



EMERGING  
LEADERSHIP  
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*Emerging Leadership Journeys (ELJ)* is an academic journal that provides a forum for emerging scholars in the field of leadership studies. Contributors to this journal are Ph.D. students enrolled in the Organizational Leadership program in Regent University's School of Business & Leadership. Representing the multidisciplinary field of leadership, ELJ publishes the best research papers submitted by Ph.D. students during the first four terms of their doctoral journey. These selected papers reflect the students' scholarly endeavors in understanding the phenomenon of leadership and in advancing the field of leadership studies ontologically, epistemologically, and axiologically.

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From the Editor  
Dr. Bruce E. Winston

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Welcome to Volume 8, Issue 1 of Emerging Leadership Journeys (ELJ). This issue contains qualitative and quantitative research articles produced by students in the School of Business & Leadership's Ph.D. in Organizational Leadership program. These articles provide excellent examples of the type of work our students produce during their program of study.



## Article Abstracts

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### *Christian Spirituality and Small Group Effectiveness: A Socio-rhetorical Analysis of Acts 6:1-7*

William Sawyer

This qualitative research study examines the relationship of Christian spirituality in the context of small groups as demonstrated in the pericope Acts 6. The paper seeks to address the exegetical gap in the research that answers the research question: Do the Scriptures provide exegetical support that Christian spirituality relates to diverse work team's effectiveness in achieving the organization's desired outcome? The research method uses Patton's (2002) hermeneutical theoretical approach and Robbins' (1996) socio-rhetorical criticism of the ideological texture of the sacred Christian text of Acts 6:1-7 NKJV. The discussion will include research analysis and implications for Christian spirituality in the context of small groups with recommendations for potential future qualitative research.

### *Empowerment and Coworker Response to Leader Tactic and Organizational Hope*

Larry D. Phillips

Socio-cognitive approaches to leadership study remain the front-runner in research; this study presents a model, which shows the quality of coworker exchange and organizational hope significantly influence workplace empowerment. The model clearly presents the power of reciprocal behavior from leader influence tactic and statistical significance of coworker exchange quality, which responds as an influence multiplier for organizational hope. The follower's perception of a leader is shown to affect the characterization image held by the follower and the conclusions drawn of the leader and by the leader. The nature of leadership is analyzed to reveal an environment type that is conducive to workplace empowerment so that work is optimized and goals exceeded. Coworker social exchange is poised through the studied model as a cognitive

constructed influence emerging through the follower's implicit image. The nature of the memory-held image emerged unnoticed by the member from an information processing perspective based on past situational trait patterns. The reciprocal nature of the leader-follower relationship and coworker exchange is shown to mediate and moderate organizational relationships such that emancipation of control occurs through an empowered work force.

### ***Effects of Servant Leadership on Satisfaction with Leaders: Inclusion of Situational Variables***

Duky Charles

This paper presents a research study exploring whether the effects of servant leadership on follower satisfaction with the leader can be moderated by some situational variables. It builds a model constituting of five theories, namely servant leadership as the independent variable, satisfaction with the leader as the criterion variable, job demands, fairness in pay and perceived organizational support as situational variables. It employs a cross-sectional survey from a combination of five questionnaires pertaining respectively to each variable under investigation to collect data from 123 employees working in five small organizations in northern Haiti. Using regression analysis, the results indicate that only the first hypothesis is supported and that none of the situational variables yield significant moderating effects. The paper explains what may cause such results and suggests further investigators test the model with leader-member exchange relationship as a situational variable.

### ***Group Formation in a Cross-Cultural Environment***

C. Victor Herbin III

Globalization presents organizational leaders with a series of challenges towards developing, building, and creating effective groups/teams within the modern work environment. While a culturally diverse work environment poses unique challenges to group formation within the 21st century, a review of Romans Chapter 1-3 suggests evidence of this organizational phenomenon existed millennia ago. This paper provides an exegetical analysis of Romans 1-3 that examines the question of how organizational leaders build group formation within a cross-cultural environment. Paul's experiences in the selected scriptures reveals three applicable themes: (a) The elimination of racial and ethnic barriers to develop universal acceptance; (b) Foster an environment of unconditional love despite social identity; and (c) creating faith will neutralize real or perceived differences. Although workplace demographics changed over the years, organizational objectives to develop and maintain strong relationships, improve employee morale, and maximize production remains unchanged. Ultimately, the modern day work environment requires bold, adaptable, and flexible

organizational members with a high level of cross-cultural competence to lead in this effort.

***Perceived Organizational Support and Job Overload as Moderators on the Relationship between Leadership Effectiveness and Job Satisfaction***

C. P. Weaver, Jr

Effective leadership should be the goal of any organization that desires to be efficient and competitive. The positive perception of effective leadership can enhance individual outcomes such as job satisfaction. Therefore, understanding any influences on the association between effective leadership and job satisfaction will guide leaders to relationships that are more effective. This study examined the predictive ability of leader effectiveness on employee job satisfaction and the ability of perceived organizational support and job overload to moderate that relationship. Survey data from three different economic sectors produced 70 cases for a moderated hierarchical multiple regression. A significant main effect for leader effectiveness on job satisfaction was found, but neither moderator provided an influence on that relationship. Although leader effectiveness is most often used as an organizational outcome in leadership studies, this research supports the variable as a predictor of organizational outcomes.



## Christian Spirituality and Small Group Effectiveness: A Socio-rhetorical Analysis of Acts 6:1-7

William Sawyer  
*Regent University*

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This qualitative research study examines the relationship of Christian spirituality in the context of small groups as demonstrated in the pericope Acts 6. The paper seeks to address the exegetical gap in the research that answers the research question: Do the Scriptures provide exegetical support that Christian spirituality relates to diverse work team's effectiveness in achieving the organization's desired outcome? The research method uses Patton's (2002) hermeneutical theoretical approach and Robbins' (1996) socio-rhetorical criticism of the ideological texture of the sacred Christian text of Acts 6:1-7 NKJV. The discussion will include research analysis and implications for Christian spirituality in the context of small groups with recommendations for potential future qualitative research.

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As many organizations across various industry sectors are utilizing teams and collaborative work, scholarly research is placing significant focus on specific strategies that explain complex group processes that are associated with more effective outcomes (Katz-Narvon & Eys, 2005; Katz-Narvon & Eys, 2005; Li, 2007; Staples & Webster, 2007). There has been a resurgence of interest in small group personality and social composition and their impact on group effectiveness (Li, 2007; Staples & Webster, 2007). In addition, as important organizational decisions need to be made, cross-functional work teams and project teams are being relied on to stimulate and enhance decision making processes, solve problems, and foster innovation. When the individuals comprising these groups differ in respect to knowledge, skill, expertise, and the information they bring to these processes they have the potential to significantly enhance performance outcomes (Greer, Jehn & Mannix; 2008; Homan et al., 2007; Martins et al., 2013).

Interest in spirituality in the workplace and impact on performance is growing as well, however, there is a significant lack of empirical data to support the construct and its impacts until the last few years (Pawar, 2009; Rego & e Cunha, 2008). The instability that characterizes the modern organization is often caused by downsizing, rightsizing, reorganization, and new technology creates a distrust of organizations in general (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003; Well & Kipnis, 2001). The distrust in organizations causes employees to see themselves as a commodity that may lead to fear, alienation, and the follower seeking a deeper meaning in life and the distrust can negatively impact performance outcomes (English, 2013; Gandolfi, 2009; Giacalone & Jurkiewicz,

2003). Milliman, Czaplewski, & Ferguson (2003) posit that workplace spirituality contributes to a sense of stability for the employee, a greater sense of personal growth, and service to others that can impact small group and organizational effectiveness. In addition, there is a reduced concern regarding followers finding material satisfaction and an increase in the number of people from Western cultures that value self-actualization, resulting in a quest for spirituality over material security (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003; Poole, 2009; Sirgy, Reilly, Wu & Efraty 2008;). The quest for spirituality is creating an increased acceptance and interest among Western cultures in Eastern religion and philosophy, as well as, a general cultural shift towards diversity and the acceptance of other cultures that has not resulted in a revival of Christian spirituality based on the Scriptures (Benefiel, 2013; Benefiel & Fry, 2014; Marques, 2010; Sheng & Chen, 2012).

Although there is empirical research to support the correlation between spirituality in general and small group effectiveness, there is a gap in qualitative exegetical research that relates Christian spirituality to small group effectiveness in achieving desired organizational outcomes (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003; Pawar, 2009; Poole, 2009). This study addresses that gap by answering the research question: Do the Scriptures provide exegetical support for the proposition that Christian spirituality relates to diverse work team's effectiveness in achieving the organization's desired outcome? The theories and concepts of workplace spirituality, small group theory, group leadership, and diversity theory are examined in the literature review to provide the quantitative background and support to connect Christian spirituality to small group effectiveness and achieving desired outcomes. By using appropriate exegetical research methods the study produce the credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability that adds to the scholarly discourse on the link between small group theory, Christian spirituality and the impact on performance outcomes (Patton, 2002). The qualitative research design uses Robbins' (1996) socio-rhetorical method. Although there are more general exegetical methods that can validate the credibility and dependability of the qualitative results of the research, for the purpose of this study the ideological texture method of socio-rhetorical criticism (data collection) will be utilized to examine the pericope of Acts 6:1-6 NKJV. The Scriptural analysis or data analysis of the pericope will substantiate the interaction with recognized and accepted small group constructs that are applicable in both religious and secular settings (transferability). The results will be discussed that provide exegetical support that can be re-produced into the current contexts that require a global perspective Christian perspective (confirmability). The discussion will include implications for Christian praxis (credibility) and recommendations for future qualitative research.

## Overview

There is empirical research to validate the factors that impact group effectiveness and performance, focusing on the mediating effects of numerous variables that are able to differentiate between effective decision-making and ineffective decision making (de Wit et al., 2012; Joshi & Rohi, 2009; ; Katz-Navon & Erez, 2005; Li, 2007). As many organizations across various industry sectors are using teams and collaborative work, scholarly research is placing significant focus on specific strategies that explain complex group processes that are associated with more effective outcomes (Katz-Narvon & Eys, 2005; Li, 2007; Staples & Webster, 2007). In the last few years, organizations are increasingly utilizing self-managed teams for organizational problem solving and for decision-making processes fueling the need for empirical research to support practitioners (Haas, 2010; Martins, et al., 2013; Mathieu et al., 2008).

Homan et al. (2007) posit that diversity in work teams is extremely complex and that traditional assumptions, such as diversity of race and gender impact work team performance, are not supported by empirical research, except to the extent that there are mediating variables that can positively or negatively impact the work teams performance (Abdel-Monem et al., 2010; Ellis, Ilgen & Hollenbeck, 2006; Halfhill, et al., 2005; Martins et al., 2013). There are studies that proffer empirical research examining various aspects of expertise and expertness diversity with the focus on the mediated effects of performance or the utilization of dependent variables other than performance (de Wit, Greer & Jehn, 2012; Joshi & Roh, 2009; Martins et al., 2013). Research on these forms, without mediators, has produced inconsistent results, highlighting the need for further research in potential moderators and contingency factors (de Wit, Greer & Jehn, 2012; Joshi & Roh, 2009; Martins et al., 2013). Although the meta-analyses reviewed do not provide consensus regarding the small group diversity and resulting performance effects that make it difficult to support the research question addressed in this paper, there is empirical support that diversity has both positive and negative impacts on performance depending on the mediating variables (de Wit, Greer & Jehn, 2012; Joshi & Roh, 2009; Martins et al., 2013). The meta-analyses do provide empirical support and enable practitioners' ability to understand the moderating variables that positively or negatively impact work team effectiveness. In addition to field research, there are laboratory studies regarding mediating variables and their affects (Katz-Navon & Erez, 2005; Greer et al., 2008; ; Laron, 2007). There is a need for further research in organizational settings analyzing the mediating variables that cross industries and address diversity and its impacts on work team performance in regional and global settings. Although there is quantitative research regarding workplace spirituality as it relates to leader/follower effectiveness in the performance outcomes, there is a gap in qualitative exegetical research to support the Biblical basis for the role of Christian spirituality and the relationship between spirituality and small group effectiveness (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003; Pawar, 2009; Poole, It should ; and not , 2009).

## Literature Review

In order to examine Christian spirituality in the context of effectiveness in small groups utilizing the ideological texture of the pericope, a literature review exploring the formative theories that are the foundational basis for this study, must come first and foremost, from an understanding that is Christian and scriptural, and will be applicable in both secular and religious spheres (Bekker, 2005; Fedler, 2006; Hanna, 2006; Rossouw, 1994; Tuppurainen, 2012). As mentioned, this qualitative analysis of the pericope addresses the exegetical gap that relates to Christian spirituality specifically to small group effectiveness in achieving desired organizational outcomes (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003; Pawar, 2009; & Poole, 2009). There is quantitative research, however, to support the link between workplace spirituality, diversity, small group and group leadership constructs and small group outcomes (Benefiel, 2013; Benefiel & Fry, 2014; Marques, 2010; Sheng & Chen, 2012). The following section is a review of these four theories that provide quantitative exegetical support for the relationship between spirituality and small group effectiveness that is foundational to a fuller understanding of the text and its importance to this study.

### Spirituality in the Workplace

There has been a loss of Christian spirituality in the culture and in secular organizations (Bekker, 2005) that makes understanding the construct of workplace spirituality in the light of Biblical values critical to scholarly discourse and to this study (Fry & Cohen, 2009; Fry, Matherly & Ouimet, 2010; Rossouw, 1994). Interest in spirituality in the workplace and impact on performance is growing, however, there has not been significant empirical data among scholars to support the construct and its impacts until the last few years (Pawar, 2009; Rego & e Cunha, 2008). The rise in the interest in the phenomena is due to several changes in the organizational environment. First, even before the economic crises of 2008, employee downsizing caused increased concerns for employee workloads, real and self-imposed psychological pressures to work extended work weeks, ongoing fear of job loss in the next round of downsizing, concerns that it is difficult to find comparable jobs should employees be forced out of the organization, and the potential for future underemployment due to another downsizing (Dooley & Catalano, 2003; Gandolfi, 2009; Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003). The instability in many work environments caused by downsizing, rightsizing, reorganization, and new technology creates a distrust of organizations in general (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003; Wells & Kipnis, 2001). The distrust in organizations causes employees to see themselves as a commodity that may lead to fear, alienation, and the employee seeking a deeper meaning in life and the distrust can negatively impact performance outcomes (English, 2013; Gandolfi, 2009; Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003). Milliman, Czaplewski & Ferguson (2003) proffer that workplace spirituality contributes to sense of stability for

the employee, a greater sense of personal growth and service to others that can impact small group and organizational effectiveness.

Second, there is a global social consciousness in the business culture that is producing a sense of corporate social responsibility that will impact group effectiveness (Fry & Cohen, 2009; Pawar, 2009; Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003). There is a reduced concern regarding followers finding material satisfaction and the increasing number of people in Western cultures that value self-actualization that results in a quest for spirituality over material security (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003; Poole, 2009; Sirgy, Reilly, Wu & Efraty 2008;). The quest for spirituality does not necessarily mean a revival of Christian spirituality based on the Scriptures, perhaps because there is an increase in acceptance and interest among Western cultures in Eastern religion and philosophy, as well as general cultural shift towards diversity and the acceptance of other cultures (Benefiel, 2013; Benefiel & Fry, 2014; ; Marques, 2010; Sheng & Chen, 2012). There are a wide range of spiritualities including New Age and Recovery programs that encompass diverse values, beliefs, perspectives, and attitudes, including Judeo-Christian values (Fry & Cohen, 2009; Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003; Mitroff & Denton, 2013) that can impact small group effectiveness and performance outcomes.

Pawar (2009) examined the three aspects of workplace spirituality in relationship to: (a) meaning at work; (b) organizational sense of community; and, (c) positive purpose. These aspects are also examined in the interactive effects on individual spirituality on the three work attitudes of: (a) job satisfaction; (b) job involvement; and, (c) commitment to the group. The Pawar research utilized theory building to develop hypotheses using sample data from India with employees at the managerial level that validated the hypotheses. The research supports that there is a correlation between workplace spirituality and work attitudes, but, interestingly, not between individual spirituality and work attitudes. There is marginal support for interactive effective model of individual spirituality moderating the effect of workplace spirituality on work attitudes (Pawar, 2009). The Pawar study and similar research that has been conducted in relationship to workplace and organizational studies, provide empirical support that the inputs from these studies can be used to inform small group theory and enhance the understanding of spirituality, both Christian and non-Christian, as it correlates to group effectiveness (Benefiel & Fry, 2014; Benefiel, 2013; Sheng & Chen, 2012; Marques, 2010). These empirical studies, however, do not provide the Christian religious, spiritual, and linguistic context for spirituality and group performance outcomes that are needed in contemporary society (Jeanrond, 2003; Bekker, 2005; Browning, 1999) and are provided by the understandings gleaned from the pericope of Acts 6.

## Group Theory

The birth of the Christian church began in Acts with a small group of disciples that encountered the risen Christ and were empowered with the Holy Spirit of God (Earle,

1965; Johnson, 1999; Ma', 1999). The beginning of the first small group of Christians grew into multiple groups of new disciples consisting of various cultural and ethnic groups that create the context of the pericope of Acts 6 (Pao, 2011; Strauss, 2012) and provides Scriptural insight for this study as it relates to the into small group theory. Group theory cannot be adequately understood in terms of being a collection of individuals acting independently, but groups are complex systems that are dynamic, adaptive, interactive among group members, and in a given context, in order to assemble and create a given identity (Arrow, McGrath & Berdahl, 2001). When various elements such as boundaries, group identity, norms, and collective memory begin to operate together within the group, new patterns will develop or emerge. People are often drawn together by emotion (affective integration) and shared identity (cognitive integration) that can be based on a Christian spirituality (Arrow et al., 2001; Fry & Cohen, 2009; Fry, Matherly, & Ouimet, 2010). A small group or team can be described as two or more individuals who work together toward a common goal or goals in order to be effective in achieving an organizational desired outcome (Katz-Narvon & Eys, 2005; Staples & Webster, 2007). The interaction among the group members is determined by various factors, such as task interdependence that can impact whether the group becomes integrated to the point it is more than the sum of its parts, or remains an aggregation of individuals loosely tied to a common organizational goal (Katz-Narvon & Eys, 2005).

As many organizations across various industry sectors are utilizing teams and collaborative work, scholarly research is placing significant focus on specific strategies that explain complex group processes that are associated with more effective outcomes (Katz-Narvon & Eys, 2005; Li, 2007; Staples & Webster, 2007). There has been a resurgence of interest in small group personality, social composition, and spirituality their impact on group effectiveness (Fry & Cohen, 2009; Fry et al., 2010; Li, 2007; Staples & Webster, 2007). In addition, as important organizational decisions need to be made cross-functional work teams and project teams are being relied on to stimulate and enhance decision making processes, solve problems, and foster innovation. When the individuals comprising these groups differ in respect to knowledge, skill, expertise, and information they bring to these processes they have the potential to significantly enhance performance outcomes (Greer et al., 2008; Homan et al., 2007; Martins et al., 2013).

There are variables that impact group effectiveness and performance that focus on the mediating effects of the quality of group communication and characteristics of group communication that are able to differentiate between effective decision-making and ineffective decision making (Katz-Navon & Erez, 2005; Li, 2007). Small group conflict has been addressed in various research as well. Hardin (1997) proffers that it would be rare for a group to operate in complete harmony because all groups find ways to deal with root causes of conflict, such as the ability to coordinate the competing interests,

goals, desire to maximize benefits of the group, personal preferences, and even religious backgrounds of the individual members (Arrow et al., 2001; Fry & Cohen, 2009; Fry et al., 2010). In addition, group identification, commitment, and interests can impact the degree of conflict in any group setting and impact the group's effectiveness (Hardin, 1997; Arrow et al., 2001). It is important that members agree on a common framework for handling and resolving conflict. Norms should be established regarding how group members: (a) express their view to the group; (b) how those viewpoints will be evaluated and weighted in comparison to other members; (c) how conflicting views will be reconciled, discounted, and by whom; and, (d) how and by whom will group consensus be achieved and a group decision articulated (Arrow et al., 2001). Based on the supporting literature for group theory, this proposed exegetical research could begin to close the scriptural gap on the relationship of Christian spirituality and group theory.

### **Group Leadership Theory**

There is a tendency in modern leadership theory to formulate professionalized leadership constructs that fall short of what is truly effective through Biblical leadership in both contemporary organizations and small groups (Bekker, 2005; Kinnison, 2010; Rossouw, 1994). As the text of Acts 6 demonstrates, Christian leadership is more than outward moral behavior which adheres to certain Christian values, but also includes moral actions which flow from inward moral transformation and the power of the Holy Spirit (Pao, 2011; Rossouw, 1994). Christian leadership values demand a personal faith and trust in Jesus Christ, which requires a "higher righteousness that involves a transformation of the entire person, not just their actions" (Fedler, 2006, p. 34). These values can and should impact effectiveness of small groups and the larger organization (Kinnison, 2010; Rossouw, 1994). The transformational nature of the Christian experience is driven by the love of God for those who are called to serve (John 3:16, NKJV). Because the Holy Spirit of Christ dwells within the heart of the believer (Colossians 1:27), the Christian virtue of love becomes the driving force of the inner man which demands leaders love their group members, employees, external business partners, stakeholders, shareholders and regulators (Winston, 2002). In addition, the spiritual qualifications in the early church centered around both leaders and followers that are full of faith and the Holy Spirit, who are focused on prayer and the ministry of the Word (Acts 6:3-4).

Through the investigation of the Hebrew and Christian Scriptures Laniak (2006) demonstrates that much of the modern tendency to professionalized constructs regarding workplace spirituality, small groups, and leadership may fall short of what is truly effective from a Biblical perspective for praxis in both churches and contemporary organizations (Kinnison, 2010). The early church clearly advocated that leaders and followers are to be full of faith and the Holy Spirit, as well as, wholly devoted to prayer

and the ministry of the Word (Acts 6:3-4). In addition, they are to have good reputation with outsiders and live a life that is above reproach (1 Timothy 3:1-7; Titus 1:5-9).

