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Article

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Servant Leadership Relationship with Leader-Member Exchange: The Moderating Role of Motivation-to-Serve and Motivation-to-Lead

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Using 200 paired responses from managers/supervisors, and their subordinates working in three big organizations in Nigeria, this study validated the factor structure for servant leadership and combined the motivational and behavioral approaches in the servant leadership model to enhance the predictive power of servant leadership. Cross sectional survey design was used to acquire data. Principal component factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis both confirmed that 7-factor structure was adequate for servant leadership behavior. Hierarchical regression analysis justified the combination of the motivational and behavioral approaches, since more variance in leader-member exchange was explained, compared to when only one approach was used in a model. The implications of this study are: to be effective, high motivation-to-serve is associated with low motivation-to-lead. However, in an environment of low motivation-to-serve, the secondary motive, motivation-to-lead, did not improve the prediction of leader-member exchange. Servant leadership was found to be a universal construct and not limited to any culture.

Keywords: *Servant leadership, Motivation-to-serve, Motivation-to-lead, Leader-member exchange, Cross-cultural*

JEL: D23, J24

According to the resource-based view of the firm, leadership is a source of competitive advantage for the firm because of its influence on employee work behavior and eventual productivity of the firm (Ng, Koh and Goh, 2008; Liao, Toya and Hong, 2009; Chen, Zhu and Zhou, 2015). The assertion arises from the fact that leadership creates favorable work environment that enhances employees' performance and organizational productivity (Luthans, 2002; Macik-Frey, Quick and Cooper, 2009). Theorizing in leadership has led to the postulation of different leadership behaviors (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982; Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991;

Ames and Flynn, 2007). However, the ultimate aim was to understand how favorable environment can be created for employees to develop and make meaningful contributions to the productivity of an organization. Emphasis in leadership theory has recently shifted to the charismatic nature of the leader and value-based view of leadership (Smith, Montago and Kuzmenko, 2004; Ng *et al.*, 2008). Recently, servant leadership, which is borrowed from the concept advocated by Jesus Christ in the Holy Bible, has caught the attention of researchers. Servant leadership is a value-based leadership style whose primary goal is follower motivation, commitment and performance (Ng *et al.*, 2008). These goals are achieved through 'appealing to followers values, enhancing their self-efficacy

and linking their self-worth to the collective vision (Ng *et al.*, 2008:127). Servant leadership emphasizes the growth of the follower as a way to achieve organizational objectives.

Past empirical studies on servant leadership followed either the behavioral approach (Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006; Dennis and Winston, 2003; Ehrhart, 2004; Hale and Fields, 2007) or the motivational approach (Ng *et al.*, 2008). The motivational approach establishes relationship between motivation-to-serve and important work outcomes (Ng *et al.*, 2008), and the behavioral approach also establishes relationship between servant leadership and important work outcomes (Hale and Fields, 2007). The behavioral approach identifies specific behaviors enacted by servant leaders (Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006; Dennis and Winston, 2003; Ehrhart, 2004), while the motivation approach has individual difference construct, motivation-to-serve, as replacement for servant leader behaviors. Motivation-to-serve is defined as a conscious desire by the servant leader to serve first, and achieve results later.

The proponents of each approach argue the importance of one approach over the other. For example, Ng *et al.* (2008) state that the use of motivational approach eliminates the need to identify specific behaviors of the servant leader, thereby reducing the error associated with such identification process, while the behavioral approach supporters emphasize the higher predictive power of actual servant leadership behaviors (Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006; Dennis and Winston, 2003; Ehrhart, 2004). By emphasizing one approach over the other, the authors assumed and thus, created the

impression that the two approaches are mutually exclusive. The problem with the motivational approach is that motivation-to-serve is taken as an antecedent to servant leadership behavior, and also a replacement to actual behavior (Ng *et al.*, 2008). That a person has the propensity to behave in a certain way does not mean that actual behavior will occur. Thus, motivation-to-serve cannot be taken as a replacement for the actual servant leadership behavior.

There is a secondary driver for servant leadership, motivation-to-lead (Greenleaf, 1996), whose role was recognised in the conceptual model developed by Dierendonck (2011), but has never been factored into any of the approaches. Motivation-to-lead defines leader's desire where the primary motive is to assume leadership role, and this forms the basis for enacting leadership behaviors (Chan and Drasgow, 2001). Like all individual difference constructs, motivation-to-serve and motivation-to-lead can jointly play critical role in the relationship between servant leadership and important work outcomes. Dierendonck (2011: 1244) alluded to this in the conceptual model developed and stated that " ...both motivational aspects and the key characteristics indicate that in combination they form the core of servant leadership. A true understanding of the uniqueness of servant leadership starts with studying both aspects in their interrelatedness and impact" .

