, "I don't want to share power with others, because they may use it against me," $r = 0.173$. The full SLI scale had a high level of internal consistency determined by Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.971$. Table 5 displays all of the underlying dimensions, and full instrument values.

SLI positive attributes' reliability. The 54 positive attributes' scale reliability was Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.976$. The lowest item ($r = 0.24$) was "I am usually dissatisfied with the status quo and know how things can be improved."

SLI negative attributes (power and pride) reliability. The eight negative attributes' scale reliability scored Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.914$. The Pearson correlation among

the items was very high, > .50, and the lowest scoring item (r = 0.51) was "To be a leader, I should be front and center in every function in which I am involved."

SLI highest and lowest scoring dimensions. The positive factor dimension scored the highest level of reliability. Vision was the lowest scoring dimension of all of the measured scales (Cronbach's α = 0.740).

Table 5

Cronbach's α Levels of the Study Instruments

Scale	Number of items	Cronbach's α
SPSI	9	.859
HPWSI	21	.934
SLI-Full	62	.971
SLI-Positive	54	.976
SLI-Negative (also Power/Pride)	8	.914
SLI-Developing/ Empowering	16	.940
SLI-Authentic	11	.893
SLI-Open/Participatory	10	.922
SLI-Inspiring	7	.911
SLI-Visionary	5	.740
SLI-Courageous	5	.826
D&W-Empowerment	15	.936
D&W-Vision	5	.740
D&W-Service	7	.875

Data Plan A Results

Plan A included four research questions and hypotheses and used the variables *SVL*, *H*, and *C*. Statistical tests including chi-square, *t* test, and logistic regression assisted with answering the research questions.

Research Question 1A

What is the ratio of servant leaders to nonservant leaders in the U.S. management population?

Hypothesis 1A

H_{1A0}: *N1 = N2*. The ratio of servant leaders to nonservant leaders in the U.S. management population is equal, or 1:1.

H_{1Aa}: *N1 ≠ N2*. The ratio of servant leaders to nonservant leaders in the U.S. management population is unequal, or not 1:1.

Hypothesis Test

The hypothesis was tested using a Pearson's chi-square goodness-of-fit test, comparing the known population of servant to nonservant leaders (1:40) to the hypothesized population (1:1).

Assumptions

The data in this analysis met the two assumptions for a chi-square test: (a) the observations were from a random sample, and were independent from each other, and (b) there were no expected value cells where $n < 5$.

Outcome of the Test

The sampled participants showed a ratio of 1:40 servant to nonservant leaders. A chi-square goodness of fit distribution explained that the difference in the ratio between the hypothesized ratio of 1:1, and the observed ratio of 1:40, was significant, $\chi^2 (1, 287) = 259.683$, $p < .001$ (see Table 6). The null hypothesis was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was supported; therefore, there is evidence that the ratio of servant to nonservant leaders in the U.S. population is not 1:1.

Finding

The answer to Research Question 1A was that the proportion of servant leaders to nonservant leaders in the population, 1:40, is different from the hypothesized ratio of 1:1.

Table 6

Chi-Square Goodness-of-Fit for Servant: Nonservant Ratio

Servant Leader Test Statistics	
Chi-Square	259.683[a]
df	1
Asymp. Sig.	.000

Research Question 2A

How does the use of HPWPs by servant leaders compare to the use of HPWPs by nonservant leaders in the U.S. management population?

Hypothesis 2A

H_{2A0}: $\mu_{H1} = \mu_{H2}$. The use of HPWPs by servant leaders is equal to that of nonservant leaders, where μ_{H1} represents the mean index of HPWPs use by servant leaders (the mean of *H*), and μ_{H2} represents the mean index of HPWPs use by nonservant leaders (the mean of *H*).

H_{2Aa}: $\mu_{H1} \neq \mu_{H2.}$ The use of HPWPs by servant leaders is not equal to that of nonservant leaders.

Hypothesis Test

I selected the *t* test to answer Research Question 2A by determining whether a difference exists between the servant and nonservant leaders' mean of *H*.

Assumptions

Independence Assumption. The cases represent randomly sampled participants, with scores that are independent of each other. This assumption was met.

Normality Assumption. According to the Q-Q plots (Figure 4) of the *H* and *SVL* variables, both variables had normal distributions and therefore, this assumption was met.

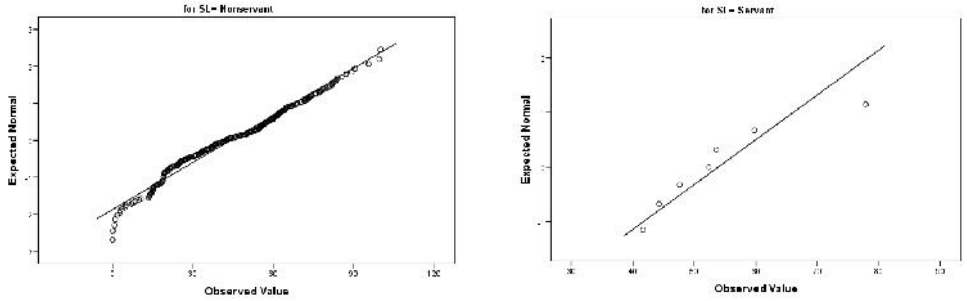

Figure 4. Q-Q plots for *H* and *SVL*.

Outcome of the Test

The variances between the two groups were not equal $F(1,285) = 1.192$, $p = .276$). The Levene's test results were significant ($p = .02$), so I reported the Welch *t* test results. Servant leaders ($M = 53.88\%$, $SD = 12.19$) used a mean difference of 9.8% more HPWPs than nonservant leaders ($M = 44.11\%$, $SD = 23.56$), $t(7.17) = 2.026$, $p = .08$, ns, 95% CI [-1.58, 21.11].

Finding

Null Hypothesis 2 was not rejected. This was a small effect size, $\eta^2 = .014$. The answer to Research Question 3 was that there was no difference in HPWPs usage between servant and nonservant leaders.

Research Question 3A.

How does the use of CSP by servant leaders compare to the use of CSP by nonservant leaders in the U.S. management population?

Hypothesis 3A.

H_{A30}: $\mu_{C1} = \mu_{C2}$. The use of CSP by servant leaders is equal to that of nonservant leaders, where μ_{C1} represents the mean index of CSP use by servant leaders (the mean of *C*), and μ_{C2} represents the mean index of CSP use by nonservant leaders (the mean of *C*).

H_{A3a}: $\mu_{C1} \neq \mu_{C2}$. The use of CSP by servant leaders is not equal to that of nonservant leaders.

Hypothesis Test

I selected the *t* test to answer Research Question 3A by determining whether a difference exists between the servant and nonservant leaders' mean of *C*.

Assumptions

Independence Assumption. The cases represent randomly sampled participants, with scores that are independent of each other. This assumption was met.

Normality Assumption. According to the Q-Q plots (Figure 5) of the *C* and *SVL* variables, both variables had fairly normal distributions and therefore, this assumption was met.

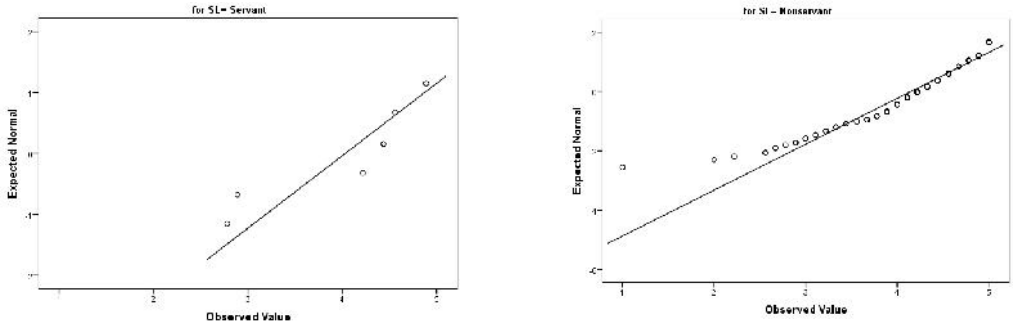

Figure 5. Q-Q plots for *C* and *SVL*.

Outcome of the Test

The variance between the two groups was not equal, $F(1, 286) = .215$, ns, $p = .643$. Levene's test was nonsignificant ($p = .216$). Servant leaders ($M = 4.03$; SD .84) used nearly the same level of CSP as nonservant leaders ($M = 4.15$; $SD = .65$) in my study, $t(285) = -.463$, $p = .64$, two-tailed, ns, 95% CI [-.60, .37].

Finding

Null Hypothesis 3 was not rejected. The answer to Research Question 3 was that there was no difference in my study's reported CSP usage between the two types of leaders.

Research Question 4A

How strongly can a U.S. leader's use of CSP or HPWPs predict whether the leader is or is not a servant leader?

Hypothesis 4A

H_{A04}: $\beta_C = \beta_H = 0$. The usage of CSP and HPWPs by a leader will not predict whether the leader is a servant or nonservant leader.

H_{AA4}: $\beta_C \neq 0$ and/or $\beta_H \neq 0$. The usage of CSP and/or HPWPs by a leader will predict whether the leader is a servant or nonservant leader.

Model 4A

$$P_{SVL} = 1/(1 + e^{-(\beta_0 + \beta_C + \beta_H)}).$$

The logistic regression analysis for this study was designed to show whether SL is predicted by a leader's use of CSP and HPWPs.

Assumptions

Self-evident assumptions included the use a dichotomous dependent variable (servant leader; nonservant leader), two or more continuous independent variables (*H* and *C*), and independent observations (Laerd, 2016).

Linearity assumption. Linearity of *C* and *H* with respect to the logit of *SVL* was assessed via the Box-Tidwell procedure. A Bonferroni correction was applied using two terms in the model, resulting in statistical significance (i.e., failure of the assumption being met) when $p < .025$ (Laerd, 2016). Based on this assessment, *C* ($p = .49$) and *H* ($p = .106$) met the linearity assumption, by being linearly related to the logit of *SVL* (see Table 7).

Table 7

Linearity Assumption Diagnostic Results

Variables in the Equation

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)
CSP	5.068	6.681	.576	1	.448	158.887
HPWPs	-2.000	1.235	2.621	1	.105	.135
Ln_CSP	-2.053	2.937	.488	1	.485	.128
Ln_HPWPs	.402	.249	2.609	1	.106	1.495
Constant	15.327	13.012	1.387	1	.239	4532628.98

Multicollinearity. The assumption of multicollinearity was not violated: the tolerance scores for both variables were > .1, and VIF scores were < 10 (Field, 2013, p. 795).

Table 8

Outliers: Servant Leaders

Casewise List						
Case	Selected Status	Observed Servant leader	Predicted	Predicted Group	Temporary Resid	Variable ZResid
1	S	S**	.037	N	.963	5.076
2	S	S**	.020	N	.980	6.989
3	S	S**	.020	N	.980	6.924
4	S	S**	.033	N	.967	5.448
5	S	S**	.026	N	.974	6.179
6	S	S**	.044	N	.956	4.664
7	S	S**	.020	N	.980	7.007

Decision regarding outliers. Every servant leader case was flagged by the regression as an outlier (Table 8), with studentized residuals > 2 (*SD* = 4.6—7.0). This left me with two options: (a) delete the servant leader cases, and end this section of analysis; or (b) retain the servant leader cases, and run the analysis. I had reviewed these seven cases during the initial data cleaning and screening, and the answers appeared to be honest, clear, and done with thoughtfulness; therefore, I chose the second option. These seven outliers make up the entirety of the servant leader group; a rare events bias (Allison, 2012) occurred. I discuss this next in Outcome of the Test.

Outcome of the Test

The initial output showed no missing cases, and 287 cases in the analysis, servant leaders (*n* = 7) and nonservant leaders (*n* = 280). This distribution is not optimal for logistic regression (Osborne, 2015). Allison (2012) called this situation in logistic regression the *rare events* effect. While the model is not a problem in such a situation, the "maximum likelihood estimation" will "suffer from small-sample bias" (p. 1), even

where a large sample exists, but the population distribution has one very small group and one very large group. Van Den Eeckhaut et al. (2006) explained that corrections for this can be done when the data set can use endogenous stratified sampling, or by correcting the probabilities to include the estimation uncertainty (p. 395). Their example, however, relied on the use of geographical survey mapping, and allowed for additional factors to be considered through a pre-gridded map of the terrain they were studying (p. 495). In my study, the SLI algorithm predetermined the categorization of servant and nonservant leaders. I had included Analysis Plan B to account for issues raised by rarity event bias. I therefore reported the logistic regression results, while noting the bias. I discuss, in Chapter 5, Important Outliers, the impact of rare event bias on the utility of logistic regression in my study, since all servant leaders in my study were considered outliers.