## Diversity and Meta-Analyses

The text of Acts 6 examines the diverse social, cultural, ethnic, and religious backgrounds of the Hebrews, Jews, and Greeks of the first century church and how, despite their diversity, were effective in their work and service. (Spencer, 1994; Strauss, 2012). The empirical research in the area of contemporary group diversity theory has grown over the last few decades, although meta-analyses have not provided consensus regarding small group diversity and the resulting performance effects (de Wit, Greer & Jehn, 2012; Joshi & Roh, 2009; Martins et al., 2013). Joshi and Roh (2009) utilized a macro and micro theoretical framework to conduct a meta-analysis that identifies prior empirical research regarding work team diversity and performance. The methodology included: (a) computerized databases; (b) manual searches of major journals; and, (c) other highly cited, peer reviewed management journal literature. The data from 8,757 teams in 39 studies conducted in organizational settings, with moderating contextual factors at multiple levels that include occupation, industry, and team as impacted by the performance on relations and task diversity. Without the mediating variables there were few direct effects on relations-oriented variables, such as race/ethnicity, gender, and age, and all other attributes are essentially zero, whereas, when moderators are applied the effects on performance often double and triple in size (Joshi & Roh, 2009). Future research is expected to further consider task, knowledge share, industry and occupational moderators that impact small group and team effectiveness.

The de Wit et al. (2012) meta-analysis is one of the most comprehensive studies on intragroup conflict related to small group diversity to date. In a relatively short period of time between 2003 and 2005 there were over 80 empirical studies that examined the effects of intragroup conflict on group performance outcomes. De Wit et al. (2012) explored the plethora of literature encompassing 8,880 small groups in 80 recent empirical studies that investigated complex relationships between conflict and group outcomes, and newer constructs of intragroup conflict that focused on process conflict. Researchers conducting the meta-analysis investigated a number of moderating variables in order to address diversity within groups across the various studies. The de Wit et al. (2009) study finds that there are stable negative relationships that are consistent in process conflict and group outcomes. In contrast, the earlier meta-analysis by De Dreu and Weingart (2003) did not find a strong negative correlation between task conflict and group performance. The de Wit et al. (2012) analysis of main effects and moderator analysis created more complex relationships. For instance, task conflict and group performance are more positively related in the studies where the association between task and relationship conflict are weak, in teams that have members who are high in the hierarchical structure, compared to teams that have members who consist of those lower in the hierarchical structure. In addition, in the studies where the outcomes

are measured in terms of financial performance or decision quality, rather than overall performance, task conflict and group performance were more positively related (de Wit et al., 2012). Both the de Wit et al. (2012) and Joshi and Roh (2009) research indicate that diversity within work teams impact group effectiveness that can be further informed through the study of the pericope that provides Scriptural support for the relationship between Christian spirituality, Christian leadership, and Christian diversity as it relates to small group performance outcomes.

### **Expert and Expertness Diversity**

Regardless of the diversity of the group or leader background, the spiritual requirement for any level of hierarchical leadership and expertise in the business of the early church was to be full of the Holy Spirit and wisdom (Hymes, 2010; Ma', 1999; Pao, 2011; Tuppurainen, 2012). There are studies that proffer empirical research examining various aspects of expertise and expertness diversity with the focus on the mediated effects of performance or use dependent variables other than performance (de Wit et al., 2012; Joshi & Roh, 2009; Martins et al., 2013). Research on these forms, without mediators, has produced inconsistent results, highlighting the need for further research that includes potential moderators and contingency factors (de Wit et al., 2012; Joshi & Roh, 2009; Martins et al., 2013). The Martins et al. (2013) research examines cognitive diversity that exists in many forms, and is a characteristic of any small group by moderating the affective context on the relationships between cognitive diversity and team performance. In other words, the immediate context in which the interaction occurs between diverse team members is related to the comfort that diverse team members have in expressing diverse opinions, perspectives, and the ability to integrate the perspective into team task performance. The immediate affective context Martins et al. (2013) examined is relationship conflict and psychological safety in relationship to team cognitive diversity of expertise and expertness diversity and the impact on team performance. The research uses a sample of 736 students enrolled in an information management master's program that are randomly organized into 196 teams of three to five people per team in a large French university. The study found that when there is low team psychological safety, expertise diversity negatively impacts team performance, while when there is high psychological safety, expert diversity is positively impacts team performance. Low team relationship conflict expertness diversity positively relates to team performance (Martins et al., 2013). The contingency model developed by Martins et al. (2009) is based on the supposition that the immediate context of the team with influence the dynamics of cognitive diversity and that the contingency effects generate different outcomes based on the cognitive diversity examined. Although the research collected was used over a large number of teams over a period of time, it is an empirical laboratory study that does not account for organizational politics that could be common in field teams, indicting the need for further validation in this environment. Although there are opportunities for further

quantitative research, there appears to be a qualitative exegetical gap for the construct that addresses the need for the expert spiritual qualifications for leaders and group members, based on Scriptural principles that positively impact group effectiveness and performance as supported in the text under consideration (Hymes, 2010; Ma', 1999; Pao, 2011; Tuppurainen, 2012).

## Method

Although the various constructs outlined in this paper include numerous quantitative and qualitative research studies, there does not appear to be sufficient exegetical research from the Hebrew and Christian Scriptures that links the impact of Christian spirituality in small groups and the correlation to achieving desired outcomes. This paper addresses the gap in exegetical support for the role of Christian spirituality as it correlates to small group effectiveness. The study answers the research question: Do the Scriptures provide exegetical support that Christian spirituality correlates to diverse work team's effectiveness in achieving the organization's desired outcomes? The study is an exegetical research project designed to address the research gap that provides exegetical support from the Scriptures to link Christian spirituality and the impact on diverse small groups in achieving desired productivity and performance.

The socio-rhetorical critical method provides a sound exegetical framework for Biblical understandings, which were previously gleaned from literary critics, linguists, sociologists and anthropologists, in order to bring them to bear on the text, so the reader may fully experience and interpret the text (Robbins, 1996). The socio-rhetorical method uses critical analysis of the Scriptures in order to focus the belief, convictions, and values in the world we operate in and the text under consideration (Robbins, 1996). The interpretation or exegesis is the scholarly examination of the text to glean the author's intended meaning and significance from various viewpoints and perspectives in order to understand the author's originally intended meaning (deSilva, 2004; Fee & Stuart, 2003; Robbins, 1996). The socio-rhetorical analysis provides the research framework to examine pericope as a richly "textured tapestry" by fully entering the text through detailed analysis of: (a) the cultural and ideological world of the time it was written, (b) the text in relationship to other texts, and, (c) the investigation of how the pericope affects the world (deSilva, 2004; Fee & Stuart, 2003; Robbins, 1996). Robbins (1996) includes five approaches to explore the pericope that include the (a) texture, (b) intertexture, (c) social, and cultural texture, (d) sacred texture, and (e) ideological texture to ensure there is an understanding of the meaning below the surface of the text.

In some methods of interpretation, there is overemphasis on linguistics and word meaning, which could lead readers, in some cases, to the wrong conclusion regarding the intended message of the sacred text (Fee & Stuart, 2003; Robbins, 1996). Tuppurainen (2012) posits that scholars from the Pentecostal/Charismatic and Roman Catholic traditions have their cherished positions and theological perspectives, which

serve as filters, to arrive at what they believe, are correct or incorrect understandings of the sacred text. The Socio-rhetorical method does not ignore these views, but goes beneath surface of the text to secure a richer, fuller and more holistic understanding of the meaning of the pericope. The ideological texture is one component of the model, which enables the interpreter to reach a more holistic understanding of the text. Tuppurainen (2012) posits that ideology is the manner that reader's and writer's presumptions, values, and resulting beliefs relate to ideologies of other texts, individuals, and groups at the time of their historical setting. In addition, ideology examines the social and cultural location of the implied author as it relates to the power structures and institutions of power (Eagleton, 1983). Social rhetorical criticism focuses on how the cultural and social setting of the era interacts with the implied author, text and reader. The ideological texture forces the interpreter to examine his/her own ideological assumptions and examine and reflect on them in light of the text, as well as, the perspectives of others and their presuppositions, which may have previously interpreted the text (deSilva, 2004; Fee & Stuart, 2003; Robbins, 1996; Tuppurainen, 2012).

## Data Collection

The intended meaning and appropriate application require the enabling power of the Holy Spirit to guide the reader into all Truth (John 16:13). In addition the Scriptures do not come from the creative work of the prophets' own thoughts, will, intention or understanding, but through the power of God (2 Timothy 3:16-17; 2 Peter 2:19-21), who is the author of the text using the prophets as instruments to reveal the Word of God (Johnson, 1998). The apostles and early church did not consider how a reader would interact with the text, however, they considered how they interacted with and experienced the risen Christ. As Johnson (1998) observes:

Serious engagement with earliest Christianity demands recognition that its adherents... considered themselves caught up by, defined by, a power that derived from the crucified and raised Messiah Jesus. Any effort to interpret the writings of early Christianity...that does not proceed on this assumption is fated to fall short of a satisfying interpretation (p. 184).

In addition to examining the ideological texture of the pericope, it should be acknowledged that there is an absolute necessity for the exegete to have complete reliance on the guidance of the Holy Spirit in order to use this tool to secure the intended message and meaning of His sacred Word. The hope is that the interpreter can understand the ideological texture of the text and experience the enabling power of the Holy Spirit to understand the text as it was originally intended and in doing so, rightly divide the word of truth (2 Timothy 2:15).

The Christian perspective based on the Scriptures for spirituality and group theory are necessary for scholarly research and the biblical text should be recognized as an acceptable research source because it is a text, and not just a collection of propositions, that open the way for the exegete to understand the historical perspective of religious, spiritual, and linguistic contexts (Bekker, 2005; Browning, 1999; Jeanrond, 2003;). There has been a loss of Christian spirituality within the culture and in organizations, creating a great need in the scholarly research to study, examine, and understand spirituality, leadership, organizations, and small groups constructs in the light of how the sacred texts of the Hebrew and Christian Scriptures inform and shape these constructs (Bekker, 2005).

## Data Analysis

The Acts 6:1-7 pericope stresses the Biblical requirement and command of Jesus Christ that a core qualification for effectiveness in achieving the desired outcome of evangelizing the nations, is to be filled with the Holy Spirit (Tuppurainen, 2012). The Gospel of Luke and the book of Acts address a man named Theophilus (1:1) and most conservative scholarship (Earle, 1965) would attribute authorship to Luke “our dear friend...the doctor” (Colossians 4:14, version). Acts is considered the second volume of the Gospel of Luke and the author is telling the story in two volumes (Strauss, 2012). Acts fulfills the need for a full account of the beginnings of the Christian church and evangelization of the Gentiles, specifically the Holy Spirit’s anointing of the leadership of the church (Acts 1:8) in order to evangelize the known world. Acts is the narrative that describes the church fulfilling the mission of God (Strauss, 2012).

The text in Luke 24:44-53 serves as a bridge to Acts 1:1-14, where the works of Jesus in His earthly ministry and His work on the cross are complete and the church is born. In Acts the church continues proclaiming the completed work of the cross and doing greater works than Jesus did (John 12:12-14). Before the resurrected Christ ascended to heaven (Luke 24:50-51; Acts 1:9-11), He instructed the small group of 11 future leaders of the church to wait in Jerusalem until they are endued with power from on high (Luke 24:49; Acts 1:8). They had been given their commission (Matthew 28:18-20), but needed the Father’s promise of the Holy Spirit’s fullness to be realized before they were to begin their service (Acts 1:5). As members of this group they were expected to speak under the impulse of the Holy Spirit, teach (4:30-31), preach (26:18), heal the sick (4:30-31), and have faith for the performance of miracles (6:5, 8). The pericope clearly states the need for these members to have a personal experience and encounter with the Holy Spirit that saturates the believer’s life with the presence of Christ in order to be effective in the group or larger organizational context (Tuppurainen, 2012).

In Judaism, Jerusalem was the spiritual center of the world, and in Acts Jerusalem becomes the new ‘pivotal center’ for the spreading of the Gospel to the ends of the earth (Strauss, 2012). Luke continues his narrative with geographic references so the reader

will not miss the fulfillment of the promise of Acts 1:8. Luke's emphasis on geography is critical because it outlines the ethnic ideology of the Gospel that is beginning with the Jews and expanding to the Samaritans, to occasional God-fearing Gentiles and finally to the larger Gentile world.

From the time of the ascension of Christ (Acts 1:9), the early church leaders were unified (2:1) and effective in the service of the church (2:42-47). Despite the continued effectiveness of the church (6:1) there was a dispute, which arose between two different groups, the Hellenists (Greek) and the Hebrew Christians, regarding the care of widows and the distribution of food (6:1). There is not a consensus among scholars as to the identities of the two groups, but some argue that the primary distinction between the two groups concerned language preference (Pao, 2011). Dunn (1996) argues, however, that it is more than a language issue, but was ideology that distinguished the two groups, linking their ideological conflict to a residue of suspicion between the two groups dating back to the Maccabean revolt where Hellenist Jews fought against the conservative Jews.

The redaction-historical method has dominated some thinking, asserting Luke understated the Hellenistic-Hebrew schism so as not to tarnish his idealized narrative of the early church (Spencer, 1994). Spencer (1994) posits that the conflict has become the setting for some to use the pericope as a model structure for a male dominated leadership structure. Some older commentators, however, see the conflict and resolution simply as the Holy Spirit's example for the apostles to resolve conflict and reach agreement that it would not be right for them to neglect prayer and the ministry of the word, in order to provide the appropriate oversight for the care of the widows who are in true need (Earle, 1965; Henry, N.D.).

The Pentecostal ideological tradition reads the pericope as another confirmation that all those in the group of leaders in training must be baptized with the Holy Spirit, and the initial evidence of the baptism being the gift of tongues (Pao, 2011; Tuppurainen, 2012), although the text does not specifically mention the sign of tongues. Spencer (1994) proffers the Roman Catholic perspective that the pericope and the neglect of the widows is a clear call for the church to minister to the poor. Some scholars debate whether the ongoing roles and responsibilities of the seven appointed as deacons was for leadership or the service of the saints (Frost & Hirsch, 2003; Spencer, 1994). Frost and Hirsch (2003) assert, however, that the Holy Spirit equips all believers in some capacity for ministry for effective service to the group, larger church organization, and for the influence and advancement of the kingdom.

Pao (2011) proffers the resolution of the conflict between the Hellenists and Jews as culminating in the appointment of leaders who are known to be full of wisdom and the Holy Spirit, in order to offer effective service and achieve the desired outcomes for the kingdom. In doing so, it establishes the ongoing theme of Luke-Acts requiring

members to operate in the power of the Holy Spirit in order to accomplish the desired outcomes of the church and command of the risen Christ (Hymnes, 2010; Johnson, 1999; Pao, 2011). The need for Spirit-filled and empowered members is not a new requirement in the pericope, but was an historically important requirement for the other groups in the Old Testament, such as Numbers 11, where the 70 leaders were appointed to lessen the workload and burden of Moses (Ma', 2010). In order to fulfill the call of the Lord, each member was to be authenticated through being filled by the Holy Spirit in order to be empowered in effective service for others (Hymes, 2010).

## Results

The exploration of the ideological texture of Acts 6:1-17 enables the exegete to reach a more holistic understanding of the text's social, historical, and cultural context that gives insight into the meaning and intention of the author's point of view (Self, 2009). In addition, the ideological texture analysis suggests that there are kernels, summary sentences, or themes that contribute to understanding the relationship of Christian spirituality to small group effectiveness (deSilva, 2004; Robbins, 1996; Self, 2009; Tuppurainen, 2012). The ideological texture of the pericope also examines the social and cultural perspectives of Hebrews, Greeks, and Jews as it relates to the power structures and institutions of power (Eagleton, 1983). The kernels or summary interpretive statements are listed:

### Summary Statements of the Pericope:

1. The number of disciples was increasing
2. Grecian Jews complain against Hebraic Jews because of inequality in the distribution of food to Grecian widows
3. The leader's first responsibility is prayer and the ministry of the Word
4. The requirement for the selection of additional leaders is to possess the Spirit's fullness and wisdom
5. Apostles re-state their spiritual requirement/priority of prayer and the Word
6. The church (group) acknowledges the priority of spiritual qualifications for leaders, groups, and the church at large

## Discussion

The research question that prompted this study asked how Christian spirituality relates to group effectiveness in achieving organizational outcomes. In the pericope the resolution of the conflict between two cultural groups from different ideological perspectives culminated in Acts 6:3 with the appointment of leaders who were "full of the Holy Spirit and wisdom, whom we may appoint over this business" (Tuppurainen, 2012; Pao, 2011; Hymes, 2010; Johnson, 1999). The apostle Paul argues that in Christ, there is neither Greek nor Jew, but all are to be used for the purposes of the kingdom

(Galatians 3:28; Colossians 3:11). Christian spirituality is not defined by culture or ethnicity, but is defined by the “dynamic relational process in which people, under the influence of the Holy Spirit, partner to achieve a common goal . . . [which is] . . . serving others by leading and leading others by serving” (Hanna, 2006). Central to Christian spirituality is the need for the Holy Spirit (Hanna, 2006; Hymes, 2010; Ma’ 2010; Pao, 2011). As Hanna (2006) points out, what marks Christian spirituality as Christian, is that leaders and followers accomplish the desired outcomes of the kingdom under the influence and direction of the Holy Spirit. The central theme emerges from the Acts text that in order for a group to make a lasting impact for good and have long term effectiveness, the group and its leaders must operate in the power of the Holy Spirit. This theme is compatible with the Scriptural record and emerges as theme of this pericope and all of the sacred writings of Scripture (Hanna, 2006).

The focus of the pericope is in the context of the early church and Christian community of faith where Christian spirituality was the foundation for effectiveness of the apostles and the church. Although the text is in the context of the first century and addresses specific issues the small group of leaders faced, the principles discussed are transferable to other settings and contexts (Witherington, 1995; Doty, 1973; Patton, 2002). Spirituality and effectiveness in service are universal in value whether in secular or Christian settings and can have universal application in the United States and other cultures as well, indicating confirmability (Kriger & Seng, 2005; Fry & Cohen, 2009; Fry et al., 2010; Patton, 2002). The implication for Christian praxis (creditability) is that groups, organizations and leaders need more than a skillset that is acquired through learning, but must have a spirituality that is rooted and sourced in Jesus Christ and the Scriptures (Bekker, 2005; Johnson, 1999). Because textual criticism is not a science and deals with many variables, there are limitations to socio-rhetorical criticism and this study (Fee & Stuart, 2003; Robbins, 1996). The exegete who seeks to uncover the author’s intended meaning, may examine linguistics, and rely on shared assumptions that are contingent on the context within the context that can determine meanings (Mihaila, 2009). Christian spirituality however, is a gift from the Holy Spirit and the Holy Spirit is the gift from the Father for leaders, small groups, and organizations. As Peter noted when discussing culture, ethnicity, and the ideological perspective of the context of the early church (Acts 10: 34), God is no respecter of persons when He imparts the Holy Spirit. The promised gift of the fullness of the Holy Spirit is for the Jews who received the promises and the Gentiles who are far from the original promises (Acts 2:39). It is for the Hellenists and the Jewish Christians, and it is the essence of Christian spirituality regardless of the culture or setting, and is critical for effectiveness of small groups in achieving organizational outcomes.

Future research should include a complete socio-rhetorical critical analysis using of Robbins (1996) method of examining the: (a) inner texture, (b) intertexture, (c) social and culture texture, (d) ideological, and (e) sacred texture of this pericope and other sacred

texts. The Christological basis of leadership with supporting exegesis, research, theological, philosophical and historical research rooted in the New Testament has been addressed in scholarly journals, but there is less research utilizing the Old Testament Scriptures (Tuppurainen, 2012). In the same way, further qualitative research is needed to examine Christian spirituality in the context of small groups using both Old and New Testaments.

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### About the Author

William Sawyer is a third-year Ph.D. student at Regent University, where he is studying organizational leadership. He is senior leader for a global big data and information company and a part-time pastor of multi-cultural church on the west coast.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to William Sawyer at [willsaw@mail.regent.edu](mailto:willsaw@mail.regent.edu).

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EMERGING  
LEADERSHIP  
JOURNEYS

## Empowerment and Coworker Response to Leader Tactic and Organizational Hope

Larry D. Phillips  
*Regent University*

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Socio-cognitive approaches to leadership study remain the front-runner in research; this study presents a model, which shows the quality of coworker exchange and organizational hope significantly influence workplace empowerment. The model clearly presents the power of reciprocal behavior from leader influence tactic and statistical significance of coworker exchange quality, which responds as an influence multiplier for organizational hope. The follower's perception of a leader is shown to affect the characterization image held by the follower and the conclusions drawn of the leader and by the leader. The nature of leadership is analyzed to reveal an environment type that is conducive to workplace empowerment so that work is optimized and goals exceeded. Coworker social exchange is poised through the studied model as a cognitive constructed influence emerging through the follower's implicit image. The nature of the memory-held image emerged unnoticed by the member from an information processing perspective based on past situational trait patterns. The reciprocal nature of the leader-follower relationship and coworker exchange is shown to mediate and moderate organizational relationships such that emancipation of control occurs through an empowered work force.

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As work in teams, permanent and temporary, continue to evolve Kirkman, Rosen, Tesluk, and Gibson (2004) acknowledge that the role of leader behavior developed through what Lewin (1943) argued as tendencies of leader domination and submission and to large extent shaped through social changes within the organization hold importance as truisms for the follower as well as the leader. Lewin, (1944) first wrote of the contradictions of leadership referring to criticism and watch over leader power such that behavior is defined here as discretionary with an intention to benefit the organization or the individual. Perhaps owing to habits of action and of thinking Lewin advanced that the inclinations of the person are closely related to ideology and expectation. Beyond leader tendencies, Stogdill's (1950) castigating argument concerning obstinacy of adequate definition of leadership as a conscionable application endures in vague obscurity removed from connectedness of theory and practice. To this end, this paper takes Stogdill's classic definition of leadership, considered as a process of influence, and undertakes to develop a model of convergence between theory and application.