In the first model, with no predictors, the regression found that the predicted percentage correct was 97.6%. In the second model, with the predictors, the predicted percentage correct was unchanged. Neither variable, *H* or *C*, improved the predictive ability of the model.

The logistic regression model adequacy was poor, χ^2 (2, 287) = 1.57, p = .46, ns. The model explained only 2.7% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in the leadership style, as related to CSP or HPWPs. The Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit was poor (p = .11), ns. Sensitivity for SL was 0%, while specificity was 100% for nonservant leadership. Neither of the predictors was significant: *C* (p = .51), odds ratio 1.4, 95% CI [.52, 3.75], and *H* (p = .25), odds ratio .98, 95% CI [.95, 1.013].

Finding

The null hypothesis was not rejected, and thus there was insufficient evidence in favor of the alternative hypothesis (see Table 9). The answer to research question 4A was that neither HPWSs usage nor CSP usage predicted whether a respondent was a servant or nonservant leader.

Table 9

Logistic Regression Predicting SL by C and H

	B	**S.E.**	**Wald**	***df***	**Sig.**	**Odds Ratio**	**95% C.I. for Odds Ratio**	
							Lower	Upper
CSP	.334	.504	.438	1	.508	1.396	.520	3.748
HPWPs	-.019	.017	1.353	1	.245	.981	.950	1.013
Constant	3.264	2.142	2.322	1	.128	26.147		

Note: The logistic regression results were not significant, and provided no predictive ability for either CSP or HPWPs use.

Data Plan B Results

Data Plan B had two research questions, models, and hypotheses. It used multiple linear regression to analyze the results.

Research Question 1B

How well do a leader's scores on *E, V,* or *S* predict that leader's *C?*

Hypothesis 1B

H_{B10}. $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$. A leader's scores on *E, V,* and *S* do not predict a leader's *C.*

H_{B1a}. β_1 *or* β_2 *or* $\beta_3 \neq 0$ At least one of a leader's scores on *E, V,* or *S* predicts a leader's *C.*

Model 1B

$$C = \beta_0 + \beta_1(E) + \beta_2(V) + \beta_3(S)$$

Hypothesis Test

I ran a linear regression analysis using as predictor variables the dimensions Dennis and Winston (2003) believed had the most influence over whether a leader was a servant leader or nonservant leader (empowerment, service, and vision), to review their predictive nature for use of CSP. I initially used forced-entry, which included all predictor variables at one time, a decision supported by Nathans, Oswald, and Nimon (2012). The goal of the testing and analysis was to arrive at the best subset of variables, to find a holistic best model for prediction, supported by the statistics (McAllister, 2012). I used Mini-tab v. 17 for the best-subsets linear regression to select the models, and SPSS for the assumption testing and final linear regression analysis.

Assumptions

Independence. I calculated a Durbin-Watson statistic of 0.065. According to Durbin-Watson critical values table, with a sample size of 290, .065 is significantly below the lower and upper limits of d ($d_L = 1.73$, $d_U = 1.79$). Field (2013) suggested that a value closer to 2 is preferred. In time-series data, this could indicate that a positive, first-order autocorrelation of residuals is involved among the predictors, which might require a lag remedy (Godfrey, 1987). But, the data in this project were survey responses, not observations, and this statistic was not relevant (Laerd, 2016).

Multicollinearity. The VIF < 10 and Tolerance > .1 scores for each model showed that multicollinearity was not an issue.

Linearity. The scatterplots for each of *E, V,* and *S* showed that a linear relationship existed between the studentized and the unstandardized predicted values.

Normality. The standardized residuals had a fairly normal distribution, (*M* = -5.8, *SD* = .995), shown in the P-P plot (Figure 6).

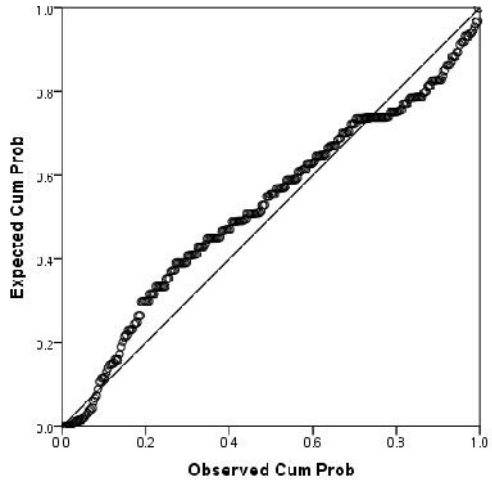

Figure 6. P-P plot for *C* and *E,V,* and *S.*

Outcome of the Test

The initial linear regression analysis provided the ANOVA results that were significant for *C* (Table 10), using all three of the predictor variables, *E, V,* and *S.* A review of the *F*-statistic and its *p*-value allowed for the conclusion that the model was significant.

Table 10

Linear Regression Analysis of Variance Output for C of Full Model

	SS	***DF***	***MS***	***F statistic***	***p-value***
Regression	47.480	3	15.827	61.299	.000
Residual	73.067	283	.258		
Total	120.547	286			

The Minitab v. 17 best-subsets results (Table 11) showed that of the eight potential models available using three predictor variables, the models with no predictors, vision alone, and empowerment and vision together were removed, suggesting they were not good fits to the data. Best-subsets analysis keeps only the "two best models for each number of predictors based on the size of the r^2 values" (Penn State University, 2016, R^2-values, para. 4), assisting researchers in eliminating models with lesser fit. It also provides a Mallows C_P value, which "is a goodness-of-fit measure that is frequently used for evaluating the linear regression model" (Miyashiro & Takano, 2014, p. 4). The model with the lowest Mallows C_P value and the highest adjusted r^2 value is typically the best model fit for the data (Wang, Sereika, Styn, & Burke, 2013, p. 2177). Using these parameters, the last model in Table 11, including all three variables, was the best fit.

Table 11

MLR Best-Subsets Data Analysis for C

Variables	***r*²**	**Adj. *r*²**	**Pred. *r*²**	**Mallows C_P**	***SEE***	***Empower.***	***Service***	***Vision***
1	35.9	35.6	34.0	16.5	.52090		X	
1	35.5	35.3	33.6	18.2	.52240	X		
2	38.8	38.4	36.3	4.8	.50969		X	X
2	38.4	37.9	35.7	6.8	.51147	X	X	
3	39.4	38.7	36.3	4.0	.50812	X	X	X

I ran multiple linear regression analyses on each of the possible combinations, and provided the results (Table 12), which showed that service and vision were both significant predictors at the 95% confidence level, but that empowerment was significant only at the 90% confidence level. Removing empowerment decreased the model's r^2 and adjusted r^2 value, showing that empowerment, while not significant at the 95% confidence level, was important to the model, thus validating the best-subsets model findings. Table 12 results confirmed the removal of Models D and E, as these models had the lowest adjusted r^2 values.

Table 12

MLR Results for C Using All Possible Models

Predictor	***r*²**	**B**		***t*-statistic**	***p*-value**	***VIF***
Constant[A]	.387	1.055		4.527	.000	
Service[A]		.249	.328	3.626	.000	3.824
Vision[A]		.129	.168	2.181	.030	2.753
Empowerment[A]		.148	.180	1.660	.098	5.487
Constant[B]	.384	1.147		5.051	.000	
Service[B]		.330	.434	6.754	.000	1.919
Vision[B]		.183	.238	3.697	.000	1.919
Constant[C]	.384	1.149		4.986	.000	
Service[C]		.242	.332	3.647	.001	3.823
Empowerment[C]		.256	.310	3.406	.000	3.823
Constant[D]	.366	1.139		4.811	.000	
Vision[D]		.134	.173	2.209	.028	2.752
Empowerment[D]		.377	.457	5.85	.000	2.752
Constant[E]	.290	1.743		7.743	.000	1.000
Vision[E]		.415	.538	10.781	.000	1.000
Constant[F]	.359	1.474		6.897	.000	1.000
Service[F]		.455	.599	12.620	.000	1.000
Constant[G]	.355	1.238		5.287	.000	1.000
Empowerment[G]		.491	.596	12.519	.000	1.000

Note: The model superscripts provide reference letters for discussion in the text.

Finding

The null hypothesis was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was accepted. Each of the variables predicted the use of *C* to some extent, and in various combinations. Empowerment, while not significant at the 95% confidence level in Model A (including all three variables), contributed to increasing the model's explanation of variation and had the lowest Mallows C_P score of 4.0. In Model B, where empowerment was not included, r^2 decreased, although both service and vision were significant ($p < .001$). In Model G, where empowerment was the only variable, the r^2 (35.5%) value was higher than r^2 in Model E, where vision was the only variable (r^2 = 29%). Model F, where service was the only variable, showed the highest relationship to the variability in the overall model (r^2 = 35.9%). Model A appears to be the best fit for predicting *C*, which means that each of service, vision, and empowerment scores of a leader predicts the level of *CSP* used by that leader, which answers research question 1B.

The final model, using the standardized coefficients from Table 12, Column B, Model A, was the following:

$$C = 1.055 + 0.148(E) + 0.129(V) + 0.249(S).$$

This model predicts that a leader who scored a 5 out of 7 on each of empowerment, service, and vision (an *agree they are used* score) would be predicted to use a value of CSP, on a 5-point scale (where 5 is *strongly agree they are used*) computed as follows:

$$C = 1.055 + (.148)(5) + (.249)(5) + (.129)(5) = 3.685.$$

I discuss possible implications regarding this final model in Chapter 5.

Research Question 2B

How well do a leader's scores on *E, V,* or *S* predict a leader's *H*?

Hypothesis 2B

H_{B20}. $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = 0$. A leader's scores on *E, V,* and *S* do not predict that leader's *H.*

H_{B2a}. β_1 or β_2 or $\beta_3 \neq 0$ At least one of a leader's scores on *E, V,* or *S* predicts that leader's *H.*

Model 2B

$H = \beta_0 + \beta_1(E) + \beta_2(V) + \beta_3(S)$.

Hypothesis Test

Similar to Research Question 1A, I used the same analysis method, substituting the dependent variable *H* in place of *C.*

Assumptions

Independence. I found independence of observations, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.897.

Multicollinearity. VIF < 10 and Tolerance > .1, so multicollinearity was not an issue.

Linearity. The scatterplots for each of *E, V,* and *S* showed that a fairly linear relationship exists between the studentized residuals and the unstandardized predicted values.

Normality. I reviewed the leverage values, and found none that were of concern (all < .2), and there were no Cook's Distance values > 1. The standardized residuals have a fairly normal distribution ($M = 2.4$, $SD = .995$), shown by the P-P plot (Figure 7).

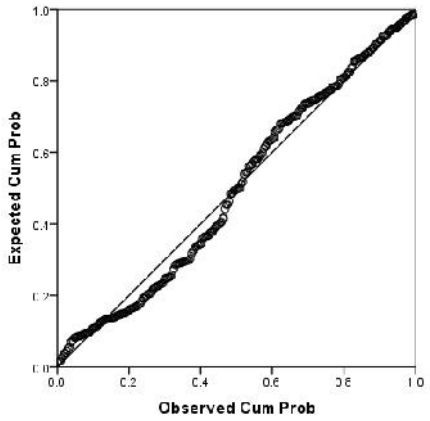

Figure 7. P-P plot for *H* and *E,V,* and *S.*

Outcome of the Test

The initial linear regression analysis provided the ANOVA results that were significant for *H* (Table 13), using all three of the predictor variables, *E, V,* and *S.* A review of the *F*-statistic and its *p*-value allowed for the conclusion that the model was significant.

Table 13

MLR Analysis of Variance Output for H of Full Model

	SS	***DF***	***MS***	***F statistic***	***p-value***
Regression	9858.63	3	3286.21	6.346	.000
Residual	146558.54	283	517.88		
Total	156417.17	286			

The Minitab v. 17 best-subsets results (Table 14) showed that of the eight potential models available using three predictor variables, the models with no predictors, with only service, and with service and vision together were removed as the worst fitting models. The model with the best fit was the third model in Table 14, where r^2 = 6.3 and Mallows C_P = 2.0; this model included both empowerment and service (but not vision).

Although empowerment alone had the lowest Mallows C_P (1.5) score, that model's r^2 value was .5% lower than the combined empowerment and service model, making the two models the two potential best fitting models.

Table 14

MLR Best-Subsets Data Analysis for H

Variables	r^2	**Adj.** r^2	**Pred.** r^2	**Mallows** C_P	***SEE***	***Empower***	***Service***	***Vision***
1	5.8	5.5	4.5	1.5	22.736	X		
1	4.0	3.6	2.6	7.1	22.959			X
2	6.3	5.6	4.5	2.0	22.719	X	X	
2	5.8	5.2	3.8	3.4	22.774	X		X
3	6.3	5.3	3.6	4.0	22.757	X	X	X

Using the data provided in Table 14, combined with the multiple linear regression analysis (Table 15), helped select the best fitting model. Model A (including all predictors) showed only empowerment as significant (p = .012), however, its VIF was > 5, which McAllister (2012) warned was suboptimal. The best-subsets analysis highlighted Model C, with empowerment and service, as the best model: it showed service as significant, but empowerment not significant. Model G, empowerment alone (with the lowest Mallows C_P score of 1.5) was significant; although Model G did not have the highest r^2 value, its adjusted r^2 value (5.5) was close to Model C's value (5.6), which had a Mallows C_P score of 2.0. Because service had a negative relationship to the use of HPWPs, and appears as significant in Model C and in Model F, and Model C was the best fit according to the best-subsets regression results, I selected Model C as the best fitting model for discussion in the final results of my study.

Table 15

MLR Results for H Using All Possible Models

Predictor	r^2	B		*t*-statistic	*p*-value	*VIF*
Constant[A]	.053	2.851		.273	.785	
Service[A]		-3.869	-.135	-1.198	.232	3.824
Vision[A]		.554	.020	.209	.835	2.753
Empowerment[A]		10.121	.341	2.531	.012	5.487
Constant[B]	.042	9.120		.891	.374	
Service[B]		1.814	.066	.824	.411	1.919
Vision[B]		4.252	.153	1.902	.058	1.919
Constant[C]	.063	3.255		.318	.751	
Service[C]		-3.676	-.134	-1.196	.002	3.823
Empowerment[C]		10.581	.357	3.175	.223	3.823
Constant[D]	.058	1.605		.154	.877	
Vision[D]		.490	.227	2.377	.854	2.752
Empowerment[D]		6.740	.018	.184	.018	2.752
Constant[E]	.040	12.394		1.315	.190	1.000
Vision[E]		5.527	.199	3.425	.001	1.000
Constant[F]	.030	16.705		1.764	.079	1.000
Service[F]		4.711	.172	2.950	.003	1.000
Constant[G]	.058	1.966		.193	.847	1.000
Empowerment[G]		7.157	.241	4.195	.000	1.000

Note: The model superscripts provide reference letters for discussion in the text.

Finding

The null hypothesis was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis was accepted. Model G, which included only empowerment showed the most significant results for predicting a leader's use of HPWPs; however Model C explained the most variation of all models, and suggested that service and empowerment both predicted the use of HPWPs, where empowerment had a positive relationship to *H* and service had a negative relationship, answering research question 1B.

The final model, using the standardized coefficients from Table 14, Column B, Model C, was the following:

$$H = 3.255 - 3.676(S) + 10.581(E).$$

This model predicts that a leader who scored a 5 out of 7 on each of empowerment and service would be predicted to use a value of HPWPs, where HPWPs could equal 0 – 100%, computed as follows:

$$H = 3.255 + (-3.676)(5) + (10.581)(5) = 3.255 – 18.35 + 52.905 = 37.81\%.$$

The amount of HPWPs used by such a leader was less than the mean used by the sampled respondents (M = 44.35%). I discuss the implications further in Chapter 5.

Summary

The results of this study answered some research questions and tested the hypotheses about whether servant leaders use CSP and HPWPs differently than nonservant leaders, and left others unanswered. The initial chi-square analysis provided evidence that nonservant leaders significantly represent the super-majority of leaders in the population. Because of the low occurrence of servant leaders in the subject population, the statistical examination of the initial *t* tests resulted in nonsignificant results, failing to reject the null hypothesis. The logistic regression was not significantly predictive. A rare events bias contributed to the nonsignificant results.

However, Plan B had more promising results. Both multiple linear regression analyses showed that scores on at least one variable of empowerment, service, or vision from the SLI could predict the use of CSP or HPWSs by a leader. For CSP usage, scores on service and vision had a significant positive impact, whereas empowerment scores significantly affected CSP only when service was not part of the model. Even so, at the

90% confidence level, each of empowerment, service, and vision predicted CSP use, and the inclusion of empowerment did increase the contribution to the variation in the models. Each scale had positive predictability, with service's impact on the model the most significant. For HPWSs, empowerment scores significantly and positively impacted the leader's HPWSs usage, vision had little impact, and service had a negative effect. The predictor variables of empowerment and service counteracted each other, and their significance depended on the existence of the other. I discuss the potential implications of these results in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

I designed this quantitative, nonexperimental, survey study in order to learn more about how U.S. business leaders use HPWSs and CSP. I wanted to know whether leadership styles, specifically SL, made a difference in how leaders used HPWPs or CSP. I planned to divide my study respondents into servant and nonservant leaders, and use inferential statistical analysis to answer four research questions. In the event that a rare events biased occurred, where very few servant or nonservant leaders existed in the population, I also planned to look at participants' scores on empowerment, service, and vision, to see if leaders who exhibited those qualities used HPWPs or CSP differently. Dennis and Winston's (2003) study of the SLI found that a leader's traits of empowerment, vision, and service best predicted servant leader behaviors.

I set multiple goals for my study: (a) gather data and create inferences to guide future SL-, HPWS-, or CSP-related studies; (b) provide insights into how servant leaders use HPWPs and CSP; (c) determine whether leadership styles affect the use of HPWPs and CSP; and (d) extend the research of Zhang et al. (2014) and Jensen et al. (2013). Cascio (2014) identified a business need to find more balanced, ethical, community-focused leaders, and Parris and Peachey (2013) suggested servant leaders for that role. My results showed that different leaders use HPWPs and CSP differently, but found few servant leaders (at least as determined by the SLI) holding leadership roles in the U.S.

Nonservant leaders significantly outnumbered servant leaders, with a ratio of 1:40 servant to nonservant leaders in my study (answering Research Question 1A). This meant the Research Questions 2A, 3A, and 4A answers were inconclusive, reflecting what Allison (2012) called a rare events bias. However, scores on the underlying SLI

dimensions of employee empowerment, long-term vision, and service provided significant answers to Research Questions 1B and 2B. The multiple regression analyses showed that leaders who score one unit higher on empowering employees used 10.1% more HPWPs. While leaders' long-term vision had little impact on their use of HPWPs, their long-term vision characteristic significantly predicted positive CSP use. A leader's score on the service characteristic negatively related to HPWPs use, but positively and significantly related to CSP use. The HPWPs regression Model C (see Table 14) only accounted for 6.3% of the variation in HPWPs usage, while the CSP regression Model A (Table 12) accounted for nearly 40% of the variation in CSP use. (See Figure 8).

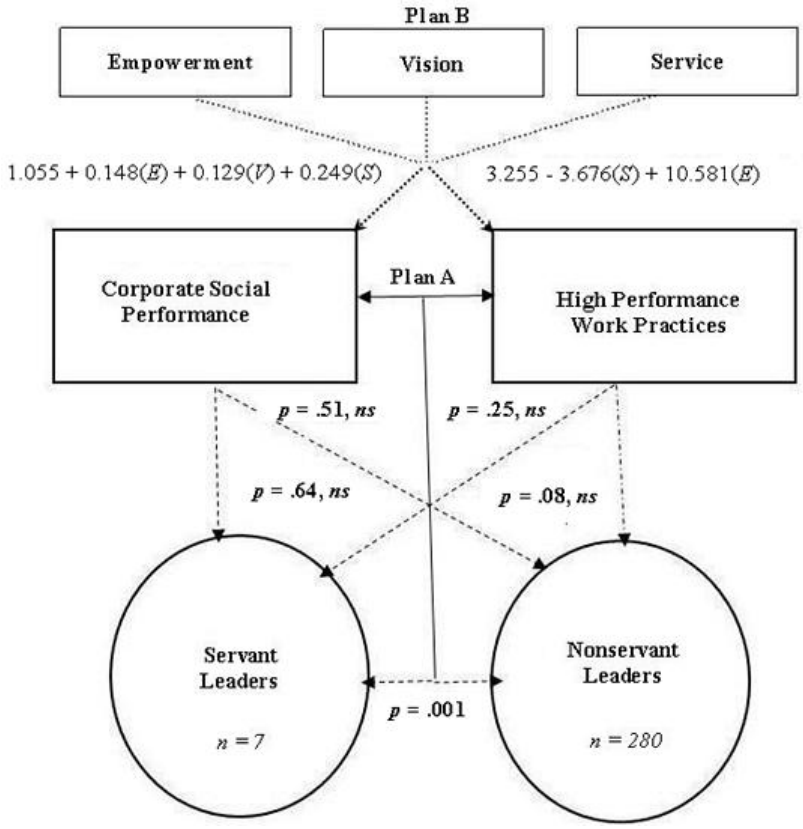

Figure 8. My CSP, HPWPS, and SL Model.

Interpretation of Findings

With this study, I specifically hoped to extend the research by Zhang et al. (2014) and Jensen et al. (2013), and respond to calls by Posthuma et al. (2013) for HPWPs research and by Parris and Peachey (2013) for SL research. Zhang et al. showed that implementation of HPWSs and CSP affected employees' attitudes, extra-role behaviors, and engagement with their organizations. Zhang et al.'s study was the first to include the HPWPs framework and CSP theory in the same, quantitative study. They validated the concept that employee interests and perceptions are important when implementing HPWPs. Also, in demonstrating that profit-oriented HPWPs were more likely to damage employees' health, they furthered the idea of using *win-win* versus profit-orientated HPWPs (p. 431). Zhang et al. focused on employee perceptions, and then suggested future researchers look at how leadership style influences the use of HPWPs or CSP.

Similarly, Jensen et al. (2013) found that an overuse or incorrect blend of HPWPs can increase employee anxiety levels, role overload, and turnover intentions. They found that when workers have control over their job functions, HPWPs tended to keep anxiety and role overload feelings stable; however, when workers have little control over their job roles, adding HPWPs to the mix increased anxiety and role overload. Jensen et al. stated that their research results did not provide information about "whether effects related to the employee's manager, such as managerial style" (p. 1716). Posthuma et al. (2013) and Rabl et al. (2014) separately updated Combs et al. (2006) meta-analysis of HPWPs. Each research group explained that more information and quantitative studies were needed to show differences in how HPWPs are used by industries, genders, leaders,

or locations. Posthuma et al. requested data to assist with advancing the HPWPs-framework into theory.

My study results showed that leaders who empower or serve their employees, also use HPWPs differently from leaders who do not empower or serve their employees. Rabl et al. expressly posited that managerial styles affect the success of HPWSs, more so than culture or location. My study results lead me to believe that it is quite possible that certain styles of leaders affect how HPWPs are used.

I have begun the process of determining whether leadership style makes a difference on either HPWPs or CSP usage. I chose to study SL because Parris and Peachey (2013) suggested that servant leaders can best balance the needs of workers with the needs of business. While the dearth of servant leaders in the population led to nonsignificant findings for the servant leader research questions, the underlying dimensions of the SLI allowed me to consider the way in which leadership traits of empowerment, vision, and service created differences in CSP and HPWPs usage. The findings from the underlying dimensions showed that leaders who score higher on the empowerment dimension also use more HPWPs, and leaders who were more visionary and service-oriented used more CSP. One of the best fitting models in my findings indicated that service-oriented leaders used less, not more, HPWPs.

This negatively correlated trait of service to HPWPs usage leads me to consider findings by Combs et al. (2006) and Posthuma et al. (2013). They showed that the least motivating work practice is performance appraisal, while coaching and mentoring was a better practice for increasing the motivation of employees. Service-oriented leaders are known for their ability to coach and mentor their employees (Christensen et al., 2014).

While performance appraisal appears on the list of HPWPs, coaching and mentoring does not. In light of current strategies of removing performance appraisal from performance management, and including instead, coaching (Russell, Broomé, & Prince, 2015, p. 68), future HPWPs instruments may need to include coaching and mentoring as a choice, which could change the negative correlation of service to HPWPs usage.