As an individual's self-identity is based on how they perceive their identity by (or through?) the social identities of others or what others think of them, which contrasts with social identity, argued by Lord, Brown, and Freiberg (1999) as an individual's determination of their relationships with others that is the reciprocal feelings experienced

by the person about their social relationships. Settoon, Bennett, and Liden (1996) acknowledging general research (e.g. Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Hutchison, Sowa, Eisenberger, & Huntington 1986; Lau & Liden, 2008) suggest that positive actions by an organization toward employees contribute to the quality of individual exchanges. Recent research by Blanchard, Welbourne, Gilmore, and Bullock (2009) showed attachment, coworker trust, optimism, and resilience result in individual social identity and others (e.g. Ferres, Connell, & Travaglione, 2004; Youssef & Luthans, 2007), advanced identity through reciprocity in relationships. Shondrick & Lord (2010) take a divergent view asserting that the leader-follower interactional dynamic process is too ambiguous and complex to preclude ability to determine the causal effects of leader or follower behavior consequently thwarting social identity theory development. Ludema, Wilmot, and Srivastava (1997) upheld the critical nature of research requires methodology that delves beyond existing epistemological rhetoric and toward extending construct development. The argument presented here suggests leadership exists for the hope and purpose that work activities achieve organizational goals. This paper further develops the construct of organizational hope, through the context of work place empowerment resulting from coworker exchange response to the leader's influence tactic behavior.

## Conceptual Background and Hypotheses

This paper considers the influence of leader behavior on coworker exchange (CWX) and CWX as a moderator on the relationship between organizational milieu and follower perceived empowerment depicted by the model in Figure 1. Through a methodology design to determine the relationship between hypothesized causal leader behavior variables and moderating criteria as proposed by Howell, Dorfman, and Kerr (1986). Additionally, a lack of taxonomy acknowledged by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) borne out of the ambiguity between leadership constructs and behavior (Yukl 2006) hinders theory development. Thus an overarching purpose for this work is to show convergence of theory and application—a lack of which Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan (1994) laments that for its importance, the narrow focus through the tomes of extant research confines readership predominantly to psychologists.

The thesis here maintains that the leader's selected core influence behavior (CIB) tactic (see Yukl, Falbe, & Youn, 1993) bears an influence on the pattern and quality of worker relationships within the organization as depicted in Figure 1, where coworker exchange (CWX) mediates organizational hope and moderates the relationship between organizational hope and workplace empowerment. Similar to Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1994) supposition of leadership model, whose focus includes the follower's domain (workplace empowerment) or models of behavioral approach of the leader and relationship (member exchange), and the adaptive nature of the organization's processes, which may emerge as the adaptive and connective phenomenon of the leader-follower relationship to organizational response (Offermann, Kennedy & Wirtz, 1994). Offermann et al. point to the importance of reaching beyond the theory of mere existence and looking

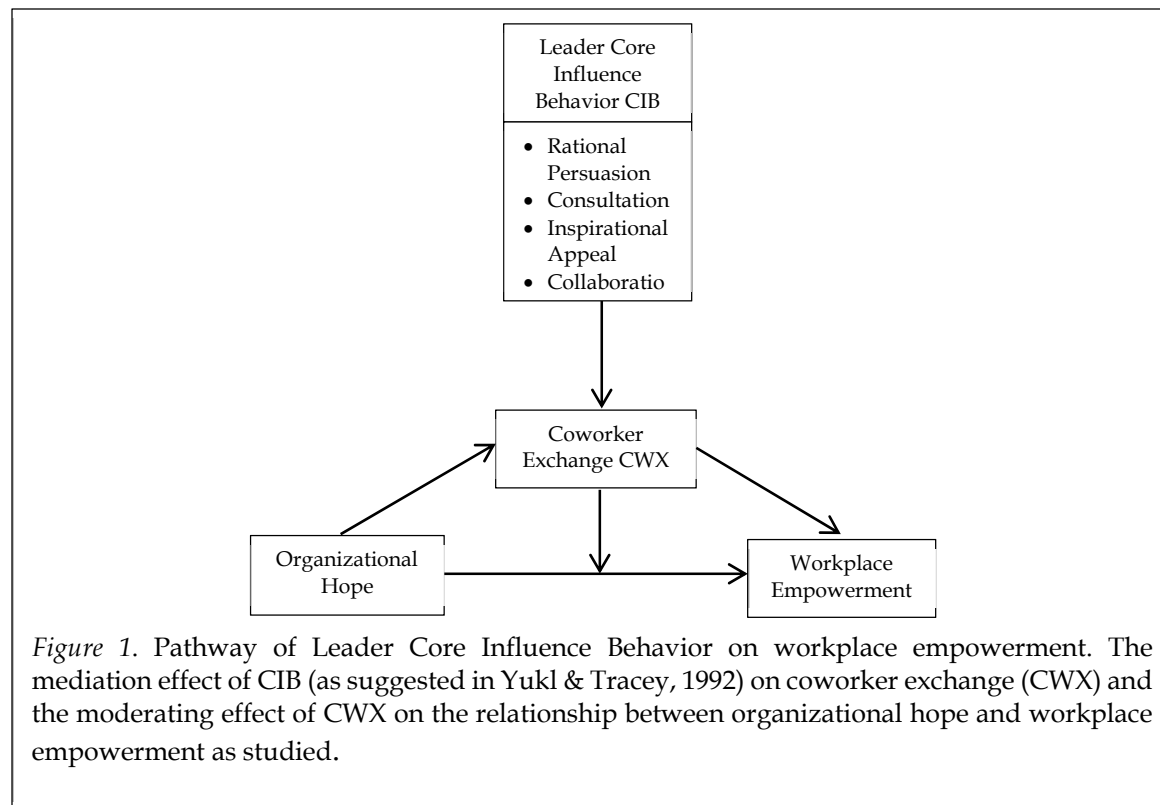
toward understanding the content and structure of the way leaders are viewed and the way change occurs within the organization's environment as a result.

The social cognitive theory suggests that personal determinants central to the causal role include vicarious, self-regulating, and self-reflective processes (Wood and Bandura, 1991). The individual reflective process, consequently facilitates reciprocal behavior through mastery in modeling, which Wood and Bandura argue nurture individual beliefs and capabilities. Reciprocity in relationship with the organization, Uhl-Bien and Maslyn (2003) reason, creates mutual-interest reported by followers and their managers as a positive influence in their relationship quality and these higher quality relationships supported higher perceptions of organizational support. Lord, Brown, and Freiberg (1999) compares with Choi and Mai-Dalton (1999) regarding the dynamic and reciprocal follower behavior and favorable subordinate perceptions that improve performance. Brown, Travino, and Harrison (2005) advance the social learning perspective of leadership modeling legitimizes the capture of follower attention so that attentiveness between coworkers is influenced. The primary objective of this work was to link the leader's core influence behavior and coworker exchange as the member's reciprocal response to the organization's culture, which influences workplace empowerment. It is hypothesized that the intuitions or perception of shared values in work foster shared effort and collaboration indicative of empowered organizations.

### **Core Leader Influence Behavior and Coworker Exchange**

Yukl (2006) cautions that the leader tactic of using coercive power to invoke compliance in the face of consequence may not work or may even arouse anger in the unintimidated follower who believes a way around compliance is possible. Leader behavior carries an element of implicit inspiration with a contagious nature. Whiteley, Sy, and Johnson (2012) suggests a naturally occurring Pygmalion effect between leaders' high performance expectation and the implicit expectation of followers and the reciprocal behavior of those followers (Offermann, Kennedy & Wirtz, 1994). Current research (e.g. Sy, 2010; Whiteley, Sy, & Johnson, 2012) acknowledges that the cognitive implicit view of followers by leaders and likewise the follower's implicit ideas of leader behavior is influenced by leader choice in behavior tactic (Cable & Judge, 2003; Yukl & Tracey, 1992; Yukl, Fable, & Youn, 1993).

H1: Higher employee reported leader core influence behavior scores will have a positive effect on employee exchange quality with their coworker



Studies of follower education level as a predictor of leader influence tactics is nearly absent from the literature. In an investigation of transformational and transactional behavior and influence tactics Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin, and Marx (2007) advance that followers with higher levels of education preferred a less structured form of leadership style. Barbuto et al. studied education separate from other demographic variables (e.g. gender; age) finding the leader's level of education produced a significant effect on the follower's perception of transformational behavior, which contrasts with Barbuto et al. finding that the leader's level of education had no significant effect on follower perception of leader influence tactics. Judge, Ilies, Bono, and Gerhardt (2002) suggested caution in addressing the issue of demographic correlation in research arguing that past research shows a prominence in leadership influence of effectiveness as assessed by subordinates. Thus, Judge et al. argues the concept that the leader traits of previous research may contrast with follower perceptions concerning leader behavior influence in outcome causation. Yukl, Seifert, and Chavez (2008) suggest that the education of followers should have no effect on the Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ) responses used to measure follower perception of leader tactics. It is argued here that follower commitment to carry out the leader's request is fundamental to organizational performance. Yukl et al. suggests the Core Influence Behavior (CIB) tactics of the IBQ including rational persuasion, consultation, inspirational appeals, and collaboration are most likely to elicit follower obligation. Barbuto, Fritz, and Marx (2002) argue higher levels of education across a sample limit generalizability of the study. Similarly, Fu and

Yukl (2000) note that higher levels of education within an American sample had essentially no effect on leader influence tactics as other researchers (e.g. Deem, Hillyard, & Reed, 2007) suggests knowledge worker education levels influence leader behavior, thus it is expected that:

H2: The follower's education level will have an inverse effect on the follower reported CIB rating for inspiration such that as the follower's education level increases reported use of the CIB inspirational tactics will decrease.

The complexity of leadership influence behavior and distinctness of power and influence behavior constructs remain not very well understood (Yukl, 2006). Yukl argues the leader's power exists with the capacity to influence others without the leader's intent to do so. This is important knowledge for the organizational leader. Douglas, Martin, and Krapels (2006) suggest that a follower's perception of the leader's influence tactic affects the success of organizational tacit occurrences, such as change. Previous research of such narrow focus as the effectiveness of a single tactic and most often, according to Yukl and Tracey (1992) is limited to a tactic's influence upward, hence when the influence has the least effect (e.g. upward influence) it falters in adequately measuring the construct of coworker exchange. Development of leader influence behavior, until very recently, remained fixated on direction of influence, type of influence tactic combined toward particular outcome goals, or leader effectiveness. The influence tactics used by the leader transcends the organizational structure-reaching superiors, peers, and subordinates thus the consequence for how people relate, even to the character of the workforce (Cable & Judge, 2003). It is argued that leader influence, which has a positive effect on the quality of coworker relations, transcends the organizations through an empowered workplace, such that:

H3: Higher coworker exchange quality has a positive influence on employee ratings of empowerment.

## Organizational Hope

Peterson (2000) advances hope on Snyder's (1994) supposition that hope exposes through expectation and agency then is revealed as optimism. Peterson acknowledges that hope emerges through an individual's expectation that goals are achievable through agency as a person's determination and through a person's beliefs in plans generated to achieve the goal, which operates as a pathway. Snyder (2002) found that people could readily identify daily goals and held "enduring, self-referential thought as to pathway and capacity to find requisite motivation for these goal pursuits" (p. 250). Snyder derives a trilogy of concepts—goals, pathways, and agency—in defining hope. Shaped by these connective relationships, which from a macro perspective develops from the structures and practices of individual intrinsic motivation, that Conger and Kanugo (1988) suggests play a crucial role in group development and maintenance. Keller (2000) advanced the leader trait or

characteristic contribution to cognitive formation concerning leaders by followers and more recently, Epitropaki and Martin (2004) narrowed factors of organizational leader implicitness. Yukl, Seifert, and Chavez (2008) hypothesize mutually compatible and capable leadership tactics of simultaneous use. The model anticipates Snyder's (2002) suggested high-hope stretch skills ultimately operationalized through agency thinking toward unstoppable activity to achieve hoped for goals.

Helland and Winston (2005) acknowledge the role of hope in member satisfaction and as an emerging concept and key variable for leadership. Hope as a factor in human capital when present, which Ludema, Wilmot, and Srivastva (1997) presuppose amongst an array of description and understanding consists of the following four enduring qualities:

1. Born in a relationship
2. Inspired by the conviction that the future is open and can be influenced
3. Sustained by dialogue about human ideals, and
4. Generative of positive effect and action (p. 1030).

Ludema, Wilmot, and Srivastva (1997) proposed hope operative with a multiplicative nature capable of achieving mutuality in relationship, and thus important in organizational research. The mutuality of hope Ludema et al. recognize as a binding force, which allows the merging of self-interests with the interests of others such that relationships develop as participatory forces. When hope prevails through an organization, member effectiveness is influenced.

H4: High level of organizational hope perceived by followers will have a positive influence on CWX quality coworker exchange.

## Workplace Empowerment

Recent popular press (e.g. Marquet, 2012) argues strongly that empowerment is an act of control when granted to followers as permission to proceed. Marquet argues that it is through the leader's release of control that emancipation results and facilitates true follower empowerment and the ensuing extra effort. Similarly, Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, and Avolio (2010) suggest that leaders matter as they create the organizational culture and the practices that determine the level of involvement by followers in the decision making process. Walumbwa et al. argue the degree of shared values and ideas with leaders positively influence feeling of authentic hope and thus empowerment. Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) acknowledged when empowered employees drew together extra effort increased overall unit synergy and Hartline and Ferrell (1996) advance research that the effort exuded by empowered employees promulgated a quality-laden vision.

H5: Higher ratings of hope will positively influence workplace empowerment.

H6: Coworker exchange moderates the relationship between organizational hope and workplace empowerment, such that the effect of organizational hope on workplace empowerment is higher when CWX is greater.

H6a: There is an interaction between Coworker exchange and organizational hope in predicting workplace empowerment such that hope will be more predictive of workplace empowerment when CWX quality is higher.

The social construction of followership emerges when a leader infers a group to be his or her followers or when in accord with other individuals view themselves as followers and as led by a leader (Shondrick & Lord, 2010). The relationship between leader performance and leader expectations for follower performance in a reciprocation of social exchanges as shown by others (e.g. Uhl Bein & Maslyn, 2002; Whitely, Sy, & Johnson, 2012) and influenced by self-regulation and self-reflection (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005) and empowerment is high (Bandura, 1991). Leaders do many things to promote the organization's practices (Yukl, 2006). Included in Yukl's protocol of practices are acts of leader service to followers that include vision development consistency between espoused values and behavior, transparency in actions, and coaching or mentoring to develop followers. Through this array of practices, follower centrality is clear.

## Method

Within health systems accessibility across functions through interorganizational exchanges are essential to goal attainment. Within the health organization, Levine and White (1961) advance the existing varying types of relations offer an opportunity to examine interorganizational relationship patterns. Influencing the employee and developing commitment according to Yukl (2006) are important determinants to leader effectiveness in achieving success. Leader-member exchanges are well studied as a model grounded in role theory (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen, Novak, & Sommerekamp, 1982), interpersonal attributes (Phillips & Bedeian, 1994), and citizenship behavior, networks, and partnership (see Graen & Uhl-Bein, 1995). The social construction of followership emerges when a leader infers a group to be his or her followers or when in accord with other individuals view themselves as followers and as led by a leader (Shondrick & Lord, 2010). Within the social construct LMX, Phillips and Bedeian suggests leader relationships with followers are individualistic depending on the implicit and explicit ideas of the follower on the part of the leader concerning the follower, however, interest is emerging (Sherony & Green, 2002; Wikaningrum, 2007) regarding coworker exchange.

## Sample

The study focused on the interorganizational relationships of a healthcare delivery system, a mid-sized hospital involved with multiple acuity levels of inpatient and outpatient care. The participants volunteered to complete self-report surveys

administered through FluidSurveys version 4.0 with order of items maintained and developed as a single instrument to reduce likeliness of participant exiting between surveys. For organizational units, which did not provide access to email, the survey was replicated in paper format and handed out with a short instruction sheet.

For this study of four categorical variables a minimum of 80 participant responses (Pallant, 2010) were sought. The responding participant was asked to reply that they were over 18 and currently employed at the facility as a full-time (greater than 20 hours per week) associate, supervisor/manager, or director. Seven general demographic questions captured information for position, education, years of service with the organization, years in the profession, gender, age, and job licensure.

A total 194 surveys were returned from volunteer participants of patient care units including the emergency department, intensive care unit, general medical unit, and cardiac care unit. As well, volunteer participants of support ancillary departments including endoscopy, medical laboratory, radiology, and the catheterization lab. Of the 194 returned surveys, 127 were mostly complete with only a spotted occasional missing reply. Two completed surveys from support individuals not involved with patient care within the same structure as the other participants were removed from the sample. A total working sample of 125 was found an acceptable response with this 4-variable model (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatam, 2006) and sufficient to proceed with the study.

## Measures

The target version (see Seifert & Yukl, 2010) of the Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ) (Yukl & Fable, 1990) was used similar to the procedure used by Yukl, Siefert, and Chavez (2008) taking 16 items from the 4-core subscale (IBQ-Core), which Yukl et al. argued as mutually compatible subscales when used in same influence attempt. The four subscales make up rational (e.g. explains why a proposed project or change would be practical and cost effective); inspirational (e.g. talks about ideals and values when proposing a new activity or change); collaboration (e.g. offers to help with a task that he/she wants you to carry out); consultation (e.g. asks you to suggest things you could do to help him/her achieve a task objective or resolve a problem. Previous research (Cable & Judge, 2003; Chong, 2014; Yukl & Tracey, 1992) report consistent alpha coefficients ranging between .68 (Yukl & Tracey, 1992) and .91 (Chong, 2004). Correlation reliability of the whole scale as used through several tests showed high Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .85.

Correlation coefficients taken among the studies variables will be tested for inter-item reliability referred to by Girden (2001) as precision of measurement through analysis of consistency in yielding a true response. With negligible previous use of the IBQ-Core scale suitability of data was performed through factor analysis prior to proceeding with the principle component analysis (PCA). Evaluation of the correlation matrix revealed

the presence of many coefficients greater than .3 and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin of .827 exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Pallant 2010) and reached statistical significance thus supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. The PCA revealed the presence of three components exceeding an eigenvalue  $> 1$ , oblimin rotation (Kaiser 1960) explaining 62.5%, 10.47%, and 6.95% of the variance respectively. The scree plot revealed a clear break after the second component using the results of a Parallel Analysis, which confirmed only two components with eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion values for randomly generated data of the same.

The two-component oblimin rotation solution explained 72.4% of the variance with the component 1 contributing 57.8% and component 2 contributing 14.6%. To help with interpretation a oblimin rotation (see table 1 for complete pattern and structure coefficients) was performed to reveal both components with strong loadings and all variables loading between the two factors with a weak correlation ( $r = -.06$ ) these results support the use of the core Influence Behavior Questionnaire items as suggested by the scale authors (Yukl & Tracey, 1992).

Coworker exchange quality was measured with the LMX-7 developed similar to how others (e.g. Hays & Lau, 2012; Sherony & Green, 2002) have with rephrasing the 7-item scale to reflect the coworker relationship (CWX) with an additional question similar to Sherony and Green to provide a 1-item rating of the member's perceived relationship with their immediate supervisor. Use of the LMX-7 reworded for CWX has gained interest in use (e.g. Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Sherony & Green, 2002) and the alpha for the total LMX-7 has been reported at .91 with Sherony and Green recording a .92 with the reworded CWX instrument.

With insignificant previous use of the CWX version of the LMX-7 and only one instance (Seifert & Yukl) found supporting the use of the LMX with the IBQ a factor analysis was performed. Proceeding with the PCA with a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin of .803 exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Pallant 2010) and reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. The PCA revealed the presence of three components exceeding an eigenvalue  $> 1$ , oblimin rotation (Kaiser 1960) explaining 49.65%, 11.31%, and 9.29% of the variance respectively. The two-component Oblimin Rotation solution explained 68.58% of the variance with component 1 contributing 51.5% and component 2 contributing 17.08%. To help with interpretation an oblimin rotation (see table 2 for complete pattern and structure coefficients) was performed to reveal both components with strong loadings and all variables loading between the two factors with a weak correlation ( $r = .28$ ) the results support the use of the Coworker Exchange (CWX) items as suggested by the scale authors (Sherony and Green, 2002).

Recently Schrank, Woppmann, Sibitz, and Lauber (2011) worked toward combining the Miller Hope Scale, Herth Hope Index, and Snyder Hope Scale ultimately, achieving satisfactory results and terming the tool generic. Schrank et al. remains grounded,

however, in epidemiologic theory and perhaps better suited for the study of patterns and effects of health in defined populations and untested within the context of work organizations. The model developed here operationalizes hope through the Snyder et al. (1991) 12-item scale. This scale is well-tested and empirically shown with Cronbach's alphas ranging from .74 to .84 (whole scale), .71 to .76 (agency subscale), and .63 to .80 (pathways subscale), thus with no adjustments to the scale and as advanced by Snyder et al. (1991) scales with internal reliabilities of .70 to .80 are acceptable for research purposes. Previous research has shown team types with different performance types linking performance to permanent as well as temporary teams (Cohen and Bailey, 1997). Team empowerment was assessed using the Kirkman and Rosen (1999) shortened to 12 items similar to Kirkman, Rosen, Tesluk, and Gibson (2004). Kirkman et al. examined validity of the scale through principal component analysis using one-factor confirmatory factor analysis combining to a single factor scale. Additionally, Kirkman et al. through one-way analysis of variance ensured variance within teams were greater than between teams. With empirical support of across team inter-rater agreement ranging between .84 and .99 the scale was used without further factor analysis. Prior to data analysis, the measures of this study were tested for reliability within the population. Table 3 shows Pearson r correlation results with significant relationship between many of the variables with significant correlation between core leader influence and the co-worker exchange variables, as well as between empowerment and hope but negatively correlated with rational persuasion. Demographic variable education level is significantly negatively related to core leader influence and to the department variable.