The statistical finding that high service-oriented leaders used 3.689% per unit measure less HPWPs than other leaders suggests that perhaps this aspect of HPWPs and service to others has a connection (see also, Recommendations). Shin and Konrad (2014) showed, quantitatively, that HPWSs use feedback loops to provide negative or positive indications as to whether each or any of the HPWPs involved in the system actually work to increase production. They stated that "executives may be particularly incentivized to forgo longer-term investments when financial performance is poor because doing so maximizes retained earnings, and hence, executive bonuses" (p. 8). Their results showed HPWSs to be adaptive, and reliant upon the leaders who allow such systems to exist and who fund (or defund) the systems (p. 19). My study did not provide conclusive evidence that the SL style matters for using HPWPs, however, it provided evidence that 6.3% of the predictability of why HPWPs are used may rest on a leader's view toward empowering employees, and that those who were more service-oriented may select less HPWPs.

Service-oriented individuals were twice as likely to use CSP as those scoring higher on vision, or empowerment. This was not a surprise, nor did it really fill a gap in the literature, however, it confirms the Christensen et al. (2014) study results, which showed that the SL style includes CSR as part of its definition and its outcome (p. 173).

The fact that leadership style contributed nearly 40% of the variance in CSP usage, however, was a significant finding in light of the initial research questions.

Vision-oriented leaders were mostly neutral on using HPWPs and CSP. De Waal and Sivro (2012) found that the HPO framework's long-term orientation did not match up to the SL style, something that conflicted with Dennis and Winston's (2003) finding that long-term vision was an important dimension of SL. My study results showed that long-term vision did not predict HPWPs usage. Vision scored the lowest of all dimensions on internal reliability in the SLI. It is possible that HPWPs use is mediated by vision-orientation, or by SL, although that finding is beyond the scope of this study. It is also possible that the HPO framework is just different enough from the HPWPs framework as to have seen these different results. It also could mean that long-term visioning is not part of the SL framework, after all.

Similar to my findings, de Waal and Sivro (2012) found few servant leaders for comparison. Other studies either purposively hand-selected participants who were already identified as servant leaders, or failed to provide details on the actual numbers of servant leaders found in the studied populations. My study highlights a concern that the number of servant leaders in the general business leadership population appears quite low; if Parris and Peachey's (2013) view that servant leaders are needed to solve businesses' ethical issues is accurate, then more servant leaders need to be hired. Unfortunately, my study did not conclusively show that we can predict servant leaders from their usage of HPWPs or CSP, nor does it explain why so few servant leaders exist today. However, Van Dierendonck et al. (2014) showed that when environments were certain**,** SL scored the highest of all forms of leadership towards satisfying their employees' needs, and

increasing their employees' work engagement (p. 554), but scored lower when environments were difficult. I discuss this further in Recommendations.

Begum et al. (2014) extended different aspects of Zhang et al.'s (2014) research than my study attempted to extend; they looked at the moderating aspect of extra-role behaviors on HPWPs and CSP usage. They concluded that people who volunteer extra efforts at work create a competitive advantage for organizational productivity, and therefore, they recommended that recruiters focus on finding people with those tendencies. Begum et al. triggered my desire to find similar ways to encourage recruitment of servant leaders. The fact that service-oriented people may use less HPWPs than nonservice-oriented people could indicate that they realize that overusing certain HPWPs can hurt employees by overwhelming them. It could also mean they choose different HPWPs from other leaders.

The most conclusive finding that this study made was that leaders who scored the highest on the empowerment dimension on the SLI used the most HPWPs. Dennis and Winston (2003) found that empowerment was the strongest dimension of the SLI for predicting whether a person was a servant leader. It makes logical sense that using HPWPs is a way to empower workers, and therefore, those who wish to empower their workers might use more tools to do so. It also confirms the recent moves by organizations to empower workers, using concepts promoted by Jensen et al. (2013), since, logically, empowering and control go hand-in-hand.

Limitations of the Study

My study had limitations. First, SurveyMonkey panelists, by virtue of their total anonymity and receipt of Swagbucks or charity donations on their behalf, could possibly

have been biased, untruthful, or in a hurry. Some of the outlier cases that were discussed suggested that the outlier participants might have been less than attentive to the questions in the study. The SLI questionnaire, in being so long, may have frustrated the respondents and caused them to rush. While it was the only leader-oriented instrument available, and had been found reliable in previous studies, it needs to be reduced to a shorter, more nimble, and more refined set of questions that can be assured of capturing the servant leader characteristics. Fortunately, the underlying dimensions of the SLI (and servant leaders) have been thoroughly measured, studied, and explained in previous studies, and the Dennis and Winston (2003) study along with Wong and Page's (2007) work helped me to address these limitations through the use of the Plan B dimensions analysis.

Finally, a delimitation meant that only those respondents willing to answer 100 questions could be participants. This meant my study might have missed data from people who might be servant leaders, but avoided a survey with 100 questions.

Each of the survey's instruments had >.70 results on the Cronbach's α analysis, including the underlying dimensions of the SLI. Thus, even though these limitations on the results of my study are important, the internal measurements confirmed that the instruments were internally reliable.

Important Outliers

My study found very few true servant leaders (as defined by Wong & Page, 2007) existed in the business leadership population; in fact, the casewise listing of outliers in the logistic regression (see Chapter 4, Table 8) flagged every servant leader as the only set of outliers in the entire data set. This indicated that servant leaders were so unusual as to be outliers (the only ones). One well-known concept about outliers is that they are

often removed from studies (Osborne, 2015). I did not delete the seven servant leader outliers, because the remaining answers to their other questions were normally distributed.

Aguinis and O'Boyle (2014) warned HRMs about the problem of using the bell-curve and outliers in performance management. They stated that star performers, by virtue of their outlier status, are "often treated as a data 'problem' because the normal distribution cannot account for such extreme levels of productivity" (p. 313), and therefore, these outliers either are *deleted* (i.e., terminated), or ignored (p. 314). Similarly, it is possible that servant leaders, as a result of their being outliers in a population, are the first to be culled when culling begins; it could also have contributed to the researchers clamoring for SL studies after the recession's significant worker-population decline, a time when servant leaders may have just been terminated. Unfortunately, I have not found conclusive statistics on how many servant leaders existed before the recession. Thus, it may not be possible to conduct research to determine whether servant leaders are more or less available today than before.

Recommendations

The answers to my study's research questions raised many more questions, which provide opportunities for future research. The following findings gleaned from the descriptive statistics could lead to additional studies using this data set, as follows:

- A perfect division between males (n = 141) and females (n = 141) could provide future researchers the ability to gauge whether differences between how males and females use HPWPs and CSP, or on how they use any of the underlying items in each of the instruments.

- Seven participants were coded by the SLI as servant leaders, while 31 self-identified as servant leaders, providing future researchers the ability to discern differences between those two groups, to further the Dennis and Winston (2003) research.
- Self-identified styles of leadership provided five groups of leadership types, which could be compared to the data regarding HPWPs, CSP, and each of the underlying questions in those instruments.
- Out of seven SLI-identified servant leaders, six were female and one was male; Duff (2013) stated that gender was a variable that needed to be studied with respect to servant leaders' proportions, and future studies should consider adding it to their research questions.
- The cases' answers to HPWSI questions could be used to assist with providing detailed information about each of the underlying types of HPWPs and how different types are used by industry, gender, leader type, or leadership dimension, furthering in greater measure, Posthuma et al.'s (2013) call for research.

Some questions raised by this research not answerable by this data set, that could lead to future research include the following:

- If CSP is important to servant leaders, why is it not discussed in the SLI?
- If humility and vulnerability are each part of SL, then why do some researchers feel that it is a misperception that servant leaders are meek or weak?

- Were servant leaders culled during the last recession as a result of their outlier-styled behaviors, or because they do not function as well in difficult environments?

These questions are not answerable by the current data set, and will require future studies with new populations, and perhaps qualitative or mixed-methods studies.

A significant part of the SL literature has covered the instrumentation for SL. Table 3 reviewed many SL instruments, and Chapter 2 contained lists of terminology showing the differing views of what makes a person a servant leader. Not only is the SLI too long, it does not seem to represent entirely what current research agrees makes up a servant leader. It is unclear why the SLI has so many questions covering the same concepts, and as seen in my study, 29 of the 31 participants who believed they were servant leaders were not categorized as servant leaders by the SLI. It would be interesting to replicate this study with a shorter, and more relevant, leader-focused SL instrument. This, too, creates the potential for future research.

Implications

The implications of this study were less significant and remarkable than I had hoped upon beginning this work. However, there are potential impacts for positive social change. First, this research can and shall be disseminated through ProQuest, the use of scholarly journals, or if necessary, self-publication, in order to assist with contributions to the scholarly research areas of SL, CSP, and HPWPs.

Next, I intend to contact multiple SL organizations (Gonzaga University, Larry Spear's SL organization, and the Greenleaf Servant Leadership Institute) to determine interest in my study's results. These organizations can help to publish the concern that

few servant leaders exist in the population. I also plan to contact researcher Bruce Winston, from Regent University, to discuss whether my data or research could assist him with his work on creating a better SL instrument. Creating a shorter and more efficient instrument would assist researchers in conducting SL research, which in turn, could create positive social change when the findings for that research are disseminated.

Because the findings regarding whether servant leaders use more or less CSP or HPWPs were inconclusive due to the size of the population, I will encourage other research (and hope to engage in it), attempting to see if other leadership styles show differences among their usage of CSP or HPWPs. In doing so, and by providing a model for how to engage in such research, others who may attempt to replicate this study, while using other leadership styles, could also provide important ideas and data toward leadership studies, as well as CSP or HPWPs research.

I had hoped to provide recruiters with some ideas for questions to ask potential leaders when interviewing them for leadership positions. The following questions would be appropriate, based on the limited results of this study:

- What style of leader do you consider yourself?
- Which of the following traits do you consider the most important: service to others, empowering others, or long-term vision, and why?
- In your past positions of leadership, explain whether you encouraged or discouraged the use of each listed HPWP.
- In your past positions of leadership, did you allow or encourage your employees to engage in CSP outside of or during work hours?

Based on the answers to these questions, it may be possible to discern who is more likely to be a servant leader or not a servant leader. Recruiters should look for answers that show that a person uses less HPWPs while more CSP, finds serving others to be critical, as well as empowering others. Long-term vision was not conclusively part of the relationship to HPWPs use, but was for using CSP. While those questions may help a recruiter, this study did not provide conclusive evidence that the answers a person gives means they are clearly a servant leader, or, that they can balance the use of HPWPs and CSP in healthier ways. These questions await future studies regarding these topics, to help HRM researchers move forward toward those answers.

Conclusions

SL remains an enigmatic leadership style. Of all of the styles of leadership, it is often and regularly described as having spiritual, healing, ethical, and nearly martyr-level properties. Many researchers cited and named in this study have claimed that the SL style has the potential to solve our nation's ethical crises, our economic crises, and our leadership crises. Multiple researchers have called out for more studies on the topic of SL, and this research attempted to assist with that request.

Having too few members of a population to study makes it difficult to persuade people to study this theory. No one goes into research hoping for low power, disproportionate populations, and inconclusive results. Perhaps the reality is that servant leaders are outliers; no instrument will find leaders who do not exist. This means that studies about servant leaders may not be powerful. If so, the only way for that power to be created is for more servant leaders to be hired, trained, created, and empowered. This study has encouraged me to consider as a goal in life, finding, hiring, and promoting the

hiring of servant leaders. I am hopeful that my study has encouraged others who read it to do the same, or at least, to assist with research activities in finding out more about servant leaders.

HPWPs as a framework, remains an essential element of the roles and duties that front-line HRMs engage in on a daily basis. The concepts of paying for performance, performance appraisal, promotions based on performance, job sharing, flexwork, training, and other practices are important and effect how the workplace operates, in nearly every business in the world. Most adults spend the majority of their waking, productive hours in a workplace. Therefore, the type of HPWPs used by management remains integral to how well an organization operates, and how engaged, happy, productive, and loyal its workforce may be. Whether leadership style affects how HPWPs are used, however, is still not clear. What seems clearer is that empowering workers appears to be a critical item that stands out in the fog of inconclusive results. Empowering HPWPs, or *win-win* HPWPs, as recommended by Zhang et al. (2014), should be part of HRM organizational processes.

Similar to HPWPs, CSP has been an incredibly newsworthy business concept and endeavor in the past few decades, and especially in the past five years. Similar to SL, the results of my research, as well as the reviewed literature, shows that CSP theory in practice remains vague and biased. Greenwashing, political correctness, and concerns about overwhelmed employees have caused CSP to become a divisive topic in the workplace.

I set out to create a research project that would help answer some of these questions. I leave this project with as many, if not more questions, than those with which

I started. My goals for the project, however, were greatly met. It is my hope that those who read my dissertation finish with a better understanding of SL, CSP, and HPWPs, and how they work. Finally, if my study saves even one servant leader from being terminated in the next round of massive employee layoffs, then, in my opinion, positive social change will have occurred.

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Appendix A: SLI: Servant Leader Instrument History

The Wong and Page Leadership Self-Profile (2000) consisted of 12 dimensions, and 99 questions. Dennis and Winston (2003) analyzed it through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and provided information about the dimensions, which Wong and Page used in their 2007 update. The items denoted with an * were confirmed reliable by Dennis and Winston's analysis. I reproduced their 2000 instrument here with permission:

This instrument was designed for individuals to monitor themselves on several leadership characteristics. Please use the following scale to indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the descriptors of your leadership.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly	Disagree		Undecided		Strongly	Agree

For example, if you strongly agree, you may circle 7, if you mildly disagree, you may circle 3. If you are undecided,
circle 4, but use this category sparingly.

I. Integrity.
1. I am genuine and candid with people.
2. I am willing to be vulnerable in order to be transparent and authentic.
3. I practice what I preach.
4. I am more concerned about doing what is right than looking good.
S. I do not use manipulation or deception to achieve my goals.
6. I believe that honesty is more important than group profits and personal gains.
7. I promote tolerance, kindness, and honesty in the work place.
8. I want to build trust through honesty and empathy.
9. I would not compromise ethical principles in order to achieve success.

II. Humility.
1. I am always prepared to step aside for someone more qualified to do the job.
2. Often, I work behind the scene and let others take the credit.
3. I readily confess my limitations and weaknesses.
4. When people criticize me, I do not take it personally and try to learn something from it.
5. I do not seek recognition or rewards in serving others.*
6. I choose the path of humility at the risk of inviting disrespect
7. I learn from subordinates whom I serve.*
8. I readily admit when I am wrong.
9. I find it easier to celebrate a colleague's accomplishments than my own. .
10. I regularly acknowledge my dependency on others.

III. Servanthood.

1. I find enjoyment in serving others in whatever role or capacity.
2. I am willing to maintain a servant's heart, even though some people may take advantage
of my leadership style.
3. I am willing to make personal sacrifices in serving others.*
4. In serving others, I am willing to endure opposition and unfair criticisms.
5. I have a heart to serve others.
6. I believe that leadership is more of a responsibility than a position.*
7. I seek to serve rather than be served.*
8. I work for the best interests of others rather than self.
9. My ambition focuses on finding better ways of serving others and making them successful.
10. I inspire others to be servant-leaders.
11. I serve others without regard to their gender, race, ethnicity, religion or position.

IV. Caring for others.

1. I genuinely care for the welfare of people working with me.
2. I seek first to understand than to be understood.
3. I try to help others without pampering or spoiling them.
4. Many people come to me with their problems, because I listen to them with empathy.
5. I make myself available to all my workers/colleagues.
6. I believe that caring about people brings out the best in them.
7. I extend grace and forgiveness to others even when they do not reciprocate.
8. I listen actively and receptively to what others have to say.

V. Empowering others.

1. I am willing to risk mistakes by empowering others to "carry the ball."
2. I consistently encourage others to take initiative.
3. I grant all my workers a fair amount of responsibility and latitude in carrying out their tasks.
4. My leadership effectiveness is improved through empowering others.
5. I continuously appreciate, recognize, and encourage the work of others.

VI. Developing others.

1. I am always looking for hidden talents in my workers.
2. I have great satisfaction in bringing out the best in others.*
3 . When others make a mistake, I am very forgiving, and I help them learn from their mistakes.*
4. I invest considerable time and energy equipping others.
5. I invest considerable time and energy in helping others overcome their weaknesses and develop their potential.
6. My leadership contributes to my employees/colleague's personal growth.

7. I am committed to developing potential leaders who will surpass me in the organization.

VII. Visioning.
1. My leadership is based on a strong sense of mission.
2. I have a sense of a higher calling.*
3. My leadership is driven by values that transcend self-interests and material success.*
4. I firmly believe that every organization needs a higher purpose.*
5. I am able to articulate a clear sense of purpose and direction for my organization's future.*
6. I know what I want my organization to become or do for society.*
7. I am able to inspire others with my enthusiasm and confidence for what can be accomplished.*
8. My task is always directed towards the accomplishment of a vision and mission.

VIII. Goal setting.
1. I am very focused and disciplined at work.*
2. I am able to motivate others to achieve beyond their own expectations in getting a job done.
3. I set clear and realistic goals.*
4. I am more concerned about getting the job done than protecting my “territory.”
5. I demand a high level of productivity from myself as well as from others.
6. I am more interested in results than activities or programs.

IX. Leading.
1. An important part of my job is to inspire others to strive for excellence
2. I usually come up with solutions accepted by others as helpful and effective.*
3. Having widely consulted others and carefully considering all the options, I do not hesitate in making difficult decisions.
4. I try to match people with their jobs in order to optimize productivity.
5. I know how to communicate my ideas to others effectively.
6. I have a good understanding of what is happening inside the organization.
7. I willingly share my power with others, but I do not abdicate my authority and responsibility.*
8. I have the ability to move the group forward and get things done.
9. I know how to work with and around difficult people to achieve results.
10. I take proactive actions rather than waiting for events to happen to me.

X. Modeling
1. I lead by example
2. I often demonstrate for others how to make decisions and solve problems.
3. I show my group how to facilitate the process of group success.
4. I model for others how everyone can improve the process of production.*
5. I never ask anyone to do what I am unwilling to do myself.*
6. I make it a priority to develop relations with those who model servant leadership.

XI. Team-building
1. I am willing to sacrifice personal benefits to promote group harmony and team success.
2. I evaluate and deploy team members based solely on their performance and capacity for serving others.
3. I encourage cooperation rather than competition through the group.
4. I do not play favorites, and try to treat everyone with dignity and respect.
5. I regularly celebrate special occasions and events to foster a group spirit.
6. I usually find creative and constructive ways to resolve conflicts.
7. I value everyone on my team.*
8. I am able to transform an ordinary team into a winning team.
9. I actively seek ways to utilize people's differences as a contribution to the group.*
10. I develop my team by praising their accomplishments and working around their deficiencies.
11. To enliven team spirit, I communicate enthusiasm and confidence.

XII. Shared decision-making.
1. I am willing to share my power and authority with others.
2. I welcome ideas and input from others, including critics and detractors.
3. In exercising leadership, I depend on personal influence and persuasion rather than power.
4. I try to remove all organizational barriers so that others can freely participate in decisions.
5. I encourage flexibility and ongoing exchange of information within the organization.
6. I am willing to have my ideas challenged.*
7. I place the greatest amount of decision-making in the hands of those most affected by the decision.
8. I am willing to share information with those at all levels in the organization

Dennis and Winston's (2003, p. 456) CFA results showed three areas of the original SLI most related to servant leadership, with empowerment (.97), vision (.94), and service (.89).

Empowerment
1. I actively seek ways to utilize people's differences as a contribution to the group. (.91)
2. I value everyone on my team. (.90).
3. When others mistakes, I am very forgiving, and help them learn from their mistakes. (.89)
4. I set clear and realistic goals. (.89)
5. I usually come up with solutions accepted by others as helpful and effective. (.89)
6. I have great satisfaction in bringing out the best in others. (.88)

7. I model for others how everyone can improve the process of production. (.88)
8. I am willing to have my ideas challenged. (.88)
9. I never ask anyone to do what I am unwilling to do myself. (.87)
10. I am willing to share my power and authority with others. (.87)

Service

1. I do not seek recognition or rewards in serving others. (.75)
2. I learn from subordinates whom I serve. (.74)
3. I am willing to make personal sacrifices in serving others. (.84)
4. I seek to serve rather than be served. (.74)
5. I believe that leadership is more of a responsibility than a position. (.75)

Vision

1. I have a sense of a higher calling. (.81)
2. My leadership is driven by values that transcend self-interests and material success. (.81)
3. I firmly believe that every organization needs a higher purpose. (.74)
4. I am able to articulate a clear sense of purpose and direction for my organization's future. (.86)
5. I know what I want my organization to become or do for society. (.83)
6. I am able to inspire others with my enthusiasm and confidence for what can be accomplished. (.82)
7. I am very focused and disciplined at work. (.83)
8. I lead by example. (.76)

Based on the information provided by the Dennis and Winston (2003) CFA and other roundtable meetings with ethicists and philosophers, Wong and Page revised their instrument, reduced it to 62 questions, and created the Wong and Page Servant Leadership Profile – Revised (2007). Their key code explains that any person whose score is >5.59 on positive traits, and <1.99 on negative traits is a servant leader. Everyone else is a nonservant leader (S. Bailey, personal communication, April 22, 2015). I have recreated their instrument and added superscripts to show: the negative qualities (marked with *), positive qualities (not marked with *), empowerment questions (marked with superscript *E*), vision (superscript *V*), and service (superscript *S*).

Wong and Page Servant Leadership Profile – Revised (2007)

Leadership matters a great deal in the success or failure of any organization. This instrument was designed to measure both positive and negative leadership characteristics. Please use the following scale to indicate your agreement or disagreement with each of the statements in describing your own attitudes and practices as a leader. There are no right or wrong answers. Simply rate each question in terms of what you really believe or normally do in leadership situations.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly	Disagree		Undecided		Strongly	Agree

For example, if you strongly agree, you may circle 7, if you mildly disagree, you may circle 3. If you are undecided, circle 4, but use this category sparingly.

1. To inspire team spirit, I communicate enthusiasm and confidence.
2. I listen actively and receptively to what others have to say, even when they disagree with me.
3. I practice plain talking – I mean what I say and say what I mean.
4. I always keep my promises and commitments to others.
5. I grant all my workers a fair amount of responsibility and latitude in carrying out their tasks.
6. I am genuine and honest with people, even when such transparency is politically unwise.
7.I am willing to accept other people's ideas, whenever they are better than mine.
8. I promote tolerance, kindness, and honesty in the work place.
9. To be a leader, I should be front and center in every function in which I am involved.*
10. I create a climate of trust and openness to facilitate participation in decision making.
11. My leadership effectiveness is improved through empowering others.
12. I want to build trust through honesty and empathy.
13. I am able to bring out the best in others.
14. I want to make sure that everyone follows orders without questioning my authority.*
15. As a leader, my name must be associated with every initiative.*
16. I consistently delegate responsibility to others and empower them to do their job.
17. I seek to serve rather than be served. *S*
18. To be a strong leader, I need to have the power to do whatever I want without being questioned.*
19. I am able to inspire others with my enthusiasm and confidence in what can be accomplished.
20. I am able to transform an ordinary group of individuals into a winning team.
21. I try to remove all organizational barriers so that others can freely participate in decision-making. *E*
22. I devote a lot of energy to promoting trust, mutual understanding and team spirit.