Table 1:

Pattern and Structure Matrix for PCA with Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization Two Factor Solution of Core LIB Items

Item	Pattern Matrix		Structure Matrix		Communalities
	Component 1	Component 2	Component 1	Component 2	
2.1 Insp propose	0.139	<b>-0.667</b>	0.177	<b>-0.675</b>	0.475
3 Collab offer help	<b>0.829</b>	0.042	<b>0.826</b>	-0.006	0.684
3.3 Collab offer to show	<b>0.892</b>	0.041	<b>0.89</b>	-0.011	0.794
4.1 Conslt get ideas	<b>0.908</b>	-0.027	<b>0.909</b>	-0.079	0.828
4.2 Conslt encourage	<b>0.928</b>	-0.007	<b>0.928</b>	-0.06	0.861

4.3 Conslt encourage to express	<b>0.913</b>	-0.059	<b>0.916</b>	-0.111	0.843
4 Conslt suggest	0.138	<b>0.758</b>	0.095	<b>0.75</b>	0.581

Note. Major loadings for each item are bolded

Table 2:

Coworker Exchange Pattern and Structure Matrix for PCA with Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization Two Factor Solution of Core LIB Items

Item	Pattern Matrix		Structure Matrix		Communalities
	Component 1	Component 2	Component 1	Component 2	
CWX_2 stand with r	<b>0.895</b>	0.024	<b>0.901</b>	0.257	0.813
CWX_2.1 support coworker	<b>0.905</b>	-0.102	<b>0.879</b>	0.134	0.782
CWX_1 coworker potential	<b>0.856</b>	-0.002	<b>0.856</b>	0.221	0.732
CWX_3 job problems	<b>0.774</b>	0.107	<b>0.802</b>	0.308	0.654
CWX_4 coworker relationship	-0.102	<b>0.866</b>	0.124	<b>0.839</b>	0.714
CWX_7 confidence	0.117	<b>0.614</b>	0.277	<b>0.645</b>	0.428

Table 3

<i>Correlations between variables</i>											
Variable		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	CWX	-	.941**	.889**	.577**	0.141	.510**	.535**	0.06	-0.152	0.008
2	CWX MYUNIT		-	.743**	.516**	0.116	.456**	.489**	0.085	-0.144	0.037

3	CWX SUPPORT	-	.458**	0.153	.459**	.421**	0.041	-0.084	-0.107
4	Core leader influence	-	.297*	.598**	.679**	0.21	-0.097	-.248*	
5	Hope	-	.342**	.243**	-0.019	0.017	-0.097		
6	Empowerment	-	.447**	0.024	-0.026	-0.121			
7	Rational persuasion	-	-0.069	-0.144	0.019				
8	Age	-	0.103	-0.069					
9	Education	-	-.259**						
10	DEPT	-							

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

## Results

The analysis of this data is inference testing focused on the predictor variables: core leader influence behavior, coworker exchange, and organizational hope for influence on the workplace. Descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22. The associates and managers in this study are part of a well-established healthcare facility. The demographics of the sample while a small percentage of the organization's total workforce, do account for about 50 percent of the daily workforce providing direct patient care each day. It was necessary to first cross-tabulate gender and department (ancillary or registered nurse) demographics of participants to determine associates that work nursing within the hospital's patient care units and those that provide patient care as ancillary (i.e. radiology; clinical laboratory; respiratory), which influence response bias. Table 4 shows a good balance of 69 ancillary participants and 55 registered nurses response bias through work differences therefore was considered minimal. For the present study, with significant difference in male (16) and female (108) sample gender exists. An examination for goodness of fit through chi-square was accomplished to establish goodness of fit of department level participants, which indicates no significant difference in the proportion of survey variable for character of supervisor relationship,  $\chi^2 (1, n = 124) = 1.96, p = .16$ . Finding no significant difference in mean for responses it was decided to focus group response difference between registered nurse employees and ancillary support employees for all group level analyses. To examine the effect of response bias Table 5 shows the results of paired t-test with a relatively high level of agreement between peers and leaders. Similar to the technique used by Seifert and Yukl (2010) agreement of scores is justification for aggregating scores for group-level analysis.

Table 4  
Demographic Profile

		Gender	
		MALE	FEMALE
DEPT	Ancillary (Lab, Radiology, etc.)	12	57
		17%	83%
	Registered Nurse	4	51
		7%	93%
Total		16	108
		13%	87%

Hypothesis 1 states that when employees rate the core influence behavior of their supervisor higher CWX will be higher as well. Hypothesis 1 was tested through hierarchical regression, which Hill and Lewicki (2006) advance an appropriate test to examine the change predicted in the Y variable for changes in X when other independent variables are held constant. Specific regression analysis is determined for structure analysis according to Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatam (2006) and identifies how the latent variables within a model relate to each other. Azen and Budescu (2003) discuss that multiple regressions predict response values from selected predictors. To explore the relationship between the dependent variable coworker exchange and leader influence behavior hierarchical regression was accomplished. At step 1, controls for education, age, and department (Chong, 2014) were entered and assessed at 13.3% of the variance in core influence behavior. After entry of CWX in unit and support unit was added at step 2 and with the 3 controls accounted 37.6% of the whole model variance,  $F(5, 53) = 6.4, p < .0005$  in influence behavior explaining an additional 24% of model variance in leader core influence behavior. At step, 3 the total CWX was added accounting for a total model variance of 51%. The final model after controlling for age, education, and department  $F$  change  $(1, 52) = 14.24, p < .0005$ . Table 6 shows the final model beta contribution and significance supporting H1.

Table 5  
Influence tactic score  
and type target

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Peer		

Rational Persuasion	14.21	4.65
Inspirational Appeal	13.04	4.06
Consultation	13.54	5.13
Collaboration	13.66	4.24
Composite core tactics	50.92	15.79

#### Leader

Rational Persuasion	15	4.71
Inspirational Appeal	12.6	3.74
Consultation	13.13	4.64
Collaboration	14.13	2.92
Composite core tactics	51.8	13.29

Table 6

#### Predictors of Leader Core Influence Behavior

##### Model 3

Variable	$\beta$	Sig
CWX_TOT	1.994	0
CWX_RN	-0.805	0.029
CWX_SUPPORT	-0.764	0.001
Department	-0.324	0.003

Hypothesis 2 states education level of follower will have an inverse effect on the on reported leader influence behavior such that the inspiration rating decreases as rater education level increases. Recent work by Chong (2014) examined soft influence tactics on follower influence with beta significance with a slightly different influencer (inspirational, apprising, and exchange) tactics finding significance in the use of soft tactics when the phenomenon of coworker exchange is not considered. H2 only marginally supported with figure 2 showing the small mean decrease between participants with associate degrees and those with graduate degrees with the leader's use of inspirational tactic, which contrasts with mean increase as the respondent's education level advances from the undergraduate to graduate level of education when leader influence behavior includes relational, consulted, and collaboration. Conversely, to the decreasing effect of education on the inspirational appeal Figure 3 depicts the core

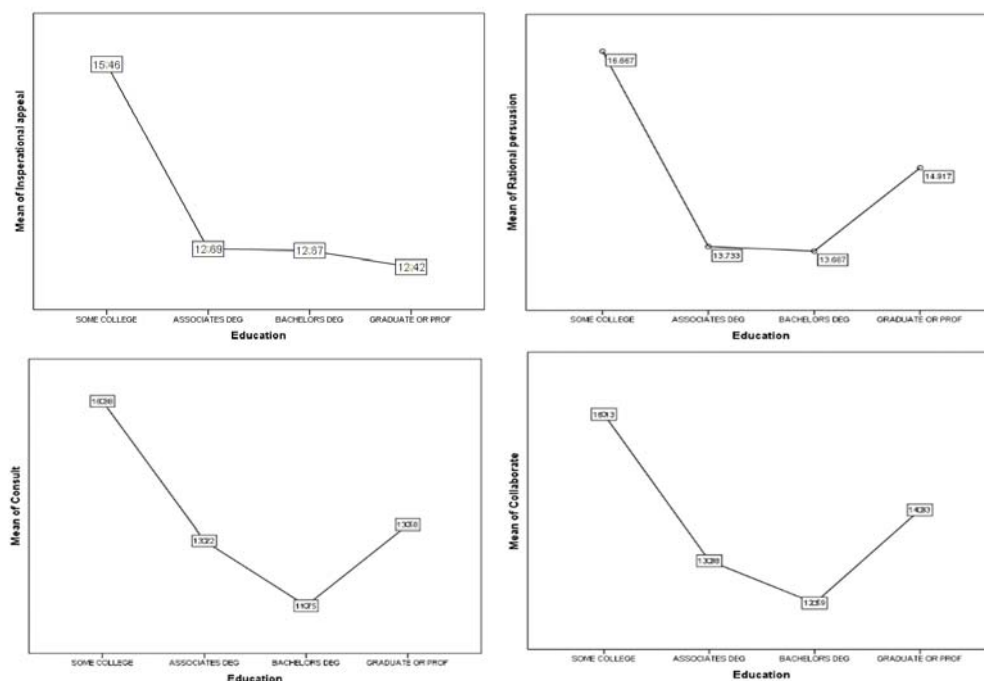


Figure 2 Participant responses mean comparison for level of education and leader inspirational response. As respondent education increases effect of the leader's use of inspirational behavior decreases.

leadership behavior mean with the results for relational, consulted, and collaborative influence tactics increase between the bachelors and graduate education levels following a slight decrease between associates and bachelors level education. Inspection of mean scores indicated that employees with graduate degrees reported slightly higher core leader behavior scores ( $M = 28.86$ ,  $SD = 3.18$ ) than bachelor degree employees ( $M = 22.5$ ,  $SD = 4.20$ ). Multivariate testing performed using Bonferroni adjusted alpha considered with a 3 dependent variable adjusted alpha of .017 with core influence behavior,  $F(1, 53) = 7.31$ ,  $p = .009$ , with partial eta squared = .12 did not reflect significant statistical support for Hypothesis 2. There is, however, importance in this finding in increased

understanding how the education level affects tests of relationship between leader influence tactics on the outcome. In other words, the participant's job context may act as a moderator to the relationship between participant education level and influence tactic, such that when congruency occurs between the level of education, job expectation, and intrinsic motivation then leader influence diminishes.

Hypothesis 3 states when coworker exchange quality across all groups of the organization is higher employee ratings of empowerment will be higher. Hypothesis 3 was tested through hierarchical regression. At step 1 controls for education, gender, and department were assessed and found to account for 13.6% of the variance in workplace empowerment. After entry of CWX unit and CWX support were added at step 2 and with the 3 controls accounted for 50.2% of the whole model variance,  $F(5, 104) = 6.99, p < .0005$  in influence behavior explained a quality of exchange with their coworker,  $R^2 = .25$   $F$  change (2, 104) = 16.2  $p < .0005$ . At step 3 the total CWX was added with  $R^2 = .28$   $F$  change (1, 103) = 4.65  $p < .05$ . The final model supports the hypothesis with only CWX total significant ( $\beta = .98, p < .05$ ). Consistent with Hays and Lau (2013) hypotheses of relationship between common jobs (e.g. healthcare) of coworkers when extending the operability to leader behavior tactic defined differently than the leader-member exchange. In other words, when coworkers perform similar tasks across functions members tend to not be influenced by leader tactics.

Hypothesis 4 states high level of organizational hope perceived by followers positively influence CWX coworker exchange. Hierarchical regression was developed and inspected at step 1 for controls for education, gender, and department were assessed at 10% of the variance in organizational hope. After entry of CWX unit and CWX support was added at step 2 and with the 3 controls accounted for 17.8% of the whole model variance,  $F(5, 104) = 6.68, p > .05$  and insignificant in influence.  $R^2 = .03$   $F$  change (1, 103) = .03  $p$  insignificant. At step 3 the total CWX was added with no increase in variance. Thus the final model does not support the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 5 states that when hope is rated high workplace empowerment will be perceived as higher by the organization's employees. Hierarchical regression was developed and inspected at step 1 for controls for education, gender, and department were assessed at 13.6% of the variance in workplace empowerment. The pathway hope variable was added at step 2 and with the 3 controls accounted for 31.7% of the whole model variance,  $F(5, 107) = 50.54, p < .05$ .  $R^2 = .08$   $F$  change (2, 107) = 4.87  $p < .0005$ . At step 3 total Hope was added with  $R^2 = .17$   $F$  change (1, 106) = 8.6  $p < .05$ . The final model accounts for 41% of total variance, thus supporting H5 with Hope Total recording the highest beta value ( $\beta = .57, p < .01$ ) and Hope Pathway the only other significant control measure ( $\beta = -.31, p < .05$ ), such that when hope increases employee feelings of workplace empowerment increases.

Hypothesis 6 states that the effect of hope is greater on empowerment when CWX is higher. To model the moderating effect of CWX a product variable with organizational hope was created. Investigating through hierarchical regression at step one CWX Total and Hope Total is entered accounting for 58% of total variance for workplace environment of empowerment. At step 2 product variable CWX\_HOPE was added to the model without any increase of model variance. Final model variance,  $F(3, 108) = 18.12, p < .0005$  thus supporting the hypothesis that coworker exchange moderates the relationship between organizational hope and empowerment with the

variable CWX Total variable recording a higher beta value ( $\beta = .53$ ) than Hope Total ( $\beta = .32$ ).

Next, H6a was tested through the bootstrap approach (Preacher & Hayes, 2003; Hayes, Preacher, & Meyers, 2011) to investigate the influence effect of coworker exchange between hope and empowerment. Hayes (2009) argues bootstrapping as a modern approach to testing the inference of an intervening variable's effects. Hayes suggests the resampling of  $n$  to construct path coefficients for both  $a$  and  $b$ , a process repeated at least 1000 times results in a bootstrap confidence interval. Figure 4 shows the direct effect of organizational hope on coworker exchange results through Hayes' Process model as positive ( $a_1 = .48$ ). Conversely, coworker exchange has a positive ( $b_1 = .29$ ) and significant effect on workplace empowerment.

H6a supposes that coworker exchange mediates the relationship between organizational hope and workplace empowerment such that organizational hope has a positive influence on CWX. Figure 4A shows the total effect indicating that the greater the organization hope, the greater the workplace empowerment ( $R^2 = .13$ ), with coworker exchange as mediator in Figure 4B shows the drop in the direct effect as organizational hope decreases.

Table 7 shows the lower and upper confidence interval for organizational hope via the mediation of coworker exchange. As the effect of organizational hope decreases via the coworker exchange it may result in partial mediation, however, the insignificant influence of organizational hope on coworker exchange as shown in Figure 4B does not support hypothesis H6a. Healthcare associates (i.e. nurses; cardiovascular technicians; respiratory technicians) often respond as a team during emergency events, however, these associates act independently through the processes of routine tasks. Thus, there is minimal daily activity, through which these employees have an opportunity to form deep meaningful coworker relationships.

Table 7

*Summary of mediating effect.*

Total effect of ORGHOPe on EMPOWER			Direct effect of ORGHOPe on EMPOWER	Indirect effect of ORGHOPe on EMPOWER	
Coefficient	t value (bootstrap)	Coefficient	t value (bootstrap)	95% confidence interval	
				Lower	Upper
0.76**	4.09	0.62**	3.81	-.052	.389
				Total $a_1b_1 + a_2b_2$	

H6a = a1b1  
(via CWX)

1000 bootstrap samples. \*\*  $p < .0005$

## Conclusion and Discussion

Recent popular press (e.g. Marquet, 2012) argues strongly that empowerment is an act of control when granted to followers as permission to proceed. Marquet provisions through the leader's release of control emancipation results and facilitates true follower empowerment and the ensuing extra effort. Similarly, Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, and Avolio (2010) suggest that leaders matter as they create the organizational culture and the practices that determine the level of involvement by followers in the decision making process.

As a psychological state, empowerment is seen by Spreitzer (1995) as the competence and individual belief in self-capabilities, which influence the degree to which an individual impacts operating outcomes and others (e.g. Kanungo, 1992) presuppose that followers who feel hope exists in their ability to cope with the outcomes feel more empowered. Kanungo goes on to argue that empowered followers (members) have a reciprocal property, which develops as workplace empowerment when the environment is developed. Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) acknowledged when empowered employees drew together extra effort ensued and overall unit synergy increased. Hartline and Ferrell (1996) advance research that the effort exuded by empowered employees promulgated a quality-laden vision. As has been shown through this important research, leader behavior influences follower hope and manifests as an empowered workplace.

Emerging interest in leader behavior concerns the effect of this behavior on the follower. Until recently, organizational goals focused on the process of leadership in pursuit of increased productivity, efficiency, or competitive strategy. Now we swing to narrow the interest and examine causal paths of coworker response to the leader's influence behavior pattern. Specifically, the interest is in the opening of paths of opportunity within the organization's environment.

Socio-cognitive approaches to leadership study remain the front-runner in current practical studies. The model's approach here concerned the character of the leader's behavior and the result of leadership's nature on coworker relations and the workplace environment. This is to assert that this study emerged from the information-processing perspective of the followers' feelings about the influence behavior of their leadership and their coworkers. The implicit phenomena of tendency and action maybe unknown to the individual—rather it is shown here that change occurs effortlessly through the Pygmalion effect of leader/coworker behavior when the organizational environment extends a standard of follower-focused leadership.

A desire to show the power of leader behavior, hope in the organization, and coworker exchange to influence workplace empowerment motivated this study. To extend the central work started here future studies working from a framework of positive organizational psychology is needed to develop theory of pathways of hope within organizations. While this study extends extant literature for implicit leadership, the reciprocal nature of leadership, and investigation of the emergence of the leadership process, future work should test hope in a variety of contexts. A scale for causal paths of hope and tests of agency is needed to conjoin behaviors of individuals of an organization such that true transcendence of culture might be evaluated. Previous study consists of high volumes of work analyzing traits, paths, situations, or motivation, or submerged within certain theory (e.g. authentic leadership), from which this analysis diverges and delves into an investigation of the environment. Organization change and follower expectations of leaders deserve a deeper look in highly innovative and knowledge organizations. The emergence of leaderless teams and the relationship between coworker exchange and differing contexts of leader influence behavior provide a framework for this important need in the study of the leadership process.

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### About the Author

Larry Phillips is a Ph.D. student at Regent University, where he is studying organizational leadership with interest in discovering how power structures influence knowledge development across organizational cultures. He also has more than 20 years of leadership experience in military, manufacturing, and healthcare operations.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Larry Phillips at [larrphi@mail.regent.edu](mailto:larrphi@mail.regent.edu)

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# Effects of Servant Leadership on Satisfaction with Leaders: Inclusion of Situational Variables

Duky Charles  
*Regent University*

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This paper presents a research study exploring whether the effects of servant leadership on follower satisfaction with the leader can be moderated by some situational variables. It builds a model constituting of five theories, namely servant leadership as the independent variable, satisfaction with the leader as the criterion variable, job demands, fairness in pay and perceived organizational support as situational variables. It employs a cross-sectional survey from a combination of five questionnaires pertaining respectively to each variable under investigation to collect data from 123 employees working in five small organizations in northern Haiti. Using regression analysis, the results indicate that only the first hypothesis is supported and that none of the situational variables yield significant moderating effects. The paper explains what may cause such results and suggests further investigators test the model with leader-member exchange relationship as a situational variable.

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Follower satisfaction with the leader is vital to organizational success (Scarpello & Vandenberg, 1987). Such satisfaction is contingent upon several factors among which figure the relationship between the leader and the follower (Graen & Cashman, 1970) and the assumptions the latter makes about the former (Eden & Leviatan, 1975). These assumptions are part of and explained by implicit leadership theories that are beliefs and suppositions followers hold about the characteristics of good and effective leaders (Eden & Leviatan, 1975). Followers logically and naturally show satisfaction with leaders who are perceived to be good and effective (Yukl, 2010). (It has been shown) they use performance, actions and intentions to judge leaders' goodness and effectiveness (Yukl, 2010). Leaders that make service their primary goal, who seem to show unconditional dedication, who appear to be highly concerned about followers and seek to empower subordinates are more likely to benefit from the latter's approval and appreciation (Yukl, 2010). Such leaders are called in leadership literature servant leaders (Greenleaf, 1977). The question is: will the effects of servant leadership on followers' satisfaction with the leader remain the same when the work is demanding? Additionally, will employees' satisfaction with leaders who appear to be servants be positive and higher when the former believe they are paid with fairness and perceive they work in an organization that supports them?

The starting point for the present research is the concept that when employees perceive that their leaders exhibit integrity and concern about them, they are more likely to trust such leaders, to like them, and consequently to show satisfaction with them (Yukl, 2010). However, some situational aspects of the job may have the potential to moderate followers' satisfaction in the sense that they can increase or decrease it (Ivancevich, Konopaske, & Matteson, 2008). Employee satisfaction with the leader can be decreased by the pressure of the work (Panatika, O'Driscollb, & Anderson, 2011) and increased with perceived fairness in pay (Wu & Wang, 2008) and organizational support (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). A pattern for explaining these phenomena is provided by the following five leadership theories: (a) Servant Leadership (Greenleaf, 1977), (b) Follower satisfaction with the leader (Scarpello & Vandenberg, 1987; Yukl, 2010), (c) Job Demands (Karasek, 1979), (d) Fairness in Pay (Heneman & Schwab, 1985), and (e) Perceived Organizational Support (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986). This model in figure 1 is new in that it explores the effects of servant leadership theory on follower satisfaction with the leader while moderating such effects by situational aspects of the work environment such as job demands, fairness in pay and the organization support to employees.

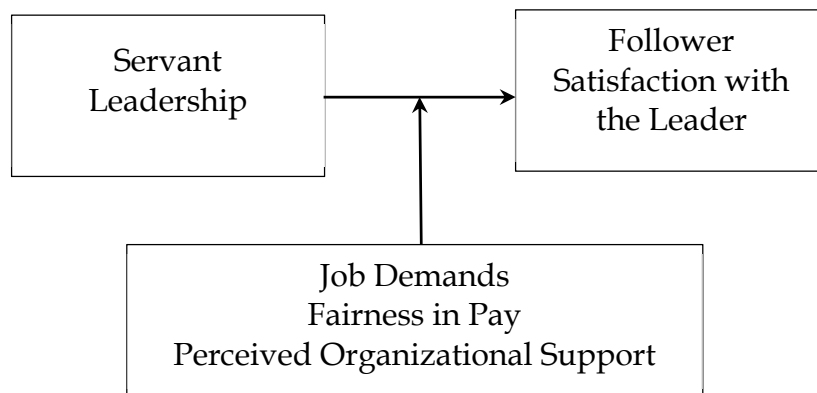


Figure 1. Model showing the relationships between the five variables.

## Literature Review

This section reviews the literature pertaining to the model. It provides the theoretical explanation for it, and additionally presents the logical establishment for the hypotheses. It explains not only the relationship between variables in the model, but also presents the rationale behind the inclusion of the control variables.

### Servant Leadership

The concept of servant leadership was proposed about four decades ago by Greenleaf (1977) who advanced that the primary responsibility of leaders is to serve their followers (Yukl, 2010). Servant leadership, as it was defined, is more than a mere management

technique. It is a lifestyle embedded in and led by the natural feeling that the leader not only wants to serve but to serve first (Parris & Peachey, 2013). As Parris and Peachey recall, many scholars consider Jesus Christ's life and teachings as constituting the ultimate example of servant leadership. On the opposite of some leadership theories that are defined and assessed only by what leaders do, servant leadership calls for consistency between leaders' character and acts, and their complete commitment to serve others (Parris & Peachey, 2013).

A servant leader's goal is to help followers become healthier, wiser and more willing to accept their responsibilities (Yukl, 2010) and to motivate such followers to perform to their fullest capacity (Bambale, 2014). Reaching such a goal will be contingent upon two equally important steps. First, servant leaders seek to develop a one-on-one relationship with followers through good and effective communication (Bambale, 2014). In this first step, leaders listen to followers in order to determine the latter's needs, aspirations, and potential (Bambale, 2014; Yukl, 2010). The second step consists of using the information amassed in the first step to better serve the followers (Bambale, 2014). Among the behaviors that servant leaders show in their relationship with their subordinates figure the following: (a) integrity, (b) altruism, (c) humility, (d) empathy and healing, (e) personal growth, (f) fairness and justice, and (g) empowerment (Yukl, 2010). Servant leadership has the potential to increase organizational commitment (Yukl, 2010). Research also indicates that servant leadership increases followers' trust, loyalty and satisfaction with the leader (Yukl, 2010). Among the factors followers utilize to gauge their leader's effectiveness lies in figuring the leader's intentions (Yukl, 2010). Consequently, followers are more likely to appreciate and be satisfied with leaders who are perceived to show concern about their needs and well-being, which are aspects of servant leadership (Yukl, 2010). The first hypothesis will then be:

H1: Servant leadership is predicted to yield positive effects on followers' satisfaction with their leaders.

## **Follower Satisfaction with the Leader**

Employees' satisfaction regarding their job and their leader is vital to organizational outcomes, notably performance (Scarpello & Vandenberg, 1987). Employee satisfaction is a feeling and an attitude that workers have about their job that results from their opinion of the job and their perception of their superior (Ivancevich, Konopaske, & Matteson, 2008). Notwithstanding an attitude is an intrinsic part of employees' personality, yet it determines their behavior at work (Ivancevich, Konopaske, & Matteson, 2008). Attitudes, which center satisfaction, are determined by three elements, namely cognition, affect, and behavior (Roe & Ester, 1999). Cognition refers to what employees know about themselves and the work environment. Affect is the emotional element of the attitude. Cognitive dissonance occurs when there are discrepancies between attitudes and behaviors (Ivancevich, Konopaske, & Matteson, 2008).

One of the determinants of employees' satisfaction with the leader is affect that refers to their feeling about such leader (Ivancevich, Konopaske, & Matteson, 2008). Employees' feeling has both antecedents and consequences (Roe & Ester, 1999; Scarpello & Vandenberg, 1987). Followers' feeling regarding effective leaders is contingent upon the latter's performance, but also their attitudes and behaviors (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Yukl, 2010). One of the theories that explain the positive outcome of follower satisfaction with the leader is that of referent power according to which employees pleasingly carry out responsibility leading to high performance simply because they admire the leader (Yukl, 2010).

### The Moderating Variables

Sharma, Durand and Gurarie (1981) inform that moderators usually belong to two categories. The first category of moderating variables is called homologizer. They influence the strength of the relationship between the predictor and the criterion, but do not interact with the dependent variable. The second category includes pure and quasi moderator variables. They interact with the dependent variable and also influence the strength of the relationship in that they basically modify the forms of such relationship. The three moderating variables employed in this study, namely job demands, fairness in pay and perceived organizational support belong to the second category in that they all interact with the dependent variable and their presence is expected to modify the effects of servant leadership on follower satisfaction with the leader.

**Job demands.** According to Panatika, O'Driscollb, and Anderson (2011), job demands designate the physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require constant physical and/or psychological effort or skills from employees to complete the task. Notwithstanding job demands are not necessarily negative, however to meet these demands or expectancies, employees may need to make tremendous efforts that can turn to be hectic and stressful (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). Job demands have the potential to affect employee's well-being (Panatika, O'Driscollb, & Anderson, 2011). Researchers have utilized the stressor-strain perspective as the theoretical basis to explain the negative effects of job demands on both employees' well-being and attitudes (Panatika, O'Driscollb, & Anderson, 2011).

Although employees evaluate stressful situations as either potentially threatening or potentially stimulating efforts that will lead to growth, mastery, or even to future benefits and consequently show different types of attitudes and behaviors to different types of stressor (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Panatika, O'Driscollb, & Anderson, 2011), yet all stressors have, in a sense, the potential to generate pressure and strain (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). That is, in general job demands affect employees' emotions not only toward the organization, but also toward the leader whose responsibility is to insure that those demands are effectively met (Podsakoff et al., 2007). Leadership literature shows that job demands are associated with several psychological outcomes including

strain, turnover intentions and job satisfaction that are related to employees' mood (Panatika, O'Driscollb, & Anderson, 2011). Yukl (2010) purports that the follower's mood has the potential to affect their perceptions of a leader to the point that these perceptions may be positive when they are satisfied with the work and the leader, and negative when they are under stress and unsatisfied. Consequently, the following hypothesis will be:

H2: Job demands are predicted to moderate the effects of servant leadership on employees' satisfaction with a servant leader to the point that (such effects will be negative with job demands.

**Fairness in pay.** It has been demonstrated that when rewards distribution is connected with pay, it yields remarkable impacts on employees' attitudes and behaviors (Porter, Bigley, & Steers, 2003). Consequently, the way pay is administrated within organizations has been highly discussed and explored in organizational leadership literature and studies (Diekmann, Samuels, Ross, & Bazerman, 1997; Lawler, 1987). Pay unquestionably remains one of the most vital outcomes for employees in an organization (Gupta & Shaw, 1998; Shaw & Gupta, 2001). Since pay is central in the work lives of so many employees (Shaw & Gupta, 2001), much research has been conducted in order to examine employees' attitudes about it (Lawler & Jenkins, 1992; Miceli & Lane, 1991). Most of this research investigates the consequences of pay on employees' attitudes, and that is related to these employees' mood (Miceli & Mulvey, 1998). Undeniably, it is humanly natural and demonstrated in research that most, if not all, employees would prefer to receive more pay than less (Shaw & Gupta, 2001). Leadership literature has revealed evidence of existing relationship between pay fairness and some job attitudes including satisfaction leading to citizenship behaviors (Lee, 1995) and commitment (Cohen & Gattiker, 1994). Pay fairness is related to pay satisfaction in leadership literature (Wu & Wang, 2008) and is considered as the overall positive or negative feelings or perception employees hold concerning their pay. Research has indicated that employees' perception of justice is highly contingent upon their satisfaction with pay (Wu & Wang, 2008). Research efforts and results on perceived justice and pay satisfaction have led to combined results. That is, it yields evidence relating to both the role of pay fairness dimensions and their impacts on pay satisfaction that naturally lead to organizational outcomes (Wu & Wang, 2008).

When employees see themselves in conditions of social exchange, such as receiving fair pay, they become more involved in the organization and are willing to exhibit affective commitment which includes greater loyalty to this organization, consequently to the leader as well (Blau, 1964; Wu & Wang, 2008). Additionally, Robbins, Summers, and Miller (2000) explain how perceived justice effects performance and the related exchange relationship. It can be concluded that fairness in pay plays a key role in enhancing employees' loyalty and performance in an organization that are, according to Yukl (2010), antecedents of these employees' satisfaction with the leader. Consequently, the third hypothesis will be:

Hypothesis 3: Fairness in pay is predicted to moderate the effects of servant leadership on employee satisfaction with the leader to the point that the effects will be positive with perceived fairness in pay.

**Perceived organizational support.** This is the organizational leadership theory that refers to the perception of employees apropos the commitment of the organization to them (Noruzy, Shatery, Rezazadeh, & Hatami-Shirkouhi, 2011). It relates to employees' general feelings and beliefs regarding how the organization acknowledges, appreciates and values their work, and consequently shows concerns about them (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhodes, 2002). As Noruzy et al. suggest, the existing definitions of perceived organizational support in leadership literature insinuates that it creates among employees the implicit feeling that they owe their support to the organization in return.

Perceived organizational support produces positive results in both employees' attitudes (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhodes, 2002), and behaviors (Noruzy, Shatery, Rezazadeh, & Hatami-Shirkouhi, 2011). It increases employees' commitment to the organization to the point that they feel obligated to care about the organization's well-being (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). It also increases employees' loyalty to the organization and consequently to the leader who is perceived to be instrumental in creating and maintaining such support (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997).

Literature has shown that employees' opinion of organizational support is highly shaped by their perceptions of their leaders' intentions and actions. In this regard, Conklin, Lambert, Brenner, and Cranage (2009) have remarked that employees often view the actions taken by leaders as indications of the organization's intention and not simply as these leaders' personal motives. Consequently, employees with perceived organizational support will more likely hold good images and make positive attributions about not only the organization, but also their leaders to such a point that they will show high satisfaction with both the organization and the leader (Conklin, Lambert, Brenner, & Cranage, 2009). The fourth hypothesis will then be:

Hypothesis 4: Perceived organizational support is predicted to moderate the effects of servant leadership on follower satisfaction with a servant leader to the extent that the effects will be positive when employees perceive organizational support.

## Control Variables

The present research includes two control variables. The first one is the time the follower has spent working with the leader. A follower satisfaction with a leader is highly contingent upon the exchange relationship between the two (Graen, Novak, & Sommerkamp, 1982). The exchange relationship leading to follower satisfaction is developed through three stages (Graen & Scandura, 1987): (a) the initial stage in which

followers evaluate leaders' attitudes and motives, (b) the second stage in which followers show loyalty, respect and admiration based on the evaluation made in the first stage, and (c) the third stage in which followers show commitment to both the organization and the leader (Yukl, 2010). Satisfaction with leaders is progressive and can be affected by the time followers have been working with such leaders (Graen & Scandura, 1987); Yukl, 2010). The second control variable that can also affect follower satisfaction with the leader is gender differences between the former and the latter (Malangwasira, 2013). Consequently, gender differences were controlled for in the analysis as well.

## Method

This study employed the quantitative research method of survey questionnaire with the purpose of generalizing from the sample to a population (Creswell, 2009). The research was cross-sectional in that data were collected at one point in time (Creswell, 2009). Since the participants do not speak English, the questionnaires were translated into Creole and French, the two official languages of Haiti where the research was conducted. The questionnaires were self-administered. This was more convenient for the respondents and kept their time commitment low for this research since they work on a daily basis and did not have much extra time.

## Population, Sample and Participants

This study employed a random sample in order to provide each individual in the targeted population an equal chance to be selected or to fill out the questionnaire (Creswell, 2009). Participants were recruited from five small organizations in the north area of Haiti: a) three high schools, b) a radio station, and c) a small hospital. Based on Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham (2006) suggesting 20 respondents for each independent variable to effectively conduct hierarchical regression analysis, the study planned for 180 participants to fill out the questionnaire, yet only 132 questionnaires were filled out and returned, among which 123 were found to be suitable for analysis.

## Instrumentation

The research survey is a combination of five questionnaires: a) Servant Leadership, which is a single scale with ten items developed by Winston and Field (2015), with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .96 (b) Satisfaction with my Supervisor, a single eighteen-item scale with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .96 developed by Scarpello and Vandenberg (1987), (c) the seven-item subscale of job demands with  $\alpha = .88$  of Job Demands and Decision Latitude questionnaire, created by Karasek (1979), (d) Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire, developed by Heneman and Schwab (1985) with  $\alpha = .88$ , constituting of 18 items measuring a single dimension and (e) Perceived Organizational Support designed by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, and Sowa (1986), with  $\alpha = .95$ , including 17 items measuring a single construct. Notwithstanding the validity and reliability of these scales

were already established in the literature, a factor analysis test was conducted with the sample to reassess their evidence for the present study. For this particular study, Servant Leadership shows a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .85, Satisfaction with Supervisor, .96, Job demands, .82, Pays Satisfaction, .96, and Perceived Organizational Support, .86. Demographic questions pertaining to gender differences between leaders and followers as well as the time since followers have been working with the leader were also added to the survey questionnaire.

## Results

This section presents the research findings from the analyses performed to test the four hypotheses. The study proposed to examine how servant leadership would predict follower satisfaction with the leader and whether such prediction would be moderated by three situational variables, namely job demands, fairness in pay, and perceived organizational justice. The purpose was articulated with more details through the hypotheses.

### Assessing the Effects of Servant Leadership on Satisfaction with the Leader

To test whether servant leadership would yield positive effects on followers' satisfaction with their leaders as anticipated in hypothesis 1, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted while controlling for gender and the number of years working with the leader. Gender and the number of years working with the leader were entered at Step 1, and they explained 1 % of the variance in satisfaction with the leader with  $F(2, 100) = .62, p = .54 > .05$ . After entering servant leadership, which is the independent variable at Step 2, the total variance explained by the model became 42%,  $F(3, 99) = 23.65, p = .00 < .05$ . Servant leadership explains an additional 41% of the variance in satisfaction with the leader, after gender and tenure with the leader have been controlled. This is indicated by the  $R^2$  change which is .41,  $F$  change  $(1, 99) = 68.88, p = .00 < .05$ . The coefficients table for model 2 shows that servant leadership ( $\beta = .64, p = .00 < .05$ ) yields some significant effects on satisfaction with the leader. These results support hypothesis 1, which predicted significant effects of servant leadership on satisfaction with the leader.

Table 1  
Effects of servant leadership on satisfaction with the leader when controlling for gender and tenure

Variables	$\beta$	$p$
Gender	.09	.25
Year with the Leader	-.12	.12
Servant Leadership	.64	.00

### Assessing the Moderating Effects of Job Demands

In order to explore whether job demands would moderate the effects of servant leadership on follower satisfaction with the leader, another hierarchical regression analysis was conducted, but this time with three steps. Gender and the number of years with the leader were entered at Step 1, and they explained 1 % of the variance in satisfaction with the leader with  $F(2, 93) = .57, p = .57 > .05$ . The independent variable, namely servant leadership, and the moderating variable, job demands, were entered at Step 2, and the total variance explained by the model became 43 %,  $F(4, 91) = 16.94, p = .00 < .05$ . The independent variable and the moderator put together explain an additional 42% of the variance in follower satisfaction with the leader, after gender and tenure have been controlled. This is indicated by the  $R^2$  change = .42,  $F$  change  $(2, 91) = 32.91, p = .00 < .05$ . The interaction product of the independent variable and the moderating variable was entered in Step 3. The total variance explained by the whole model remains 43 %,  $F(5, 90) = 13.82, p = .00 < .05$ . The coefficients table for model 3 shows that servant leadership remains significant ( $\beta = .93, p = .00 < .05$ ) and job demands are not ( $\beta = .74, p = .22 > .05$ ). It additionally indicates that the moderating effects of job demands are not present, with  $\beta = -.70, p = .28 > p = .10$ , as recommended by McClelland and Judd (1993). Therefore, hypothesis 2 is not supported.

Table 2  
Moderating Effects of Job Demands on the Effects of Servant Leadership on Employee Satisfaction with the Leader

Variables	$\beta$	$p$
Servant Leadership	.93	.00
Job Demands	.74	.22
Servant Leadership*Job Demands	-.70	.28

### Assessing the Moderating Effects of Pay Satisfaction

A hierarchical regression analysis similar to the one conducted to assess the moderating effects of job demands on the effects of servant leadership on employee satisfaction with the leader was performed, but this time with pay satisfaction as the moderating variable. The two control variables were entered at Step 1, and they explained, as in the previous test, 1 % of the variance in satisfaction with the leader with  $F(2, 87) = .54, p = .60 > .05$ . Servant leadership and pay satisfaction, the moderating variable, were entered at Step 2,

and the total variance explained by the model became 56 %,  $F(4, 85) = 52.54, p = .00 < .05$ . These two variables together explained an additional 55% of the variance in follower satisfaction with the leader. This is indicated by the  $R^2$  change = .55,  $F$  change (2, 85) = 52.54,  $p = .00 < .05$ . The interaction product of servant leadership and pay satisfaction was entered in Step 3. The total variance explained by the entire model remains 56%,  $F(5, 84) = 21.23, p = .00 < .05$ . The coefficients table for model 3 shows that servant leadership remains significant ( $\beta = .50, p = .03 < .05$ ) and pay satisfaction is not ( $\beta = .46, p = .40 > .05$ ). The coefficients table also indicates that the moderating effects of pay satisfaction are insignificant, with  $\beta = -.05, p = .94 > p = .10$ . Hypothesis 3 is then not supported.

Table

3

Moderating Effects of Pay Satisfaction on the Effects of Servant Leadership on Employee Satisfaction with the Leader

Variables		$\beta$	$p$
Servant Leadership		.50	.03
Pay Satisfaction		.46	.40
Servant Leadership*Pay Satisfaction		-.05	.94

### Assessing the Moderating Effects of Perceived Organizational Support

A fourth hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to test the moderating effects of perceived organizational support as articulated in hypothesis 4. As for the aforementioned hierarchical regression tests, the two control variables were entered at Step 1, and they explained 1 % of the variance in satisfaction with the leader with  $F(2, 95) = .58, p = .56 > .05$ . Servant leadership and perceived organizational support, which is the moderating variable for this time, were entered at Step 2, and the total variance explained by the model became 53%,  $F(4, 93) = 26.10, p = .00 < .05$ . These two variables explain an additional 52% of the variance in follower satisfaction with the leader. This can be seen in the  $R^2$  change = .55,  $F$  change (2, 92) = 51.10,  $p = .00 < .05$ . The interaction product of servant leadership and perceived organizational support was entered at Step 3. The total variance explained by the entire model remains 53%,  $F(5, 92) = 20.7, p = .00 < .05$ . The coefficients table for model 3 does not reveal servant leadership as significant ( $\beta = .37, p = .22 > .05$ ), and a similar result was found for perceived organizational support ( $\beta = .32, p = .47 > .05$ ). The same table also shows that perceived organizational support does not moderate the effects of servant leadership on employee satisfaction with the leader, with  $\beta = .12, p = .85 > p = .10$ . Consequently, hypothesis 4 is not supported either.

Table

4

*Assessing the Moderating Effects of Perceived Organizational Support*

Variables	$\beta$	$p$
Servant Leadership	.37	.22
Perceived Organizational Support	.32	.47
Servant Leadership*Perceived Organizational Support	.12	.85

## Discussion

The results of the first regression analysis show that servant leadership yields positive effects on employee satisfaction with the leader ( $\beta = .64$ ,  $p = .00 < .05$ ). This theoretically indicates that employees are more likely to experience satisfaction with a leader who shows servant leadership behavior. This supports the first hypothesis and is consistent with the literature that indicates that servant leadership increases followers' trust, loyalty and satisfaction with the leader (Yukl, 2010). Servant leaders' main focus is not the organization, but the follower whose needs the former strive to attend (Greenleaf, 1977). It then becomes natural for followers to develop and show their appreciation for such leaders.

The first regression analysis run to test whether job demands would moderate the effects of servant leadership on employee satisfaction with the leader records no effects. Moderating effects occur in regression analysis when the variable called the moderator has the ability to change the form of the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable (Hair et al., 2006). Since no effects are registered, this theoretically indicates that even with the presence of job demands as a moderator, the effects of servant leadership on employee satisfaction with the leader are not altered at all. Job demands usually yield negative effects on employees' attitudes (Panatika, O'Driscollb, & Anderson, 2011). However, it seems that employees feel so comfortable with servant leaders that the stress produced by job demands does not alter their appreciation for such leaders.

The second hierarchical regression analysis that was performed to test whether fairness in pay would moderate the effects of servant leadership on employee satisfaction with the leader does not show any such effects either. This theoretically signifies that the fact that employees believe they receive fair pay or not, such perception does not affect their appreciation for a servant leader. Satisfaction and fairness, when it comes to pay, are highly related (Wu & Wang, 2008). Servant leaders are perceived to want the best for their employees including providing them with the pay they deserve (Yukl, 2010). Consequently, the satisfaction employees would experience from their pay may have already been immersed in their satisfaction with the leader who is highly instrumental in distributing pay.

The third hierarchical regression test conducted to examine the moderating effects of perceived organizational support on the effects of servant leadership on employee

satisfaction with the leader indicates no effects. Theoretically, this means that employees' perception of an organization that is supportive to them does not significantly modify their satisfaction with their leader who appears to show servant behaviors. The theory of perceived organizational support explains the general feelings and beliefs employees hold regarding an organization that shows concerns about them (Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, & Rhodes, 2002). In a sense, perceived organizational support is similar to servant leadership except for the fact that for servant leadership it is the individual leader that shows such concern while for perceived organizational support it is the organization as a whole that exhibits the concern. Additionally, and as Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997) explain it, leaders are the ones that are perceived to create and maintain such support. Consequently, employees' appreciation or satisfaction with the leader may be almost the same as their appreciation with the organization.