23. I derive a great deal of satisfaction in helping others succeed. *E*
24. I have the moral courage to do the right thing, even when it hurts me politically.
25. I am able to rally people around me and inspire them to achieve a common goal.
26. I am able to present a vision that is readily and enthusiastically embraced by others.
27. I invest considerable time and energy in helping others overcome their weaknesses and develop their potential. *E*
28. I want to have the final say on everything, even areas where I don't have the competence.*
29. I don't want to share power with others, because they may use it against me.*
30. I practice what I preach.
31. I am willing to risk mistakes by empowering others to "carry the ball." *E*
32. I have the courage to assume full responsibility for my mistakes and acknowledge my own limitations.
33. I have the courage and determination to do what is right in spite of difficulty or opposition.
34. Whenever possible, I give credits to others.
35. I am willing to share my power and authority with others in the decision making process.
36. I genuinely care about the welfare of people working with me. *S*
37. I invest considerable time and energy equipping others. *E*
38. I make it a high priority to cultivate good relationships among group members. *E*
39. I am always looking for hidden talents in my workers. *E*
40. My leadership is based on a strong sense of mission. *V*
41. I am able to articulate a clear sense of purpose and direction for my organization's future. *V*
42. My leadership contributes to my employees/colleagues' personal growth. *E*
43. I have a good understanding of what is happening inside the organization. *V*
44. I set an example of placing group interests above self-interests.
45. I work for the best interests of others rather than self. *S*
46. I consistently appreciate, recognize, and encourage the work of others. *E*
47. I always place team success above personal success.
48. I willingly share my power with others, but I do not abdicate authority and responsibility. *E*
49. I consistently appreciate and validate others for their contributions. *E*
50. When I serve others, I do not expect any return. *S*
51. I am willing to make personal sacrifices in serving others. *S*
52. I regularly celebrate special occasions and events to foster a group spirit.
53. I consistently encourage others to take initiative. *E*
54. I am usually dissatisfied with the status quo and know how things can be improved. *V*
55. I take proactive actions rather than waiting for events to happen to me. *V*
56. To be a strong leader, I need to keep all my subordinates under control. *****
57. I find enjoyment in serving others in whatever role or capacity. *S*
58. I have a heart to serve others. *S*
59. I have great satisfaction in bringing out the best in others. *E*
60. It is important that I am seen as superior to my subordinates in everything.*
61. I often identify talented people and give them opportunities to grow and shine. *E*
62. My ambition focuses on finding better ways of serving others and making them successful. *E*

Appendix B: SPSI: Social Performance Scale

The Zhang, Fan, and Zhue (2014) CSP Instrument (SPSI) was created for the purposes of studying the variables of social performance by organizations. The instrument calculated the CSP variable values in my study. Their study calculated a Cronbach's α = .89. I recopied the image from their 2014 research article, with permission from the authors.

Answer the following questions about your organization using the following scale. Your answer suggests whether the practices are or are not used by you for your employees in your organization.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	unsure	agree	strongly agree

1. Employees are all respected and treated fairly.
2. Our company does not tolerate unethical business behavior.
3. Our company strictly abides by labour law.
4. Employees are not forced to work overtime.
5. Our company donates to charities.
6. Unions can represent and protect worker's rights.
7. Our company actively participates in community activities.
8. Our company gives emphasis to environment protection.
9. Employees are provided with enough protective equipment at work.

Appendix C: HPWSI: High Performance Work Systems Instrument

Jensen et al. (2011) created the HPWSI. I used the instrument to value the *H* variable in this study (HPWSs). Jensen et al. (2013) used the instrument and found it reliable, with Cronbach's $\alpha = .81$ (p. 1707). I received permission to reprint the instrument. (See Appendix D). The instrument creates an index value for HPWSs usage. I adapted the instrument with minor grammar, APA style, and American English edits.

We are trying to get an overall impression of how employees are managed in your department. Please provide your best *estimate* in each case that describes the HR practices in existence in YOUR Department. Indicate what percentage of employees, from 0 to 100% . . .

1. Were given one or more employment tests prior to hiring (e.g. personality, ability tests).
2. Hold non-entry level jobs as a result of internal promotions (i.e., % of employees that have been promoted within the organization since their initial hire).
3. Are promoted using merit or performance bases, as opposed to length of service.
4. Are hired following intensive/extensive recruiting (e.g. your department had to put forth a lot of effort to recruit your employees).
5. Are routinely administered attitude surveys to identify and correct employee morale problems.
6. Are involved in programs designed to elicit participation and employee input (e.g. quality circles, problem-solving or similar groups).
7. Have access to a formal grievance and/or complaint system.
8. Are provided with service-department's operating performance information.
9. Are provided with financial performance information.
10. Are provided with information on strategic plans.
11. Receive a formal, personal, performance appraisal/feedback on a regular basis.
12. Receive a formal personal performance appraisal/feedback from more than one source (i.e., from several individuals such as supervisors, peers, etc.).
13. Receive rewards that are partially contingent on group performance (e.g. department bonuses).
14. Are paid on the basis of a skill rather than a job-type (i.e., pay is primarily determined by a person's skill or knowledge level as opposed to the particular job they hold).
15. Receive intensive/extensive training in organization-specific skills (i.e., task or organization specific training).
16. Receive intensive training in generic skills (e.g. problem solving, communication skills)
17. Receive training in a variety of jobs or skills (cross training).
18. Routinely perform more than one job (are cross utilized/multi-skilled).
19. Are organized in self-directed teams in performing a major part of their work roles.
20. Are offered flexible working (e.g. job share/term-time employment/flextime, home working).
21. Are covered by family friendly policies (e.g. time off to care for dependents).

Appendix D: Author Permissions

The SPSI Author Permission

I have provide the publication and use permissions from Zhang, Fan, and Zhu for the SPSI, after redacting their and my contact information.

Mingqiong Mike Zhang <mike.zhang> Thu, Aug 18, 2016 at 12:45 AM
To: Michelle Preiksaitis <michelle.preiksaitis >

Hi Michelle,

Sorry for my late response. Yes, we are happy to provide this written approval to include the instrument questions in your dissertation publication (and any follow-up post-doc articles). We are also interested in the final results when your thesis is published, thank you.

Best wishes,
Mike
Dr. MINGQIONG MIKE ZHANG
Senior Lecturer in IB&IM
Department of Management
Monash Business School
Monash University
Monash Business School accreditation
We engage in the highest quality research and education to have a positive impact on a changing world

On 14 August 2016 at 00:17, Michelle Preiksaitis < > wrote:

Dear Drs. Zhang, Fan, and Zhu,

Last year, you gave me permission to use your instrument for measuring corporate social performance in my dissertation. I have completed my dissertation, and am waiting final approvals from the final reviewers. I would like permission to publish the instrument in the appendix of my dissertation. My school requires a written permission from the author(s) or copyright holder.

Further, please let me know if you wish to see the final results of the project. I can share with you the final dissertation, when published, if you are interested.

Thank you for your assistance in providing me with written approval to include the instrument questions in my dissertation publication (and any follow-up post-doc articles).

Yours truly,
Michelle

Michelle K. Preiksaitis, JD, SPHR, SHRM-SCP

Atlantic Standard Time Zone
Walden University
From: Mingqiong Zhang [mailto:]
Sent: Friday, February 20, 2015 8:33 AM
To: Preiksaitis, Michelle
Cc: Cherrie Zhu; David Fan
Subject: HPWS and CSP instruments

Dear Michelle,

We are happy to offer you the permission to use both the HPWS and CSP instruments for your PhD thesis. You can find both the instruments from Appendix 1 and 2 of the paper (Table 3 and 4 on page 432).

Regards,

Mike

Dear Drs. Zhang, Fan, and Zhu,

I am a PhD student in Management, from Walden University, and also a Professor of Business, Law, and Human Resource Management for Keller Graduate School of Management, in the United States.

I am interested in possibly gaining access to and permission for using the HPWP and CSP instruments in Zhang, Fan, and Zhue (2014). High-performance work systems, corporate social performance and employee outcomes: Exploring the missing links. Journal of Business Ethics, 120, 423-435. doi: 10.1007/s10551-013-1672-8.

Are either or both of those instruments available for use? And if so, would you be willing to share those and give me permission to use them for my dissertation? I am proposing a study of the performance management practices of a small industry in the US Virgin Islands and these instruments seem applicable to my research.

Thank you for your help.

Respectfully,

Michelle

The SLI Author Permission

I have provided the instrument use and publication permissions from Wong and Page, for the SLI, again with personal contact information redacted.

Paul TP Wong < > Sat, Aug 13, 2016 at 10:27 PM
Reply-To:
To: Michelle Preiksaitis < >
Cc: Don Page <
>
Dear Michelle:

We are happy to grant you the permission.

Paul

Paul T. P. Wong, Ph.D., C.Psych. (www.drpaulwong.com)
President, International Network on Personal Meaning
Conference Chair, 9th Biennial International Meaning Conference

On Sat, Aug 13, 2016 at 10:04 AM, Michelle Preiksaitis < > wrote:

Dear Dr. Wong,

Last year, you gave me permission to use one of your published instruments in my dissertation. My dissertation is in the final review process.

I would like your permission to publish the questions in the instrument "Servant Leader self-profile (2007)" in my appendix in the final published version (and potentially, in a future article using the results). The method by which this will happen is in a list of variables that make up the entirety of my survey instrument (100 question) of which 62 will be your questions. I also included examples of your 2000 version of the instrument, with extensive analysis by Dennis and Winston (2003) of that instrument to explain the underlying dimensions. I would also like permission to include those sections in my appendix in the final publication.

I have attached the requisite appendices so you can see how I did this.

Once I receive my final permissions and approvals, I will also share with you the final dissertation.

Thank you for your assistance and permission!

Yours truly,
Michelle

Michelle K. Preiksaitis, JD, SPHR, SHRM-SCP
Walden University

On Wed, Mar 18, 2015 at 1:15 PM, Paul TP Wong < > wrote:

I would be most happy to grant you submission. You may want to google it and find out additional data on our scale. I have collect a great deal of data, but have not had the opportunity to analyze and publish sit.

Best,

Paul Wong
www.drpaulwong.com

On Tue, Mar 10, 2015 at 6:21 PM, Michelle Preiksaitis < > wrote:
From: Michelle Preiksaitis < >

Subject: Servant Leader Self-Profile - Revised (Wong & Page)

Dear Dr. Wong,

I am a PhD student. I would like to use the Wong & Page 2007 Servant Leader self-profile (revised) instrument as part of my dissertation data collection method. I would humbly request your permission.

The topic is whether servant leaders are more likely to select particular work practices for performance management. The population is set to be the USVI PADI dive organizations.

Along with permission to use the document, do you have any published data showing its measures of validity? I found one dissertation by Stephens (2007) that included these data, but I could not find any of your published works including it.

Thank you so much for your assistance!
Yours truly,
Michelle

Michelle K. Preiksaitis
michelle.preiksaitis2@waldenu.edu
Walden University

The HPWSI Author Permission

I also received permission from Dr. Jaclyn Jensen, to use and publish the HPWSI in my dissertation.

Jensen, Jaclyn < > Tue, Aug 16, 2016 at 4:24 PM
To: Michelle Preiksaitis < >

Thanks for reaching out. You have my permission to publish the items in your appendix and in any future publications that result from this work.

I'd be very interested in reading the final version – thanks for offering to send it my way.

Regards,

Jaclyn
Jaclyn M. Jensen, Ph.D.
Department of Management
Richard H. Driehaus College of Business
DePaul University
Chicago, IL 60604
http://works.bepress.com/jaclyn_jensen/

From: Michelle Preiksaitis [mailto:]
Sent: Saturday, August 13, 2016 8:54 AM
To: Jensen, Jaclyn
Subject: Re: Use of Department Level HPWS instrument - permission requested

Dear Dr. Jensen,

Last year, you gave me permission to use one of your published instruments in my dissertation. My dissertation is in the final review process.

I would like your permission to publish the questions in the instrument "Department-Level Measure of High-Performance Work Systems" (doi: 10.1037/t25525-000) in my appendix in the final published version (and potentially, in a future article using the results).

Furthermore, I am curious if you would be interested in seeing the completed dissertation, and perhaps being involved in future publications resulting from its results. I can share with you the final version (when approved), to see if you would be willing to join me in publishing an article post-doc. My university affiliation for the article would be Walden University.

Thank you for your assistance!

Yours truly,
Michelle

Michelle K. Preiksaitis, JD, SPHR, SHRM-SCP
Doctoral Candidate
On Mon, Apr 20, 2015 at 10:21 AM, Jensen, Jaclyn < > wrote:

Hi Michelle,

Yes, per the permissions in the PsycTESTS database you are welcome to use the scale. Best of luck with your research!

Jaclyn
……
Jaclyn M. Jensen, Ph.D.
Department of Management
Richard H. Driehaus College of Business
DePaul University
Chicago, IL 60604
http://works.bepress.com/jaclyn_jensen/

From: Michelle Preiksaitis [mailto:]
Sent: Saturday, April 18, 2015 11:11 AM
To: Jensen, Jaclyn
Subject: Fwd: Use of Department Level HPWS instrument - permission requested

Dear Dr. Jensen,
Good day - and I hope you are doing well.
I am a PhD student and working on my dissertation proposal.

I am interested in using your departmental HPWS survey instrument as a component of my research tool for my dissertation.

I would like your permission to use this. I have located the instrument in your article Jensen, J., Patel, P., Messersmith, J. (2013). High-performance work systems and job control: Consequences for anxiety, role overload, and turnover intentions. Journal of Management, 39, 1699-1724. doi:10.1177/0149206311419663

And it is located in our PsycTest database as an instrument for which you will grant permission to use for research.