However, the study presents some limitations. First, it should be noted that the sample size and the number of questionnaires returned were not sufficient to adequately test the model with all its variables. So, a greater number of completed and returned questionnaires would allow to test the hypotheses with greater confidence. Second, because of the relatively high level of analphabetism coupled with the fact that research is at its early stage in Haiti, the respondents are not really comfortable with participating in research, even less with the method of survey questionnaire. Third, most participants are high school teachers and the concept of organization is limited to their experience within the classroom and their relationship with the principal. A more diverse population would enhance the research.

The study can be replicated in other countries where perhaps people are more accustomed to research and with larger and more diverse samples. Additionally, the theory of leader-member exchange relationship may be included as a situational variable in the model. On the opposite of job demands, fairness in pay and perceived organizational support whose measures are unidirectional, leader-member exchange relationship can be low or high. Its inclusion in the model may offer a good opportunity to test whether it would moderate the effects of servant leadership on employee satisfaction with the leader.

## Conclusion

The research proposed to explore the effects of servant leadership on employee satisfaction with the leader and the influence of some situational variables, namely job demands, fairness in pay and perceived organizational support, on these effects. The results of the first regression test support the first hypothesis, which expected servant leadership to yield positive effects on employee satisfaction with the leader. Interestingly, none of the proposed moderators was found to yield significant effects on the predicted relationship between servant leadership and employee satisfaction with the leader.

Nevertheless, notwithstanding its limitations, the study confirms that servant leadership is of a high level of importance for organizations. Servant leadership puts the emphasis on the welfare of the subordinate rather than the glorification of the leader (Hale & Fields, 2007). Servant leaders' concern for employees is likely to augment their trust, loyalty and satisfaction with such leaders (Yukl, 2010). Notwithstanding servant leadership focus is the employee, it indirectly yet highly benefits the organization as a whole, particularly in that it contributes to the employee-oriented culture that has the potential to attract and retain talented and committed employees (Yukl, 2010). However, the absence of the moderating effects in the study may also be explained by the fact that some of the behaviors of servant leadership are also included in other leadership theories. Consequently, and as Yukl suggests, still more research is needed to assess the uniqueness of scales of this construct.

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### About the Author

Duky Charles is now in the dissertation process for his Ph.D as an Organizational Leadership student at Regent University. He is currently the vice-president of academic affairs at North Haiti Christian University.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Duky Charles at [dukycha@mail.regent.edu](mailto:dukycha@mail.regent.edu).

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## Group Formation in a Cross-Cultural Environment

C. Victor Herbin III  
*Regent University*

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Globalization presents organizational leaders with a series of challenges towards developing, building, and creating effective groups/teams within the modern work environment. While a culturally diverse work environment poses unique challenges to group formation within the 21st century, a review of Romans Chapter 1-3 suggests evidence of this organizational phenomenon existed millennia ago. This paper provides an exegetical analysis of Romans 1-3 that examines the question of how organizational leaders build group formation within a cross-cultural environment. Paul's experiences in the selected scriptures reveals three applicable themes: (a) The elimination of racial and ethnic barriers to develop universal acceptance; (b) Foster an environment of unconditional love despite social identity; and (c) creating faith will neutralize real or perceived differences. Although workplace demographics changed over the years, organizational objectives to develop and maintain strong relationships, improve employee morale, and maximize production remains unchanged. Ultimately, the modern day work environment requires bold, adaptable, and flexible organizational members with a high level of cross-cultural competence to lead in this effort.

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This study examines group formation within a cross-cultural work environment. How do organizational leaders develop groups in a cross cultural environment? In particular this study employed an inner texture analysis of Romans Chapter 1-3 to explore how Paul overcame the cultural differences found within a multicultural work environment. Reviewing components of social identity theory and group identity theory to this research question explores how organizational leaders form groups within a multicultural work environment. Social identity theory is a theoretical concept that examines how people view themselves, their social environment, and relate to one another (King, Stewart, & McKay, 2010).

A cross-cultural work environment presents a rich environment that benefits from innovative ideas, creative insight, varying perspectives, and unique work ethics. While many organizations reap these benefits, building an effective team within this environment requires talented leaders with vision, insight, strong interpersonal skills, and a high level of cultural competence. Moodian (2009) declares that in order to avoid overcompensating, undercompensating, offense, or demonstrating cultural arrogance, organizational leaders must identify the proper balance between cultures and recognize the five global strategic options for employment that include "cultural dominance, cultural accommodation, cultural compromise, cultural avoidance, and cultural synergy"

(p. 87). Organizational leaders must not only recognize and accept the cultural differences, but simultaneously develop an organizational culture that creates a shared identity between all employees resulting in a group identity that transcends individual cultural norms or ideas.

This study consists of five sections. The first section includes the introduction that presents the research question and purpose statement. The second section represents the literature review, which includes an extensive amount of literature on the theoretical framework linked with the study. The third section serves as the research methodology and preliminary analysis of the collective sample. The fourth section consists of the data collection and analysis. While the fifth section includes the discussion, findings, and limitations and area of further research.

## **Literature Review**

Social Identity Theory (SIT) serves as a relevant theory for understanding the relationship between group members. This literature review will present studies applicable to the question and how they relate with the SIT. This section is divided into three significant categories. The first category defines SIT as the theoretical framework. In particular, this section examines how this theory influences group identity for members within a multicultural work environment. The second category investigates how social identity applies within a group setting and relevant studies used to explain collaborative efforts within the organizational environment. In particular, how groups interact in terms of conflict, what contributes to conflict, and how conflict impacts an organization. The third category explores the benefits and contributions groups provide in a multicultural environment.

## **Theoretical Framework**

Ashforth and Mael (1989) examined the role SIT plays in organizational socialization, role conflict, and intergroup relations. The researchers described SIT as the manner in which people classify themselves and others into distinct social categories (socio-economic status, group membership, racial or ethnic make-up, gender and religion) and behave in ways that reinforce the categorized group's identity.

Recognizing how SIT contributes to group formation provides the foundation for its role in a multicultural organizational environment. Incorporating an organizational environment that promotes cultural diversity presents a myriad of challenges. Because SIT embodies the total person, employees who depend upon their self-identity create organizational conflicts because of their ethnocentrism and lack of tolerance towards the "out-group" (King, Stewart, & McKay, 2010). Understanding Paul's experiences as an organizational leader and how he implemented strategies to neutralize the impact of SIT and developed an inclusive organizational work environment remains relevant to study.

While Paul encountered Jews, Gentiles, Romans, and Samaritans, it remains important to understand the obstacles encountered and applicable leadership theories that relate to the phenomenon. Hogg, Knippperberg, and Rast (2012) applied intergroup leadership theory to examine the various leadership challenges experienced in fostering a collaborative work environment with different organizational groups. The researchers relied upon social identity and intergroup relations to examine how a leader's effectiveness directly relates to his ability to create an intergroup relational identity. Based upon their research, Hogg et al. presented a variety of leadership steps to build intergroup relational identity that includes, "leader rhetoric championing the intergroup collaboration as a valued aspect of group identity, boundary spanning to exemplify the intergroup relationship, formation of a boundary-spanning leadership coalition, and leader rhetoric to simulate transference of well-established intergroup relational identity to new collaboration partners" (p. 249). Ultimately, the researchers demonstrate that engaged leaders possess influential power in developing a common identity and group formation.

Similarly, Veelen, Otten, and Hansen (2012) investigated the intricacies of group identity through exploring how individual's self-identity directly relates to their perspective and understanding the content of a group's identity. The researchers examine how the self-categorization, self-stereotyping, and self-anchoring theory applies for clearly defined groups in their social identification. According to the researchers, "people identify with groups, irrespective of the clarity of their identity content. Yet, how people identify with both groups in terms of cognitive process is still unknown" (p. 547). To test the hypothesis of "how" people identified with their group, the researchers incorporated two studies, one minimal and one with real groups, to explore how self-anchoring explains the concept of social identification. Ultimately, the researchers found that self-perception impacts one's sense of belonging in a group. As it relates to Paul's relations with "in-group" and "out-group" members, self-perception presented significant societal entitlements or restrictions. How he galvanized these varying groups remains worthwhile to examine.

## Group Conflict

While studies illustrate how self-identity influences group membership, studies also illustrate the potentiality of intergroup conflict due to social identity. As expected the audience within Romans provided Paul with historical, cultural, and social experiences that contributed to an environment that fostered conflict. Chrobot-Mason, Ruderman, Weber, Ohlott, and Dalton (2007) investigated intergroup conflict, workplace diversity, and social identity theory to determine the role social identity groups play in societal conflicts. Conducting a cross-cultural analysis between individualistic and collectivist cultures, the researchers introduced decategorization, recategorization, subcategorization, and cross-cutting as four potential leadership strategies to handle

identity-based conflicts. Chrobot-Mason et al. declared, “Organizations cannot underestimate the conflicts that may occur when people from different religious, national, political, ethnic and gender groups who previously have not had to work together come into contact in the workplace. These conflicts can generate serious threats to organizational effectiveness” (p. 2030). Ultimately, this study highlights how developing, building, and creating a group in a cross-cultural environment requires actively engaged leaders to recognize potential avenues for conflict.

Halevy, Weisel, and Bornstein (2012) investigated the phenomenon of intergroup conflict through examining the relationship between “in-group love,” described as a collaborative efforts aimed to help the in-group, and “out-group hate,” described as an intensely motivated desire to hurt the out-group, or both. This laboratory study involved 144 undergraduate students participating in a game designed to identify the particular motive. The researchers discovered a significant decrease of intergroup conflict when in-group members demonstrated in-group love independent of out-group hate. The experimental study further illustrated that in-group members valued their association and collaborative efforts with their group member more than competing or engaging in conflict with the out-group. The Halevy et al. study provides the reader with context to understand factors that may impact Paul’s ability to build an effective team or group in a cross-cultural environment that exploits in-group commonalities to establish a cooperative environment of love that will eradicate out-group hate.

Because of cultural, racial, ethnic, or gender differences, heterogeneous work environments present significant leadership challenges in pursuit of building cohesive team. Chua (2013) proposed two hypotheses with the goal to determine the relationship between ambient cultural disharmony, which describes the lack of exposure or interaction with intercultural conflicts in one’s own social environment, and creative thinking in tasks that draw on knowledge from multiple cultures. The researchers conducted three studies to examine the phenomenon. The first study incorporated a network survey of 163 participants; the second involved an experimental study consisting of 183 participants; and the third study incorporated another experimental design consisting of 264 students. The research found that ambient cultural disharmony decreased individuals’ effectiveness at connecting ideas from disparate cultures, but no impact on creativity. Ultimately, Chua’s study illustrates the polarizing effect cultural differences present an organizational work environment. This study presents methods how organizational leaders must develop effective tools to not only recognize these differences, but embrace differences in order to foster cohesion.

Additionally, Benard (2012), proposed five hypotheses to explore how group conflict impacts group member’s actions as it relates to a member’s ability to sacrifice for their groups, use peer relationships to enforce norms, and relinquish decisions-making autonomy to a leader. The researchers tested the hypotheses with two small group experiments. The first study involved 120 undergraduate volunteers, while the second

study consisted of 144 undergraduate volunteers. The experiment revealed that a high level of out-group participation increases a group's enforcement of norms; and that regardless of out-group participation in conflict, group member's conflict will increase group member contribution. This particular study demonstrates how intergroup conflict in the workplace serves as a catalyst for building a cohesive team.

### **Group Formation Benefit and Contribution**

Using a conversation analysis, Haughton (2009) investigated three dissimilar small groups to identify the relationships between diversity and cohesion and how group members communicate their thoughts. Ultimately, the researcher sought to determine how diversity and cohesion influence group process through the employment of three different data sets or task groups. The first task group included eight undergraduate students role playing a negotiation, second task included six medical students and a faculty tutor diagnosing a case, and the third task involved a budget subcommittee of an Orlando City Council Budget subcommittee. The researcher analyzed the observed group's behavior, actions, attitudes, and communication clues to determine the how, what, and presence of diversity and cohesion in a group setting. Haughton's study found that strengthening diversity and cohesion rests at the group and individual level, in particular identifying what needs to occur at the "individual and group levels to integrate diversity and cohesion and improve effective group functioning" (p. 62). Ultimately, this study reveals that diversity serves as an attractor as opposed to a detractor towards group cohesion and formation.

Because heterogeneous work environments present unique leadership challenges to group formation, Sanchez and Yurrebaso (2009) also investigated the concept of group cohesion as it relates to team work cultures. The researchers presented two hypotheses: (a) that an increased level of shared norms or ideal behaviors increases group cohesion; (b) an increased culture gap will decrease group cohesion. The researchers conducted two separate one year studies consisting of 50 work teams and 75 work teams, respectively. Within this quantitative study, the researchers identified the independent variable as culture and the dependent variable as cohesion and found a significant correlation between culture and cohesion supporting the two hypotheses. Sanchez, contends, "People from different cultures experience group dynamics in quite different ways. If we wish such teams to be successful, it is necessary to examine the group experience from the perspective of other and then to explore what these meanings have in common and to what extent they are shared" (p. 102). As globalization continues its emergence, understanding how to build effective and cohesive multicultural groups will prove invaluable.

Group formation within a cross-cultural environment requires deliberate and culturally attentive strategies to integrate employees from diverse backgrounds. Samnani, Boekhortst, and Harrison (2013) combine findings from social identity theory, cross-

cultural diversity, and identity formation/change to develop an acculturation theoretical model used to explain effective strategies to maximize organizational performance. Throughout this study the researchers posit how acculturation strategies directly impact a newcomer's behavior in the labor market, influence social networks and organizations that newcomers join, relational pressures, economic benefits, economic and career advancement. Samnani et al. contends that "based on employees' potential acculturation strategy, training development, and induction processes should identify ways in which employees can effectively utilize their diverse backgrounds to complement existing skills in the organization" (p. 178).

Fostering an organizational environment that embraces cultural diversity relies heavily upon work force education and training. Kersiene and Savaneviciene, (2009) examined how characteristics, abilities, instruments, processes, and results represented five applicable principles in creating, forming, and managing cross-culturally competent organizations. The researchers developed a model of organizational cross-cultural competence formation and management and declared that "treating diversity as a resource rather than a threat has become a challenge to organizations" (p.63) Cultural diversity is an essential aspect in responding to the demands of a global market economy and seeking international competitiveness. As this model suggests, organizational leaders must not only recognize the value gained from multicultural work environment, but developing a receptive, trained, and educated force that embraces the diversity in an effort to maximize organizational effectiveness and productivity.

While some studies illustrate the challenges presented from a cross-cultural work environments, Fitzsimmons (2013) developed a theoretical framework that leverages identity integration to investigate the organizational benefit multicultural employees provide an organization. Fitzsimmons used social identity theory to understand how a multicultural individual's cognitive and motivational mechanisms influence their benefit and challenges in personal, social, or task related settings. Fitzsimmons contends that "organizations that combine strong organizational identification with a multicultural ideology might be better positioned to draw on their multicultural employees' skills and abilities as a valuable resource. It is generally helpful for employees to share an organizational identification and guiding set of values" (p. 545). Ultimately, groups exist to maximize efficiency, develop a project, complete a task, or provide strategic insight, therefore, building a team that consists of multicultural employees will reap supreme benefits.

Umans (2011) conducted a quantitative study consisting of an experiment examining the relationship between cultural and gender diversity and group performance. The culture and gender diversity served as the independent variables and group performance represented the dependent variables. The study incorporated a series of mediating variables that included communication, conflict, and effectiveness of problem solving. The researchers proposed five hypotheses and administered a written case study to 102

student participants to determine the relationships. The researchers found that mediating variables did not influence the overall study, which revealed that gender diversity positively influenced group performance and cultural diversity negatively influenced group performance. While this study suggests cultural diversity degrades group performance outcomes, the onset of globalization and increasingly diverse work environments demonstrates the importance of further investigating group formation in a cross-cultural environment.

## Methodology

This research paper asks the primary question, how do organizational leaders develop groups in a cross cultural environment? As globalization continues to expand and organizations increase in diversity, exploring this research question in detail proves critical for organizational leaders. This study employs an exegetical research methodology of Romans Chapters 1-3 to address the aforementioned primary research question. These scriptural accounts illustrate Paul's experiences with group behavior and identity as he endeavored to build the First Century Church.

### Method: Inner Texture Analysis

Applying an exegetical research method within the theoretical framework of social identity theory, this study will employ an inner textual analysis of Romans Chapters 1-3. According to Robbins (1996), inner texture of a text appears primarily among the implied author, the narrator and the characters, who work together to communicate a message" (p.28). While Robbins states the words operate as either "subjects" or "objects," one may also view the text as independent fragments providing their own respective purpose to a given text. As independent fragments, a reader removes the meaning each word provides as a collective group and instead takes a macro level approach at the word's existence. For instance, Robbins suggests how this socio-rhetorical criticism approach uses five techniques to analyze the words or texts to include repetitive-progressive, opening-middle-closing, narration, argumentative and aesthetic. Ultimately, employing this method allows the researcher to focus on the existence of a word(s) to include purpose, frequency, and placement.

Chang (2013) effectively used the inner textural analysis methodology for examining Jesus' leadership and followership qualities as evident in the last chapter of the book of John. The most critical element of an inner textual analysis remains the researcher's ability to analyze, decode, and interpret the meaning of written text to identify any evidence of an author's social, cultural, political, and economic undertones.

Textual analysis relies upon the reader's hermeneutical efforts. Osborne (2006) asserts how human beings communicate and "define terms differently, unintentionally (or intentionally) mislead or simply speak from a perspective completely different from that

of the hearer or reader.” (p. 114). Considering this challenge, researchers must understand how context, historical or socioeconomic influences, political or legal procedures, cultural norms, biases, ethnic stereotypes or prejudices, or idioms may impact biblical interpretation. Osborne highlights how biblical transformations, performative and emotive language, figures of speech and biblical examples assist in discovering meaning. Therefore, employing this methodology requires the researcher to exhaust efforts to discover the overall intent of a biblical author or character.

Another challenge worth mentioning involves the lack of validity in the researcher’s interpretation. Regardless of the numerous scriptures analyzed, and historical context of injustice or inequalities, and the ethnic composition of the author or main character, a researcher’s interpretation represents a subjective perspective and falls victim to one’s own personal or political biases. Although a researcher may accurately interpret a scripture, an unknown component involves audience impact. Does or did the audience decode the message as intended, will the audience interpret the data in the same manner as the researcher? Addressing these questions must be considered throughout an inner textual analysis.

## Analyses

The first three chapters of Romans explores how Paul prepared himself, the audience, and critics of his ministry regarding social identity. Romans Chapter 1-3 presents an adequate sample size to conduct an inner texture analysis of Paul’s experience with group formation. These scriptures illustrate Paul’s journey throughout the New Testament and his experiences of spreading the ideal of Christianity within a cross-cultural environment that consisted of Romans, Jews, and Gentiles. Paul’s leadership influence successfully overcame the Roman and Judaic self-identity affiliations enabling residents to accept the concept of Christianity. A review of the first three chapters of Romans presents three particular themes that explain how Paul prepared himself, the audience, and critics of his ministry regarding group formation within a cross-cultural environment. The first theme illustrates Paul’s attempt to eliminate existing ethnic or religious barriers in favor of encouraging universal acceptance. The second theme found throughout the sample size demonstrate God’s unconditional love despite one’s social identity and group membership. The third and final theme illustrates how the principle of faith neutralizes real or perceived differences. Ultimately, this research methodology enables the researcher to investigate how Paul’s engaged leadership contributed to group formation despite the social identity challenges in a cross-cultural environment.

## Data Collection and Analysis

An analysis of Romans Chapters 1-3 reveals a total of 23 verses in which Paul uses either words or phrases that address the theme of eliminating ethnic or religious barriers for universal acceptance. In particular, Romans Chapter 1 consists of 32 verses in which nine

verses (5; 8; 6; 7; 11; 12; 13; 14; and 16) depict this theme. Paul incorporates the words “all,” “apostleship,” “brethren,” “saints,” and “together,” to establish an environment free of ethnic and religious barriers. He also employed the word phrases, “Among whom are ye also the called of Jesus Christ” (vs. 6), “I may impart unto you some spiritual gift, to the end ye may be established” (vs. 11), “I am debtor both to the Greeks, and to the Barbarians; both to the wise, and to the unwise” (vs. 14), or “for it is the power of God unto salvation to everyone that believeth; to the Jew first, and also or the Greek” (vs. 16). The employment of these word phrases demonstrate that the idea of a Christian identity provides all believers, regardless of ethnic or religious background, an equal opportunity for acceptance.

Comparatively, out of the 29 verses of Romans Chapter 2, Paul uses the middle portion of the chapter to display four instances of word choices or phrases that support this thematic principle. Noticeably, Paul leverages the word “every” three times throughout the chapter to represent the inclusivity of Christianity as evident in verse 6 where he states, “Who will render to every man according to his deeds;” again in verse 9, “Tribulation and anguish, upon every soul of man that doeth evil, of the Jew first, and also of the Gentile,” and finally in verse 10, “But, glory, honour, and peace to every man that worketh good, to the Jew first, and also to the Gentile.” Additionally, Paul makes a salient point that illustrates regardless of one’s background God values an individual’s heart, “For there is no respect of persons with God” (vs. 11). Similar to the first chapter of Romans, Romans Chapter 3:9-12; 22-23; 25; 29-30 represent nine instances that indicate the elimination of ethnic or religious barriers for universal acceptance. Within these nine verses, Paul relies upon the words “no,” “not one,” and “none” to create negative statements that actually reaffirm an individual’s Christian eligibility. Paul states, “What then? are we better than they? No, in no wise: for we have before proved both Jews and Gentiles, that they are all under sin;” (vs. 9). In verse 10, Paul declares, “As it is written, There is none righteous, no not one;” again in verse 11, “There is none that understandeth, there is none that seeketh after God,” finally in verse 12, “They are all gone out of the way, they are together become unprofitable; there is none that doeth good, no not one.” Similar to the first two chapters of Romans, Paul surmises his point of universal acceptance in verse 23 where he states, “For all have sinned, and come short of the glory of God.” Paul’s discourse indicates his overall intent to separate individual’s beliefs that their ethnic or religious identity serves as a birthright for salvation or a sentence for damnation. Ultimately, these word choices and phrases demonstrate that regardless of one’s ethnic and religious background, Paul outlines how the Christian experience represents an inclusive organizational environment.

### **Unconditional Love Despite Social Identity**

A review of the data reveals how Paul demonstrates the unconditional love despite social identity theme in 22 different instances. Instead of speaking on general terms to the collective audience, Paul expertly highlights people through their specific ethnic or

religious background or cultural distinct traits that separates them from the masses. In Romans Chapter 1:13-14; 16, Paul uses the term Greek twice, and the term Jew, Barbarian, and Gentile once. Paul's application of these five pronouns demonstrate the extension of his love despite societal norms. Towards the end of verse 13, Paul cleverly inserts the phrase "even as among other Gentiles." His use of the word "even" illustrates how no restrictions exist with Christianity and that it also provides a safe haven for "out group" members. He reinforces this idea in verse 14, where he ascertains his status or responsibility towards his fellow man does not change because of his societal status where he declares, "I am debtor both to the Greeks and to the Barbarians." Again in verse 16, Paul describes how belief represents a principle within Christianity that enables the unconditional love despite social identity when he states, "For I am not ashamed of the gospel of Christ: for it is the power of God unto salvation to everyone that believeth; to the Jew first, and also to the Greek." Of particular interest, as the organizational leader, Paul uses the personal pronoun "I" three times in each of these instances to demonstrate transparency regarding his personal stance of unconditional love towards varying social identities.

In comparison, Chapter 2 contains 18 instances in which Paul refers to an individual's social identity or cultural distinction. He uses the word "Jew" five times, "Gentile" three times, "circumcision" six times, and "uncircumcision" four times. During his application of each word, Paul provides reassurance of an organizational environment with unconditional love and equal treatment regardless of various environmental factors. Paul illustrates this point in verse 9-10 where he declares, "Tribulation and anguish, upon every soul of man that doeth evil, of the Jew first, and also of the Gentile; (vs.9). But glory, honour, and peace, to every man that worketh good, to the Jew first and also to the Gentile;" (vs. 10). He further ascertains, "For when the Gentiles, which have not the law, do by nature the things contained in the law, these, having not the law are a law unto themselves." (vs. 14). Because Paul desires to demonstrate unconditional love despite one's social identity he also emphasizes Jew's responsibility to the law as well where he states, "Behold, thou art called a Jew, and retest in the law, and makest thy boast of God." (vs. 17). He then concludes this particular paragraph in verse 24 with a comparative reference to the Gentiles as witnesses to the Jews mishandling of law where he states, "For the name of God is blasphemed among the Gentiles through you, as it is written." Throughout this chapter, Paul rhetorically builds his case that one's social identity does not exempt them from unconditional love. Verses 25-29 he makes use of the term "circumcision" and "uncircumcision" 10 times and the word "Jew" twice representing 66% utilization rate of these key terms within the total chapter. Paul's emphatic desire to persuade the audience that the principle of unconditional love mandated through Christian principles provides the framework for recognizing and appreciating different social identities and the integrity of one's heart.

In comparison, Chapter 3 provides further insight in Paul's conviction regarding social identity as he refers to "Jews" three times in verses 1; 9; and 29. Each instance he purposes that no distinguishable characteristics exist to prevent Jews or Gentiles, circumcised or uncircumcised from sinning. He opens the chapter in verse 1 with a statement that illustrates his perspective regarding entitlements based upon social identity where he states, "What advantage then hath the Jew? Or what profit is there of circumcision." In verse 9 Paul declares, "What then? Are we better than they? No, in no wise: for we have before proved both Jews and Gentiles, that they are all under sin." Similarly in verse 29, he boldly proclaims, "Is he the God of the Jews only is he not also of the Gentiles? Yes, of the Gentiles also:" Ultimately, this suggests that leaders and followers must display love towards each social identity to fulfill the Christian vision. He further uses the word "Gentiles" three times in 9:29, the word "circumcision" twice in verse 1 and 30 and uses "uncircumcision" once in verse 30. Throughout this chapter his continual reinforcement demonstrates how ones heart and not social identities serve as the prerequisite for success.

### **Faith Neutralizes Real or Perceived Differences**

Faith that neutralizes barriers represents the final theme discovered during data collection. Paul refers to "faith" a total of 10 times throughout the selected samples. Four instances in Chapter 1:5; 8; 12; 17, no instances in Chapter 2, and 6 instances in Chapter 3:22; 25; and 30-31. The increase in the frequent use of the word "faith" indicates the speaker's emphasis on the importance of developing the concept of faith. Paul decrees in Romans 1:5, "By whom we have received grace and apostleship, for obedience to the faith among all nations, for his name." Paul precedes the word "faith" with the article "the" signifying its use as a noun in this context. The faith represents the Christian organization as a whole that galvanizes followers in pursuit of Christianity's long term objective. Again in verse 8, Paul ascertains, "that your faith is spoken of throughout the whole world." The word "faith" used as a noun in this particular verse demonstrates how Paul remains encouraged that the followers remain the focal point. Verse 12 illustrates Paul's relation with his followers with possessing "mutual faith." While verse 17 states, "For therein is the righteousness of God revealed from faith to faith: as it is written, The just shall live by faith." This usage indicates the power of faith as it serves as a cohesive that bonds man with God. Organizational leaders incorporating this level of faith promotes committed followers to the process, leader, and organization as a whole.

While Chapter 2 does not mention "faith," Chapter 3 highlights six instances of the word "faith." The first evidence of the usage in verse 22 where Paul states, "Even the righteousness of God which is by faith of Jesus Christ unto all and upon all them that believe: for there is no difference:" Paul illustrates how the faith serves as the bridge between "all" that believe and its presence balances the people. In verse 25, Paul declares, "Whom God hath set forth to be a propitiation through faith in his blood, to declare his

righteousness for the remission of sins that are past, through the forbearance of God.” Paul reemphasizes the importance of faith and its contribution to Christianity stating, “Seeing it is one God, which shall justify the circumcision by faith, and uncircumcision though faith. (vs. 30). Do we then make void the law through faith? God forbid: yea, we establish the law.” (vs. 31). Ultimately, incorporating faith into the daily workings of Christianity provides the catalyst for group cohesion. These six instances serve to strengthen the importance of faith within the organization and how developing faith neutralizes differences between individuals and leads Paul in establishing a common Christianity identity.

## Discussion and Results

While the modern day organizational environment continues to globally expand, it remains critical that organizational leaders develop effective techniques and strategies to build cohesive groups. Paul’s experience throughout the first three chapters of Romans demonstrates his strategic steps in leading within a multicultural environment. The text reveals the elimination of barriers for universal acceptance, unconditional love despite social identity, and faith as a neutralizer as three significant themes that not only proved vital to the success of Paul’s ministry, but also remain applicable to the modern day organizational leader.

Paul’s initial interaction with the people of Rome establishes a formidable leadership presence that demands denial of one’s social identity in favor of inclusivity into the new organization. Effective leaders within a cross cultural environment must foster an atmosphere that elicits trust and confidence, which encourages recruits and new organizational members to assimilate. Conyers (2013) asserts, “Successful global leaders leverage cultural differences among their teams, while building trust in diversity.” (p.9). Within his discourse, Paul recognizes the culturally diverse environment Rome provides and how accepting these cultural differences will not degrade organizational progress. Paul’s experience demonstrates that organizational leaders must possess boldness, candor, transparency, and openness when establishing a culturally appreciative and diverse environment. Without fail, he established a solid foundation in which all organizational members received equal entitlements afforded through Christianity.

Consequently, the sacred text reveals the intangible value love provides an organization. Incorporating an environment of love motivates, inspires, and enhances subordinates’ self confidence in the work place. Caldwell (2010), defines “love as the unconditional acts of respect, caring and kindness that communicate the worth of others and that promote their welfare, growth, and wholeness.” (p. 93). Paul gains credibility, legitimacy, and credibility as a leader because he establishes love as an organizational requirement whereby subordinates receive mutual respect. Organizational leaders in a cross cultural environment must implement training, awareness, facilitate open dialogues, and other efforts to dispel stereotypes, decrease ethnic or racial tension, and eliminate

environmental factors that contribute to organizational conflict. Paul's direct involvement and infusion of love served as a viable example for modern day organizational leaders to model to succeed within a cross-cultural environment.

Finally, Paul's reference to faith throughout the text demonstrates its importance regarding group formation within a cross cultural environment because faith neutralizes real or perceived differences. Organizational leaders must develop an environment in which subordinates possess faith in the process, faith in the organization, and faith in the leader. While encouraging this leap of faith, Paul's push also signifies a drastic organizational, cultural, and societal change of universal inclusion that led to doubt. I-Chao (2013) asserts, "Employees' resistant responses to an organizational change include disobedience, indifference, procrastination and resignation, with such responses resulting from the need for security, habits or misunderstandings" (p. 108). When organizational leaders promote organizational change, followers develop a sense of skepticism. To overcome this environment of resistance, organizational leaders must effectively bridge the gap of mistrust that may exist between themselves and their subordinates. Without actively engaged leaders, preconceived notions, historical stereotypes, or prejudicial biases will hinder organizational progress. Therefore, boldly representing the organization and declaring its legitimacy will contribute to faith building that eventually neutralizes real or perceived differences.

## Limitations

Cross-cultural environments present organizational leaders with unique challenges that require innovative methods that will effectively reach the audience. Paul's experience within the first three chapters of Romans, demonstrate three critical themes organizational leaders must consider when leading in a cross-cultural environment. First, leaders must eliminate the ethnic or religious barriers that prevent universal acceptance. Second, incorporate an environment of unconditional love despite employee's social identity. Finally, instill a level of faith within the organization that neutralizes real or perceived barriers. While this study examined the first three chapters of Romans to understand how organizational leaders develop group formation in a cross-cultural environment, this topic lends itself to severe limitations. The question did not examine how Paul handled gender or class within his process of group formation. Additionally, it did not provide insight on the effectiveness of his discourse towards the audience and their ability to follow, reject, or ignore his public plea. Because Paul's interaction in Rome involved multiple layers of societal and cultural leaders, this question also did not explore the impact of his exchange on his overall ministry and objective.

## Areas for Further Research

This study analyzed the first three chapters of Romans and did not examine the total book of Romans nor other works of Paul, which maintain a greater sample size of data to

investigate leadership within a cross-cultural environment. Another area for exploration involves a mixed method approach that combines exegetical research and quantitative or qualitative methods. Incorporating a survey or scale that measures modern day U.S. organizational leaders' responses towards the captured themes within Romans 1-3 would prove beneficial and a well-rounded research study. Based upon the limited amount of scholarly journal articles that reference Romans 1-3 and Paul's cross-cultural experience, the field for further research remains fertile ground for exploration. Recommend examining how these themes transfer internationally within individualistic and collectivist countries to determine differences if any. Finally conducting a study that examines the American employee's public opinion, perceptions, and priority of the themes identified in Roman's Chapter 1-3.

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### About the Author

C. Victor Herbin III is an active duty United States Army Lieutenant Colonel currently serving as the director of personnel at the White House Communications Agency. He earned his bachelor's degree in History from the University of Southern California in Los Angeles, CA, a master's degree in Human Resources Management from Webster's University in St. Louis, MO, and a master's degree in Journalism (Strategic Communication) from the University of Missouri in Columbia, MO. He has 17 plus years of human resources and organizational leadership experience. He is currently pursuing a Ph.D. in organizational leadership at Regent University's School of Business and Leadership. His opinions as stated in this article are expressed in his personal, private capacity and do not reflect the official position or endorsement of the Department of Defense, the United States Army and the White House Communications Agency.

Email: <mailto:connher@mail.regent.edu>.

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## Perceived Organizational Support and Job Overload as Moderators on the Relationship between Leadership Effectiveness and Job Satisfaction

C. P. Weaver, Jr  
*Regent University*

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Effective leadership should be the goal of any organization that desires to be efficient and competitive. The positive perception of effective leadership can enhance individual outcomes such as job satisfaction. Therefore, understanding any influences on the association between effective leadership and job satisfaction will guide leaders to relationships that are more effective. This study examined the predictive ability of leader effectiveness on employee job satisfaction and the ability of perceived organizational support and job overload to moderate that relationship. Survey data from three different economic sectors produced 70 cases for a moderated hierarchical multiple regression. A significant main effect for leader effectiveness on job satisfaction was found, but neither moderator provided an influence on that relationship. Although leader effectiveness is most often used as an organizational outcome in leadership studies, this research supports the variable as a predictor of organizational outcomes.

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Understanding what makes a leader effective is one of many perspectives in leadership research. It is also important to examine the influences on and outcomes of effective leadership. Specifically, examining these influences and outcomes provides information on how leaders may best guide and direct their personnel and organizations (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012). The majority of studies examining leader effectiveness appear to focus on the antecedents of this leadership phenomenon (Decker & Rotondo, 2001; Deluga, 1991; Hassan, Mahsud, Yukl & Prussia, 2013; Van Emmerick & Euwema, 2007). There seems to be less of a focus on what outcomes result from effective leadership and the influence of situational variables on outcomes. This research focus may change or expand due to an increasing emphasis on the subordinate side of the leader-subordinate relationship.

Examining the subordinate's perspective on the leader builds on a history of leader-centric research. Although the concept of leadership is an ancient one, only since the 1930s has the phenomenon of leadership been the subject of academic research (House & Aditya, 1997). A majority of this research is leader-centric and specifically the behaviors and traits attributed to the leader that persuade or influence the behavior of subordinates (Fields, 2007). How subordinates perceive the leader whether from a behavioral, trait, emotional, or other aspect may influence subordinate outcomes that in turn may have consequences for the organization.

## Research Problem

Organizations across the economic sectors of profit, non-profit, government and military would likely include leader effectiveness and employee job satisfaction as important personnel related organizational objectives. In a study of 51 county level social service organizations, Miles and Petty (1977) found that satisfaction with the supervisor was significantly related to subordinate job satisfaction. Deluga (1991) found satisfaction with the leader was positively and significantly correlated with leader effectiveness. An important organizational outcome of effective leadership is increased employee performance and job satisfaction. Additionally, studies have found a negative relationship between job satisfaction, role ambiguity, and role conflict; the latter two being undesirable organizational outcomes (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Wood & Field, 2007). Since role ambiguity and role conflict are factors in job overload, this outcome suggests job overload may negatively influence relationships between job satisfaction and other variables. Organizational pressures are also the main cause of job overload and leaders may reflect these pressures on employees through the factors that define job overload such as increased work hours and unrealistic performance goals (Altaf & Awan, 2011).

Adding to organizational pressure is the flattening and interconnection of the global economy across industries; it is one cause of increased competition, which has the potential to increase pressure on the organization to become or remain competitive (Buckley & Yamin, 2011). Job overload may negatively moderate the relationship between effective leadership and job satisfaction. In order to mitigate the negative influence of job overload, it is important to understand what factors are most important to that end. One potential situational variable is perceived organizational support. Perceived organizational support may positively moderate the relationship between effective leadership and job satisfaction. A proposed model of the relationship between subordinate perceptions of effective leadership and job satisfaction includes the examination of perceived organizational support and the potential negative influence of job overload. Specifically, the objective of this study was the examination of the relationship between employee perception of leader effectiveness and employee job satisfaction. Additionally, and as shown in Figure 1, the study also examined the moderation effect of perceived organizational support and job overload on the relationship between employee perception of leader effectiveness and employee job satisfaction.

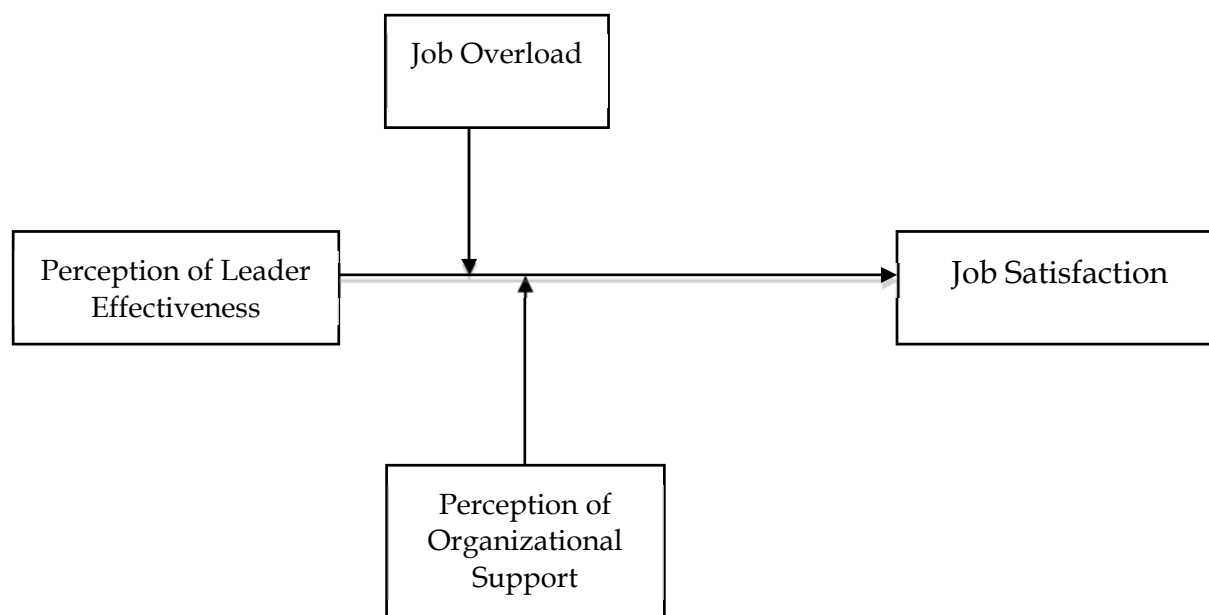


Figure 1. Proposed moderated model of the effect of the perception of leader effectiveness on job satisfaction moderated by job overload and perceived organizational support

## Literature Review

Job overload can potentially affect employees in any economic sector. The terms work overload and role overload are seen in the literature with a similar constellation of characteristics (Altaf & Awan, 2011; Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011; Friend, 1982). For the purpose of this study, job overload includes all similarly referenced variables. Although most of the causes of job overload result in negative outcomes, research indicates that some individuals may view taking on more work and responsibility as a challenge (Altaf & Awan, 2011). This condition appears to be outside the normal reaction to job overload. There are three main concerns with job overload: cause, symptoms, and outcomes with organizational factors being a frequently studied cause of job overload (Altaf & Awan, 2011; Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011; Thomas Adler, & Castro, 2005).

The causes of job overload appear mainly to be the result of organizational pressure (Altaf & Awan, 2011). These organizational pressures include long, difficult working hours, pressure to work overtime, few holidays, vacation days or breaks, unreasonable work load, an unreasonable expectation of performance within the time allowed, role ambiguity, role conflict, and one non-organizational cause, interpersonal conflict (Altaf & Awan, 2011; Cullen, Silverstein, & Foley, 2008). Job overload is often expressed through physical symptoms such as fatigue from lack of sleep and overwork, headache, nausea, insomnia, anxiety, and stress (Altaf & Awan, 2011). These physical symptoms have the

potential to become longer-term health issues and could result in a variety of negative outcomes.

Research indicates that job overload outcomes can affect the person, the organization, or both. Individuals can have poor work-life balance or develop physical problems such as cardio-vascular disease (Altaf & Awan, 2011; Cullen et al., 2008; Ilies, Dimotakis, & De Pater, 2010). Job overload affects the organization through employee dissatisfaction, greater absenteeism, and job turnover (Altaf & Awan, 2011; Cullen et al., 2008). Both the organization and employees are affected by accidents caused when employees are dissatisfied and consequently less engaged and attentive in their work (Altaf & Awan, 2011; Cullen et al., 2008; Ilies et al., 2010).

Other studies lend support to the negative outcomes associated with job overload. Cullen et al. (2008) found that high job demands fully explained the relationship between workload and job burnout. Friend (1982) found that higher workload and greater time urgency led to lower levels of job performance. In a study of military personnel, role overload was inversely related to job performance (Thomas, Adler, & Castro, 2005). In addition, negative affective reactions to high workloads can decrease employee well-being and cause greater affective distress on high workload days (Ilies et al, 2010).

Job overload appears to have an inverse relationship with job satisfaction. Supporting this contention, job burnout, an extreme case of job overload, fully explained the relationship between job demands and job satisfaction in a study by Cullen et al., (2008). Counter to this trend, a study of 76 non-randomly selected employees from a variety of organizations in Pakistan by Altaf and Awan (2011) found no relationship between job overload and job satisfaction.

## **Perceived Organizational Support**

Perceived organizational support (POS) is an expression of the employee's belief that the organization values their contribution and provides for their welfare (Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011). Theorists also consider POS as a transaction between the employee who provides effort and loyalty and the organization that provides socioeconomic support (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003). This type of transaction is fundamental to social exchange theory that emphasizes the importance of the employee's motivation and the relation of that motivation to achieving organizational goals (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986).

A number of outcomes are positively related to POS including organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, retention in the organization, and job satisfaction (Allen, Shore, & Griffith, 2003; Blackmore, & Kuntz, 2011; Dawley, Houghton, & Bucklew, 2010; Harris, Harris, & Harvey, 2007; & Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Perceived organizational support is also associated with increased affective commitment

(Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011), and related factors such as participation in decision-making (Allen, Shore, & Griffith, 2003), reduced turnover, supervisor support and personal sacrifice (Dawley et al., 2010). Perceived organizational support is a significant predictor of employee job performance and satisfaction (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Harris et al., 2007). Harris et al. (2007) found POS was positively related to job satisfaction, pay satisfaction, and negatively related to turnover intention, role conflict, and job strain.

Employees who believe the organization is supporting them may also have positive feelings for other aspects of their employment (Blackmore & Kuntz, 2011). Webber et al. (2012) found that POS was significantly and positively related to trust in top management. In a study related to this outcome, Dawley et al. (2010) found that employees who viewed the organization's support as a matter of leader discretion valued the support to a greater extent than if the support were mandated by rules or regulations. Conversely, but supportive of the positive influence of POS, Karatepe (2012) posits that a lack of organizational support creates job dissatisfaction leading to overall dissatisfaction with the employee's career, although the temporal nature of this relationship was not tested.