Jensen, J. M., Patel, P. C., & Messersmith, J. G. (2011). Department-Level Measure of High-Performance Work Systems. PsycTests, doi:10.1037/t25525-000

May I please have your permission?

Thank you!

Yours truly,
Michelle

Michelle K. Preiksaitis, JD, SPHR, SHRM-SCP
Walden University

Appendix E: Full Instrument

Table E1

Entire Instrument SPSS Variables with Question and Measure

Variable Name	Question	Nominal or Scale
Consent	Do you give consent to be in this study?	Nominal
Policy	Have you ever had a supervisory, managerial, or policy-making role over 1 or more employees in any organization in which you have been employed?	Nominal
Age	Your age in years, today:	Nominal
Gender	What is your gender?	Nominal
Gender_other	Other (please specify)	Nominal
Industry	The industry/position for which you work:	Nominal
Industry_other	Other (please specify)	Nominal
State	Which US state do you primarily work in?	Nominal
Employee#	The number of employees in your company (your best estimate):	Nominal
EmployeeSup	The number of employees you supervise(d), or create(d) policy for:	Nominal
Style	What style of leader do you consider yourself?	Nominal
Style_other	Other (please specify)	Nominal
Emptest	Have one or more employment test prior to hiring (e.g. personality, ability tests).	Nominal
IntProm	Hold non-entry level jobs as a result of internal promotions (i.e., % of employees that have been promoted within the organization since their initial post).	Nominal
MeritProm	Are promoted on the basis of merit or performance as opposed to length of service.	Nominal
Recruit	Are hired following intensive/extensive recruiting (e.g. your department had to put forth a lot of effort to recruit).	Nominal
Attitude	Are routinely administered attitude surveys to identify and correct employee morale problems.	Nominal
BuyingProg	Are involved in programs designed to elicit participation and employee input (e.g. quality circles, problem-solving, or similar groups).	Nominal
Grieve	Have access to a formal grievance and/or complaint system.	Nominal
ServInfo	Are provided with service-department operating-performance information.	Nominal
FinInfo	Are provided with financial performance information.	Nominal
Stratplan	Are provided with information on strategic plans.	Nominal
PerfApp	Receive a formal personal performance appraisal/feedback on a regular basis.	Nominal
PA360	Receive a formal personal performance appraisal/feedback from more than one source (i.e. from several individuals such as supervisors, peers, etc.).	Nominal
GroupRew	Receive rewards, which are partially contingent on group performance (e.g. department bonuses).	Nominal
Skillpay	Are paid on the basis of a skill rather than a job-type (i.e., pay is primarily determined by a person's skill or knowledge level as opposed to the particular job they hold).	Nominal
OrgTrain	Receive intensive/extensive training in organization-specific skills (i.e., task or organization specific training).	Nominal
GenTrain	Receive intensive training in generic skills (e.g., problem-solving, communication skills).	Nominal
XTrain	Receive training in a variety of jobs or skills ("cross-training").	Nominal
XWork	Routinely perform more than one job (are "cross utilized"/multi-skilled).	Nominal
SelfDTeam	Are organized in self-directed teams in performing a major part of their work roles.	Nominal
Flexwork	Are offered flexible working (e.g. job share/term-time employment/flextime, home working).	Nominal
FamFriend	Are covered by "family-friendly" policies (e.g. time off to care for dependents).	Nominal

SL1	1. To inspire team spirit, I communicate enthusiasm and confidence.	Scale
SL2	2. I listen actively and receptively to what others have to say, even when they disagree with me.	Scale
SL3	3. I practice plain talking – I mean what I say and say what I mean.	Scale
SL4	4. I always keep my promises and commitments to others.	Scale
SL5	5. I grant all my workers a fair amount of responsibility and latitude in carrying out their tasks.	Scale
SL6	6. I am genuine and honest with people, even when such transparency is politically unwise.	Scale
SL7	7.I am willing to accept other people's ideas, whenever they are better than mine.	Scale
SL8	8. I promote tolerance, kindness, and honesty in the work place.	Scale
SL9	9. To be a leader, I should be front and center in every function in which I am involved.	Scale
SL10	10. I create a climate of trust and openness to facilitate participation in decision making.	Scale
SL11	11. My leadership effectiveness is improved through empowering others.	Scale
SL12	12. I want to build trust through honesty and empathy.	Scale
SL13	13. I am able to bring out the best in others.	Scale
SL14	14. I want to make sure that everyone follows orders without questioning my authority.	Scale
SL15	15. As a leader, my name must be associated with every initiative.	Scale
SL16	16. I consistently delegate responsibility to others and empower them to do their job.	Scale
SL17	17. I seek to serve rather than be served.	Scale
SL18	18. To be a strong leader, I need to have the power to do whatever I want without being questioned.	Scale
SL19	19. I am able to inspire others with my enthusiasm and confidence in what can be accomplished.	Scale
SL20	20. I am able to transform an ordinary group of individuals into a winning team.	Scale
SL21	21. I try to remove all organizational barriers so that others can freely participate in decision-making.	Scale
SL22	22. I devote a lot of energy to promoting trust, mutual understanding and team spirit.	Scale
SL23	23. I derive a great deal of satisfaction in helping others succeed.	Scale
SL24	24. I have the moral courage to do the right thing, even when it hurts me politically.	Scale
SL25	25. I am able to rally people around me and inspire them to achieve a common goal.	Scale
SL26	26. I am able to present a vision that is readily and enthusiastically embraced by others.	Scale
SL27	27. I invest considerable time and energy in helping others overcome their weaknesses and develop their potential.	Scale
SL28	28. I want to have the final say on everything, even areas where I don't have the competence.	Scale
SL29	29. I don't want to share power with others, because they may use it against me.	Scale
SL30	30. I practice what I preach.	Scale
SL31	31. I am willing to risk mistakes by empowering others to "carry the ball."	Scale
SL32	32. I have the courage to assume full responsibility for my mistakes and acknowledge my own limitations.	Scale
SL33	33. I have the courage and determination to do what is right in spite of difficulty or opposition.	Scale
SL34	34. Whenever possible, I give credit to others.	Scale
SL35	35. I am willing to share my power and authority with others in the decision making process.	Scale
SL36	36. I genuinely care about the welfare of people working with me.	Scale
SL37	37. I invest considerable time and energy equipping others.	Scale
SL38	38. I make it a high priority to cultivate good relationships among group	Scale

	members.	
SL39	39. I am always looking for hidden talents in my workers.	Scale
SL40	40. My leadership is based on a strong sense of mission.	Scale
SL41	41. I am able to articulate a clear sense of purpose and direction for my organization's future.	Scale
SL42	42. My leadership contributes to my employees/colleagues' personal growth.	Scale
SL43	43. I have a good understanding of what is happening inside the organization.	Scale
SL44	44. I set an example of placing group interests above self-interests.	Scale
SL45	45. I work for the best interests of others rather than self.	Scale
SL46	46. I consistently appreciate, recognize, and encourage the work of others.	Scale
SL47	47. I always place team success above personal success.	Scale
SL48	48. I willingly share my power with others, but I do not abdicate my authority and responsibility.	Scale
SL49	49. I consistently appreciate and validate others for their contributions.	Scale
SL50	50. When I serve others, I do not expect any return.	Scale
SL51	51. I am willing to make personal sacrifices in serving others.	Scale
SL52	52. I regularly celebrate special occasions and events to foster a group spirit.	Scale
SL53	53. I consistently encourage others to take initiative.	Scale
SL54	54. I am usually dissatisfied with the status quo and know how things can be improved.	Scale
SL55	55. I take proactive actions rather than waiting for events to happen to me.	Scale
SL56	56. To be a strong leader, I need to keep all my subordinates under control.	Scale
SL57	57. I find enjoyment in serving others in whatever role or capacity.	Scale
SL58	58. I have a heart to serve others.	Scale
SL59	59. I have great satisfaction in bringing out the best in others.	Scale
SL60	60. It is important that I am seen as superior to my subordinates in everything.	Scale
SL61	61. I often identify talented people and give them opportunities to grow and shine.	Scale
SL62	62. My ambition focuses on finding better ways of serving others and making them successful	Scale
CSP1	1. Employees are all respected and treated fairly.	Scale
CSP2	2. Our company does not tolerate unethical business behavior.	Scale
CSP3	3. Our company strictly abides by labor laws.	Scale
CSP4	4. Employees are not forced to work overtime.	Scale
CSP5	5. Our company donates to charities.	Scale
CSP6	6. Unions can represent and protect worker's rights.	Scale
CSP7	7. Our company actively participates in community activities.	Scale
CSP8	8. Our company gives emphasis to environment protection.	Scale

Note: This is the full list of variables in the SPSS data file used in my study.

Appendix F: G*Power for Sample Size

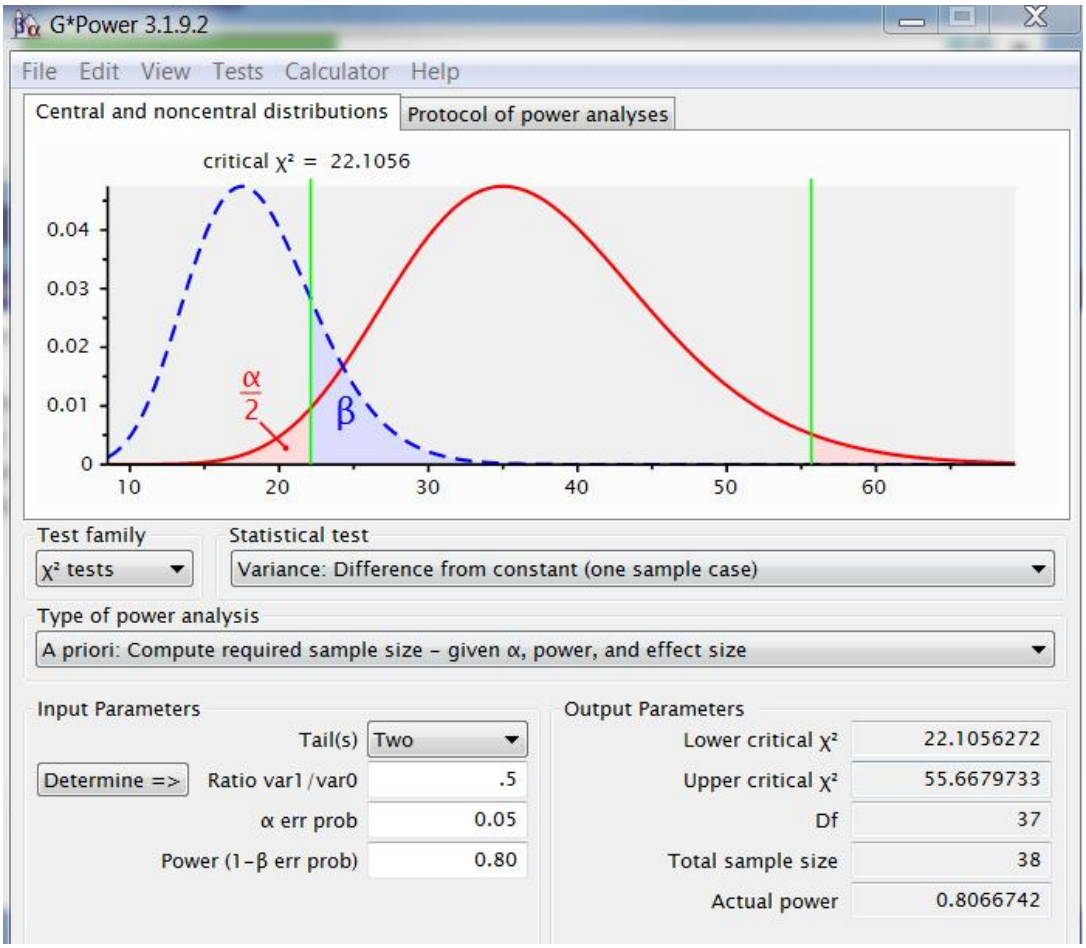

Figure F1. G*Power for chi-square. Results of a sample size calculation using the G*Power, version 3.1.9.2 calculator, created by Faul et al. (2009). It shows that for the chi-square test in this study to have proper power, and based on the parameters explained in the Sample Size Calculation section, I needed a minimum of 38 participants in my study. Faul et al. (2007, 2009) gave permission for the use of this calculator by all research scientists.

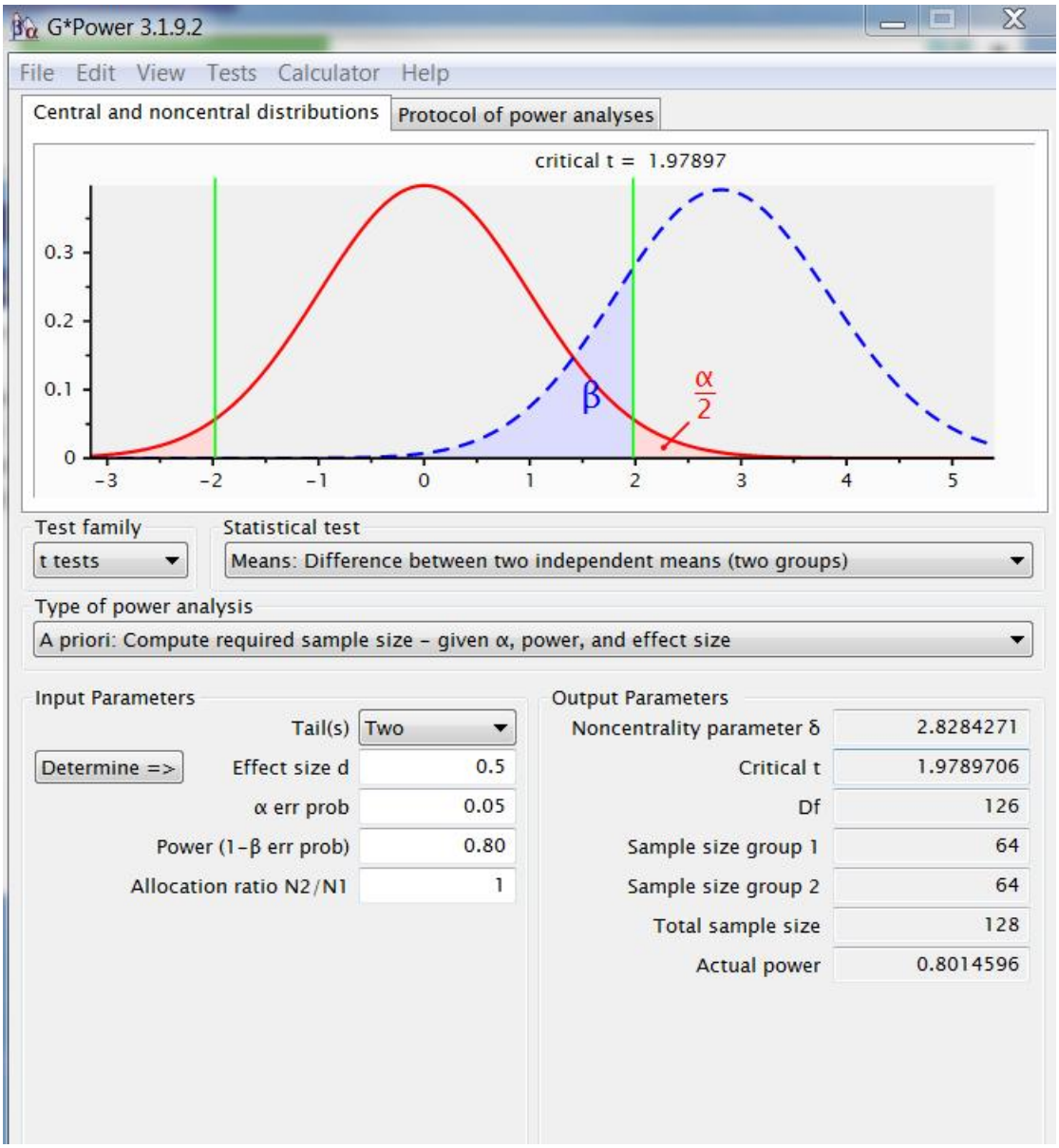

Figure F2. G*Power for *t* test. Results of a sample size calculation using the G*Power, version 3.1.9.2 calculator, created by Faul et al. (2009). It shows that for the *t* tests in this study to have proper power, and based on the parameters explained in the Sample Size Calculation section, I needed a minimum of 128 participants in my study. Faul et al. (2007, 2009) gave permission for the use of this calculator by all research scientists.

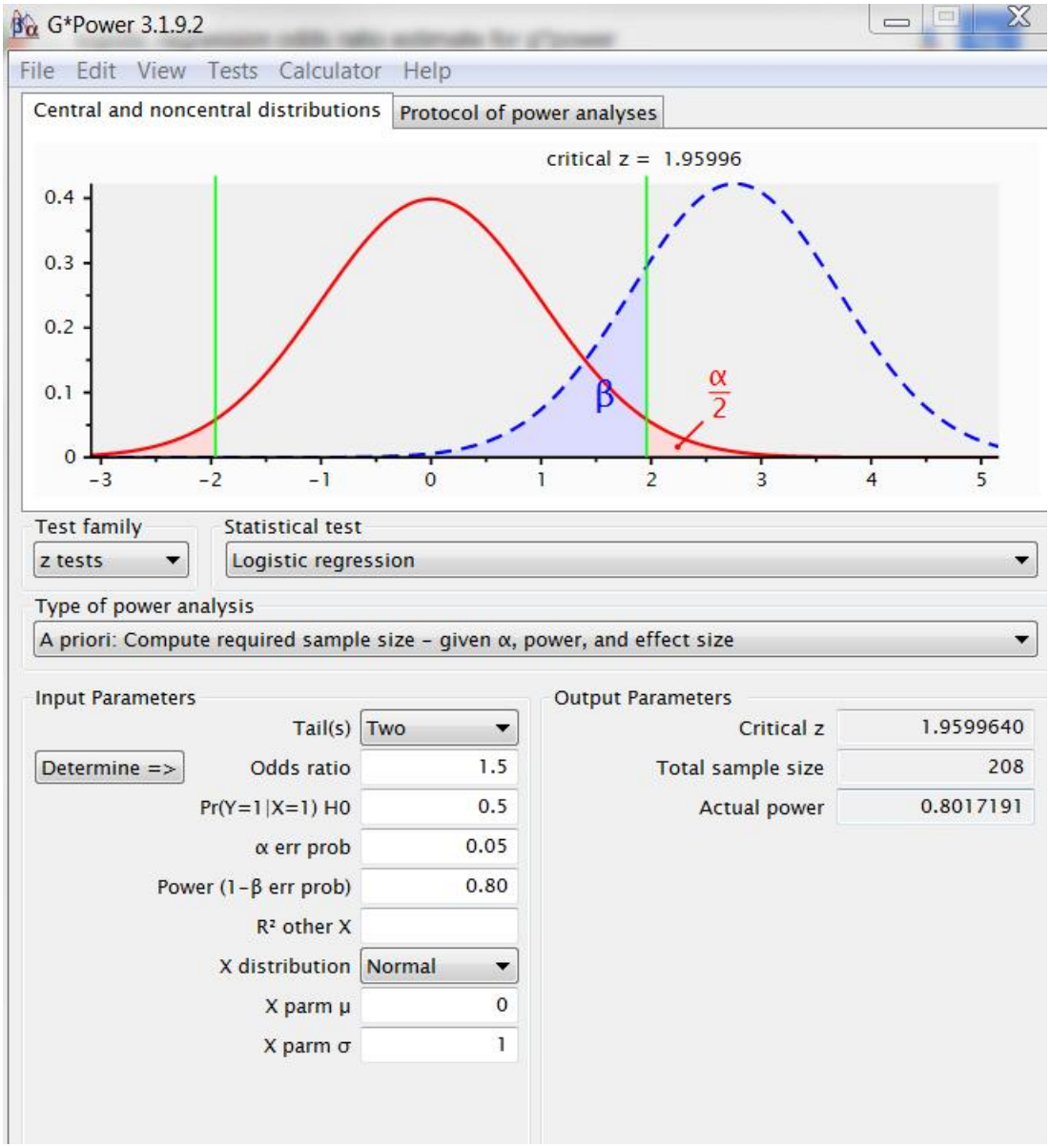

Figure F3. G*Power for logistic regression. Results of a sample size calculation using the G*Power, version 3.1.9.2 calculator, created by Faul et al. (2009). It shows that for the logistic regression in this study to have proper power, and based on the parameters explained in the Sample Size Calculation section, I needed a minimum of 208 participants in my study. Faul et al. (2007, 2009) gave permission for the use of this calculator by all research scientists.

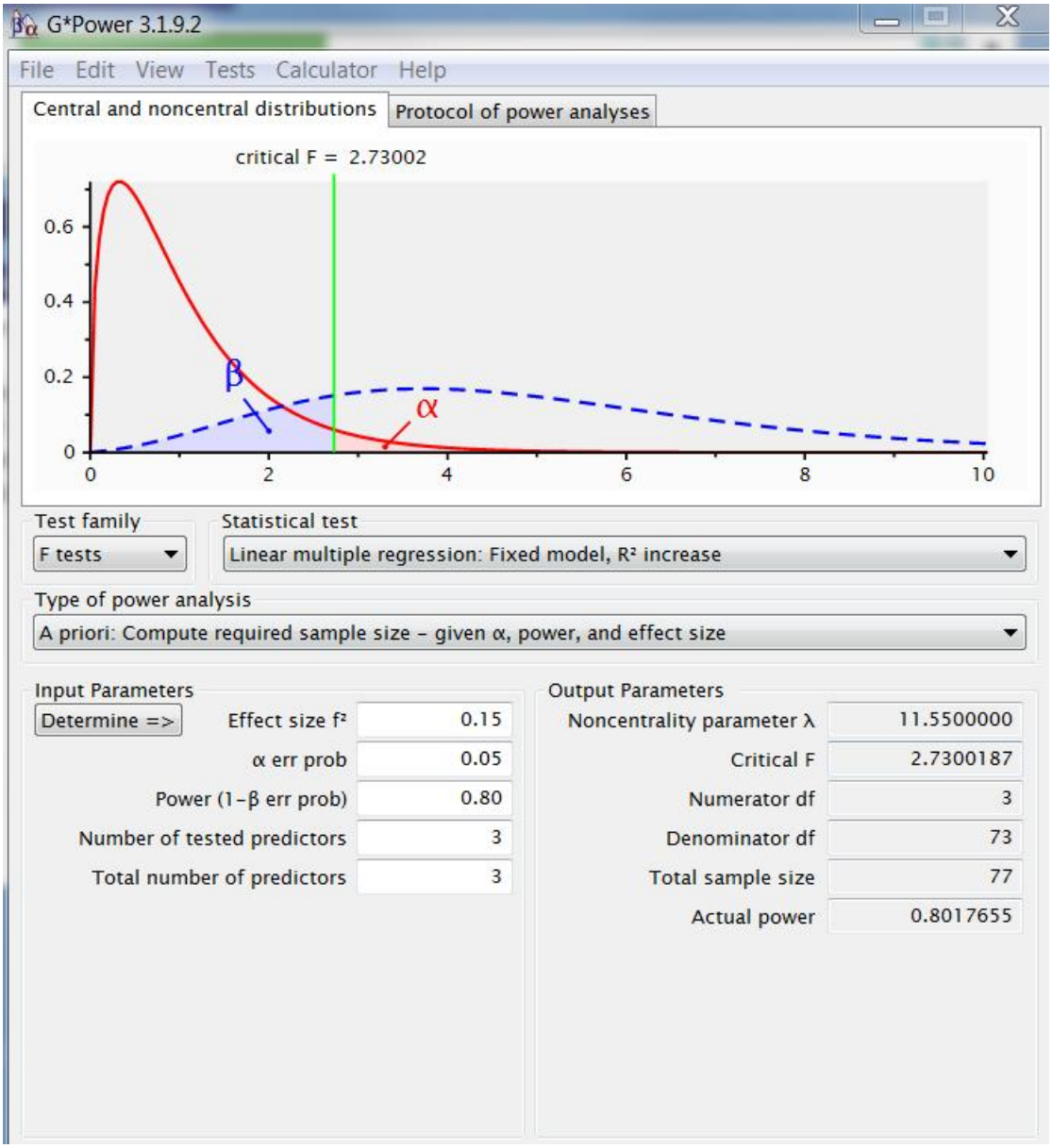

Figure F4. G*Power for multiple regression. Results of a sample size calculation using the G*Power, version 3.1.9.2 calculator, created by Faul et al. (2009). It shows that for the multiple regression in this study's Plan B to have proper power, and based on the parameters explained in the Sample Size Calculation section, I needed a minimum of 77 participants in my study. Faul et al. (2007, 2009) gave permission for the use of this calculator by all research scientists.