Perceived organizational support may also mitigate some negative organizational outcomes. Cullen et al. (2008) found that aspects of POS such as a people-oriented culture and inclusion of subordinates in decision-making mitigated the emotional and physical demands of the job. Studies indicate that most employees are interested in higher levels of participative decision-making, a factor in POS and research results support that proposition (Wood, & Fields, 2007). This may explain the strength of this particular aspect of POS. Perceived organizational support was found to mitigate the effects of job demands in a study of employees at a large Mid-Western university (Ilies et al, 2010). It is also possible that POS can mitigate the negative effects of aversive physical, psychological, and behavioral reactions to stressors (Cullen et al., 2008).

Research also supports a moderating and mediating role for POS. Loi, Hang-yue and Foley, (2006) found that perceived organizational support mediates the relationship between procedural and distributive justice and organizational commitment and intention to leave. Suazo and Turnley (2010) found POS fully mediated the relationship between psychological contract breach (PCB) and four individual differences: positive affectivity, reciprocation wariness, equity sensitivity, and Protestant work ethic. The influence of the leader was also an important factor in how employees viewed organizational support (Dawley et al., 2010). Simosi (2012) found POS moderated the relationship between two categories of organizational support influenced employee outcomes: perceived supervisor support and training transfer, and perceived colleague support and employee affective commitment toward the organization. These results support the use of POS as a potential moderator.

## Leader Effectiveness

The effectiveness of an organization's leaders should be a desirable characteristic and outcome for any organization, company, or agency in any economic sector. Researchers hypothesize that leader behaviors and subordinate outcomes are dependent upon how subordinates perceive leader effectiveness (Miles & Petty, 1977). Deluga (1991) found that a subordinate's extra effort was positively and significantly correlated with leader effectiveness for naval officers. This research indicates that leaders perceived to be effective, positively influence subordinate outcomes. Research has also revealed a number of additional factors that contribute to effective leadership and influence subordinate perceptions (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Decker & Rotondo, 2001; Gardner, 2003; Hassan et al., 2013; Hovatter, 2009; Jaussi & Dionne, 2004; Van Emmerick & Euwema, 2007). These factors include leader behaviors, characteristics, and leadership styles.

Perceptions of leader effectiveness are associated with a number of variables such as empowering leadership (Hassan et al., 2013); the leader's use of humor (Decker & Rotondo, 2001), the use of transformational yet unconventional behavior (Jaussi & Dionne, 2004); and communicating a strong vision (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999). Gardner (2003) found that leader exemplification, the modeling of behaviors, was related to perceived leader effectiveness. Effective leaders can also behave in a way that provides a buffer for subordinates from negative consequences and influences subordinate leadership perceptions (Van Emmerick & Euwema, 2007). An effective leader is likely empathic, sociable, loyal to subordinates, and appropriately emotional (Hovatter, 2009). Openness to experience is also a quality related to perceptions of effective leadership (Van Emmerick & Euwema, 2007).

In addition to behaviors and characteristics, leadership styles contribute to perceptions of leader effectiveness. Transformational and transactional leadership behaviors highly correlate with leader effectiveness, although transactional leadership had a weaker correlation compared to transformational leadership (Deluga, 1991). Ethical leadership is also positively associated with perceptions of effective leadership (Hassan et al., 2013). Relationships are important to the leadership dynamic and subordinates may perceive leader effectiveness as a function of that relationship through the leader's activation of self-concepts, schemas, or implicit theories of leadership (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Lord et al., 1999).

Certain leader roles are also associated with leader effectiveness and Hooijberg, Lane, and Diverse (2010) found that for superiors and direct reports goal orientation was the most important predictor of leader effectiveness, while the facilitator role was a significant predictor among peers. Hooijberg et al. (2010) also found a leader's direct reports valued flexibility as a strong indicator of leader effectiveness in a study of 175

bureau chiefs and directors of state government agencies in the Northeastern United States.

## **Job Satisfaction**

Job satisfaction is the response from a worker when desired outcomes in a job are closely matched by actual job outcomes (Wood & Fields, 2007). This is likely why job satisfaction is often studied as a leadership behavior outcome. Supporting this contention is the generally consistent relationship between leadership behaviors and job satisfaction in studies using job satisfaction as an outcome (Chiok Foong Loke, 2001). The popularity of this outcome variable in leadership research recognizes its relevance as a major factor in organizational performance (Lok & Crawford, 2004). Since job satisfaction is well studied, it appears to be an appropriate variable to examine the relationship between leadership effectiveness and the moderating variables of perceived organizational support and job overload.

Job satisfaction is generally a prime concern for leaders and subordinates. The reason may be that researchers consider job satisfaction as an emotional response by an individual to job conditions and experiences (Bushra, Usman, & Naveed, 2011; Locke, 1976). Research suggests that employees who experience job satisfaction are more likely to be productive and remain with the organization (Chiok Foong Loke, 2001). Additionally, job satisfaction tends to be a global attitude based on the perception of overall job conditions (Jernigan & Beggs, 2010). This view has come under some scrutiny with proposals suggesting that job satisfaction may be multi-dimensional (Darvish & Rezaei, 2011). Howard and Frink (1996) propose job satisfaction combines both intrinsic and extrinsic job elements supporting the multidimensionality of the variable.

Job satisfaction is also related to several leader-influenced outcomes. Two such variables are employee voice and psychological ownership (Avey, Wernsing, & Palanski, 2012). Employee voice stems from the assertion in Hirschman (1970) that dissatisfied employees will either leave an organization or voice their concerns about conditions at the organization. Psychological ownership means employees feel part of the organization and will likely make decisions in the long-term interest of the organization (Wood, 2003). Job satisfaction is also positively related to higher levels of shared leadership (Wood & Fields, 2007). When a transformational leader uses positive but unconventional leadership, employee job satisfaction increases (Jaussi & Dionne, 2004). These studies of job satisfaction support a role for the leader and a specific influence role on that variable from leaders perceived as effective.

## Hypotheses

H1: Leader effectiveness is positively related to job satisfaction as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Short Form and analyzed by linear multiple regression.

H2: Job overload moderates the relationship between leader effectiveness and job satisfaction as measured by the Job Overload Scale, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Short Form and analyzed by hierarchical multiple regression.

H3: Perceived organizational support moderates the relationship between leader effectiveness and job satisfaction as measured by the Scale of Perceived Organizational Support, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Short Form and analyzed by hierarchical multiple regression.

## Method

A quantitative survey-based research method was used to conduct an examination of the relationship between employee perception of leader effectiveness and job satisfaction and the moderation effect of two situational variables, perceived organizational support and job overload. Specifically, a within-subjects, three factor (perception of effective leadership, perceived organizational support, and job overload) research design was utilized since all participants were exposed to all levels of each independent variable (Cabanda, Fields, & Winston, 2011).

The study employed a cross-sectional survey method to collect data on the independent variables of perception of effective leadership, perceived organizational support, and job overload and the dependent variable of job satisfaction. Survey instruments were specific to each variable.

## Participants and Procedure

Participants were drawn from three economic sectors through an initial random selection and follow-up snowball sample to increase external reliability and the ability to generalize to the population. The government sample, including civilians and military members, accounted for 50% (35) of the sample, a non-profit organization 10% (7) and two private sector businesses 40% (28). Participants were 68.6% male (48) and 31.4% female (22) with a mean age of 49 and with 54.3% (38) reporting more than 10 years of tenure at their current organization. Leadership level was self-reported and is relative to the workplace. An upper level leader at a store would be the store manager, and a department manager would be a mid-level leader while the shift manager would be a lower level leader. On a naval vessel, the upper level leader would be the commanding

officer while the officer in charge of a squadron of ships would also be an upper level leader. Upper level leaders represented 17.1% (12) of the participants, mid-level leaders 27.1% (19), lower level leaders 32.9% (23), and 22.9% (16) of the participants reported no leadership responsibility.

Organizations were contacted in advance and agreed to participate with an individual at each organization distributing the survey link. An initial random sample was utilized and 150 survey links were E-mailed to potential participants. One organization then declined to participate after initial agreement and a follow-on snowball sampling procedure was employed with the remaining organizations using an additional 30 survey links. A total of 74 surveys were returned producing 70 complete surveys for analysis for a 38.8% response rate.

## Instruments

Data on leader effectiveness was collected using the Leadership Effectiveness Measure (LEM) developed by Chua and Iyengar (2011). The LEM was developed to support a study examining how latitude in decision making affects employee perceptions of a leader's personality and effectiveness (Chua & Iyengar, 2011). The LEM is a 4-item instrument using a 7-point scale (1 = Not at all, 4 = To some extent, 7 = To a great extent). The instrument has produced a Cronbach's alpha between 0.87 and 0.90.

The items were adapted from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1997). The MLQ contains five scales with three scales, charisma, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation, measuring the transformational leadership construct, and two scales, contingent reward, and management-by-exception, measuring the transactional leadership construct (Lowe et al., 1996). In addition to measuring behaviors associated with these two leadership constructs, the MLQ-5X also measures three leadership outcomes: the leader's extra effort, a leader's satisfaction, and a leader's effectiveness (Hovatter, 2009). Several studies have used the MLQ-5X to examine leader effectiveness (Gardner, 2003; Hovatter, 2009; Jaussi, & Dionne, 2004). The development of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire proposes the perspective that a follower's ratings of leader behaviors are reflections of their ability to observe the behavior of a leader and have been in a position to observe those behaviors (Bycio et al., 1995).

An examination of the factor structure and scale of the MLQ-5X revealed an overall internal reliability and scale reliability from .63 to .92 with all scales above .70 except active management by exception (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). The results of a meta-analysis by Lowe et al. (1996) found support for the three transformational scales as viable measures of leadership effectiveness. The transactional scales were also found to correlate with effective leadership but the results were ambiguous (Lowe et al., 1996). Other studies also provide support for the use of the transformational scales to measure leadership effectiveness (Douglas, 2012; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Erkutlu, 2008).

## **Perceived organizational support**

Eisenberger et al. (1986) developed an instrument to measure a conception of perceived organizational support that uses social exchange theory to explain the relationship between subordinate work and loyalty, and the organization's reciprocity for that commitment. Eisenberger and Sowa (1986) report a Cronbach's alpha for the Scale of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) as 0.93. Simosi (2012) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .83. Blackmore and Kuntz (2011) measured perceived organizational support using a nine-item version of the scale developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986). The SPOS was also used by Ilies et al. (2010); Gillet et al., 2012; Harris et al, 2007; Karatepe, 2012; Simosi, 2012; Suazo & Turnley, 2010; and Webber et al., 2012). Additionally, in two studies of POS using workers from small, medium, and large French companies Gillet et al. (2012) found supervisor autonomy support predicted employee need satisfaction and that POS also predicts hedonic and eudemonic need satisfaction.

## **Job overload**

Caplan, et al. (1980) developed the Job Overload Scale (JOS) to focus on employee perceptions of job overload in a quantitative manner as opposed to affective measures such as mental strain or psychological pressure. The JOS is an 11-item, 5-point Likert scaled instrument developed by Caplan et al. (1980). Questions require participants to quantify their responses by perceived pace and amount of work (Fields, 2002). Coefficient alpha values range from 0.72 to 0.81 (Fields, 2002). Altaf and Awan (2011) reported a Cronbach's alpha for the JOS of 0.89.

## **Job satisfaction**

Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967) developed the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-Short Form. The original Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was a 100-item instrument that included 20 subscales (Fields, 2002). Subsequent to the development of the long form, Weiss et al. (1967) developed a frequently used 20-item instrument known as the MSQ-Short Form (Fields, 2002). The short form is a reliable measure with Cronbach's alpha values between 0.85 and 0.91. The instrument correlates positively with life satisfaction, non-work satisfaction, job involvement, and performance expectancy (Fields, 2002). While the instrument's design incorporates measures of both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, some research suggests assigning items to extrinsic and intrinsic subscales may affect construct validity (APA, n.d.). Hirschfeld (2000) tested both the original MSQ -Short Form and a revised MSQ-Short Form to assess construct validity problems. Hirschfeld found construct validity scores on the original MSQ-Short Form were not inferior to the subscales on the revised form.

## Results

A hierarchical multiple regression was used to assess the predictive ability of leader effectiveness on job satisfaction after controlling for participant age. Additionally, the moderation effects of job overload and perceived organizational support on the relationship between leader effectiveness and job satisfaction were also examined. Descriptive statistics for the variables are presented in Table 1.

Table 1

*Descriptive Statistics for Independent, Dependent and Moderator Variables<sup>a</sup>*

	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness <sup>b</sup>	Kurtosis <sup>c</sup>
Job Satisfaction	48.0	100.0	78.87	10.67	-.57	.07
Leader Effectiveness	8.0	24.0	19.36	4.06	-1.23	1.19
Job Overload	25.0	45.0	36.43	4.51	.02	-.69
Organizational Support	51.0	112.0	68.47	8.00	2.44	12.11
Leader Effectiveness/ Perceived Organizational Support	536.0	2688.0	1330.6	349.71	.27	2.67
Leader Effectiveness/ Job Overload	232.0	1080.0	711.79	194.36	-.44	-.16

<sup>a</sup>N = 70

<sup>b</sup>Standard Error = .29

<sup>c</sup>Standard Error = .57

A preliminary analysis was conducted to assess the normality and multicollinearity of the data. Skewness and kurtosis range between -1.23 and 1.19 for all variables except perceived organizational support and the interaction term, leader effectiveness/perceived organizational support as presented in Table 1. Job satisfaction and the interaction term leader effectiveness/job overload reach significance on the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and the Shapiro-Wilk test while job overload reaches significance on just the Shapiro-Wilk test as presented in Table 2.

Table 2

*Tests of Normality for Independent, Dependent and Moderator Variables*

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov <sup>a</sup>			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Job Satisfaction	.105	70	.06	.97	70	.06
Leader Effectiveness	.179	70	.00	.88	70	.00
Job Overload	.124	70	.01	.98	70	.08
Organizational Support	.147	70	.00	.82	70	.00
Effectiveness/Org Support	.146	70	.00	.92	70	.00
Effectiveness/Job Overload	.134	70	.00	.91	70	.00

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

Table 3

*Correlation Matrix for Independent, Dependent and Moderator Variables*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Job Satisfaction	1.0						
2. Gender	-.09	1.0					
3. Leader Effectiveness	.55	.10	1.0				
4. Job Overload	.37	.10	.37	1.0			
5. Organizational Support	.37	-.04	.16	-.16	1.0		
6. Effectiveness and Organizational Support	.62	.05	.88	-.38	.61	1.0	
7. Effectiveness and Job Overload	.57	.11	.90	.74	.21	.82	1.0

There are no multicollinearity problems among the independent and dependent variables as presented in Table 3. The exception is the moderator interaction products that are highly correlated with leader effectiveness and the relevant moderator variables. Both leader effectiveness/perceived organizational support and leader effectiveness/job overload have tolerance levels of .01 and a VIF of 170 indicating collinearity with the independent variable of leader effectiveness. This high correlation with another predictor variable by the moderator variables indicates a potential for lack of moderation affect

since low correlations are recommended between independent variables (Hair et al., 2010).

Subsequent to testing the data for normality and multicollinearity, hypothesis testing was conducted using hierarchical multiple regression by first entering the control variable of gender in block 1. Decker and Rotondo (2001) did find a moderating role for leader gender in a study of leader effectiveness. The control variable had no effect on the model and explained no variance as presented in Table 4. The predictor variable of leader effectiveness and the two moderator variables were entered in block 2 and explained 41.2% of the variance  $F(4, 65) = 11.41, p = .000 < .05$ . In block 3 the two interaction terms, leader effectiveness/perceived organizational support and leader effectiveness/job overload were entered and explained a further .5% of the variance and the overall model explained 41.7% of the variance and was significant  $F(6, 63) = 7.50, p = .80 > .05$ .

In model 2, only leader effectiveness ( $\beta = .454, p = .000 < .05$ ) and organizational support ( $\beta = .271, p = .007 < .05$ ) were statistically significant. There were no statistically significant variables in model 3.

Table 4

*Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Job Satisfaction From Leader Effectiveness and Moderated by Job Overload and Perceived Organizational Support*

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Change Statistics				
				R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.01 <sup>a</sup>	.00	-.02	.000	.006	1	68	.94
2	.64 <sup>b</sup>	.41	.38	.40	15.21	3	65	.00
3	.65 <sup>c</sup>	.41	.36	.02	.226	2	63	.80

a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender

b. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Organizational Support, Job Overload, Leader Effectiveness

c. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Organizational Support, Job Overload, Leader Effectiveness, Effectiveness/Job Overload, Effectiveness/Organizational Support

## Discussion

The present study had two objectives. The first objective was an examination of the predictive value of leadership effectiveness on job satisfaction. The second, was to determine the ability of perceived organizational support and job overload to act as moderators on that relationship. Results at the individual level of analysis indicate that

leader effectiveness has a positive effect on job satisfaction. This supports findings that job satisfaction is the result of congruence between expectations and outcomes on the job and the consistency of the relationship between leader behaviors and job satisfaction (Chiok Foong Loke, 2001; Wood & Field, 2007).

Leader effectiveness is most often used as an outcome variable in organizational studies (Amundsen & Martinsen, 2014; Ewen et al., 2013). Research generally examines variables that influence the effectiveness of leaders such as behaviors, traits, and leadership styles (Bass, 2008). Studies have examined a number of leader effectiveness predictors such as transformational and transactional leadership (Ewen et al., 2013), the effect of vocal attraction (DeGroot et al., 2011), overconfidence (Shipman & Mumford, 2011), spiritual values (Reave, 2005), and political skill (Douglas & Ammeter, 2004). The significance of this study is the use of leader effectiveness as a predictor of job satisfaction resulting in support for a positive relationship between leader effectiveness and an employee's job satisfaction.

Amundsen and Martinsen (2014) found a significant, negative, and moderate correlation between leader effectiveness and job satisfaction. This study found a significant, positive, and moderate correlation between job satisfaction and leader effectiveness. The current study collected data on U. S. employee ratings of their direct leader's effectiveness while the study by Amundsen and Martinsen used a superior's ratings of a junior leader's effectiveness in a Norwegian sample. This may indicate the influence of different perspectives or culture on the perceptions of leader effectiveness.

Job overload did not moderate the relationship between leader effectiveness and job satisfaction. The lack of a moderating role for job overload may be attributable to the participant sample. Ng, Ang, and Chan (2008) examined military leaders and subordinates and found a moderating role for job demands, a variable that includes workload, but only when job demands were high. When job demands were low, there was no effect (Ng et al., 2008). The sample in this study included military members who have high job demands but job overload was the most normally distributed of all the variables. Therefore, the high job demands experienced by military members may not be reflected across every economic sector and the influence of job overload may have been lessened by the deliberate research design that sought to sample from a variety of economic sectors.

While this design might increase external validity, it did not provide support for a moderation effect from job overload. This could also mean that job overload in the sampled organizations are less than other organizations or are at such a low level as to dilute the effect from the military sample. Another possible reason could be sample size. While the sample was above the minimum suggested by Hair et al. (2010) for the conduct of a moderated hierarchical multiple regression, sample size did not achieve the recommended 20 cases per variable. This low sampling could also have influenced the

lack of moderation from perceived organizational support. Perceived organizational support was only moderately correlated with job satisfaction and had a small, positive correlation with leader effectiveness.

The lack of a moderation effect for perceived organizational support (POS) aligns with findings by Rahaman (2012) that attributes POS actions as an independent predictor of organizational outcomes. Bogler and Nir (2010) also found that POS acts as a predictor variable in relation to job satisfaction and is subject to a mediation effect from employee empowerment. Poon et al. (2007) also found that the predictive influence of POS was moderated by propensity to trust in its relationship to job satisfaction. Muse and Stamper (2007) found support for job satisfaction as a mediator between POS and work performance. Both variables were highly correlated and the correlation for the current study was moderate, which may also have influenced the result. An additional factor was the larger sample obtained by Muse and Stamper in a single organization while the current study used a smaller sample across three economic sectors.

Perceived organizational support also was the only variable that was well outside normal range with a large, positive kurtosis and a negative skew. The results of the study support other studies that found a positive relationship between job satisfaction and perceived organizational support (Harris et al., 2007; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). However, the lack of a moderation effect may indicate that leader effectiveness is either not dependent on the employee's perception of organizational support or organizational support acts best as a predictor variable and has a separate influence on employee job satisfaction. It is also possible that both suppositions are correct given that only leader effectiveness and perceived organizational support were the only significant coefficients in the model.

While the research by Decker and Rotondo suggested a role for gender in rating leader effectiveness and the analysis controlled for gender, there was no support for this contention. A lack of gender influence on leader effectiveness ratings does support the finding by Van Velsor et al. (1993) in a study of self-perception accuracy on leader effectiveness that gender had little influence on leader ratings. Van Velsor et al. proposed that the increase in female role confidence might be one contributing factor to underrating female performance.

Since it may be possible that the influence of job overload will be specific to certain economic sectors, examining this variable in relationship to those sectors of the economy may provide additional information for leaders in how to properly manage the broader concept of job demands that includes workload. Further, the precise influence path of perceived organizational support should be investigated to determine if this variable is more properly identified as a separate variable outside the direct influence of the employees' first line leader. It is possible that employees will view POS as separate and parallel factor influencing job satisfaction. Future research should include the examination of superior and subordinate perceptions of leader effectiveness in a single

study that would aid in resolving the differences in these perceptions found by Amundsen and Martinsen (2014), and this study.

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### About the Author

C. P. Weaver, Jr. is a retired United States Navy Fleet Master Chief and is currently a Principal Analyst at Sonalysts, Inc. He earned his bachelor's degree in Psychology from Eastern Connecticut State University in Willimantic, CT., and a master's degree in Government (Terrorism and Homeland Defense) from Regent University in Virginia Beach, VA. He is currently pursuing a Ph.D. in organizational leadership at Regent University's School of Business and Leadership.

Email: [carlwea@mail.regent.edu](mailto:carlwea@mail.regent.edu).

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