The second concern in the study of servant leadership is the cross-cultural issue raised by Dierendonck (2011), since most of the samples used by past studies were obtained from developed countries. Various authors have

identified many factor structures of the behaviors enacted by servant leaders (Liden, Liao and Meuser, 2014; Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2011; Barbuto and Wheeler, 2006). For instance, Hale and Fields (2007) found a global application of three dimensions of servant leadership behaviors when they used sample from USA and Ghana. However, the authors found that the level of perception of servant leadership in Ghana was lower than USA. Consequently, Dierendonck (2011) directed that future studies should explore how this differential perception will affect individual and work outcomes. There is also the need to explore other dimensions of servant leadership not included in the Hale and Fields (2007) study.

The current study has two major aims. The first aim is to validate the factor structure of servant leadership scale using sample from Nigeria. The second aim is to combine the behavioral and motivational approaches to the study of servant leadership by establishing two way moderating effect of motivation-to-serve and motivation-to-lead on servant leadership and leader-member exchange relationship. Following from the second aim, this study tests a three way interaction involving motivation-to-serve and motivation-to-lead so as to determine how they jointly contribute to the relationship between servant leadership and leader-member exchange. The motivation in conducting this research is to make valuable contribution to the cross-cultural relevance of servant leadership construct, and also to answer the question as to how servant leadership affects work outcomes (Stone, Russell

and Patterson, 2003; Russell, and Stone, 2002; Walumbwa, Hartnell and Oke, 2010).

LITERATURE REVIEW

-Servant Leadership and Leader-Member Exchange

Greenleaf (1970) describes servant leadership as having the sole aim to serve followers so as to enhance their performance in the workplace. Many years after the introduction of the concept, there is no agreement on a precise definition of the term (Dierendonck, 2011). According to Dierendonck (2011: 1232), “servant leaders empower and develop people; they show humility, are authentic, accept people for who they are, provide direction, and are stewards who work for the good of the whole”. Servant leaders overcome urge for gratification of self, and are motivated first by the desire to serve, and then by the desire to lead. Servant leadership construct has been established to be distinct from other value-based leadership styles (Dierendonck, 2011; Ng *et al.*, 2008). Empirical studies have also established, and validated eight dimensional structure for servant leadership construct (Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2011). The structure adopted in this study and is explained in Table 1 is taken from the work of Dierendonck and Nuijten (2001: 251).

Most of the samples used to validate the factorial structure of servant leadership were drawn from USA and other developed countries (see Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2011;

Dimensions	Meaning
Empowerment	Focused on enabling people and encouraging personal development
Accountability	Holding people accountable for performance they can control
Standing back	Gives priority to the interest of others first and gives support and credit
Humility	Ability to put ones accomplishment and talent in proper perspective
Authenticity	Expressing oneself in ways that are consistent with inner thought and feelings
Courage	Takes risks and try new approaches to old problems
Interpersonal Acceptance	Ability to understand and experience the feelings of others
Stewardship	Ability to take responsibility for larger institution

Table 1: Dimensions of Servant Leadership

Liden *et al.*, 2014; Chen *et al.*, 2015). However, Hale and Fields (2007), utilized sample from USA and Ghana, but discovered that the level of perception of servant leadership in Ghana was lower than in USA. There was no thorough validation of the factor structure of servant leadership using the Ghana sample; hence there is the need to carry out a validation in this study using sample from Nigeria, a country similar to Ghana. Servant leadership has been found to correlate positively with work engagement, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, self-assessed performance (Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2011), service quality and customer focused citizenship behavior (Liden *et al.*, 2014; Chen *et al.*, 2015).

The modern business environment can best be described as unstable, unpredictable, and highly competitive (Graen, 1976). It is characterized my mergers and acquisitions, and success is based on knowledge, skills, and also on the level and quality of networks built within and outside the organization.

Leader-member exchange, defined as the relationship developed between leaders and their followers is thus, vital in the success of organizational members. Leaders categorize their followers as either in-group or out-group members, and thus, develop different forms of relationship with each group. Relationship with the out-group is transactional in nature, and based exclusively on the terms of the contract of employment, while that of the in-group is based on quality relationship defined as leader-member exchange. In this relationship, participants contribute various resources to maintain the quality of the relationship. The basis for the formation and maintenance of quality leader-member exchange is the social exchange theory and norms of reciprocity (Blau, 1964; Gouldner, 1960). When an organizational participant receives valuable resources from another participant, the norm of reciprocity demands that the receiver of the valuable resources must offer other resources to the giver. For example, if a servant leader using his

humanistic behavior provides support, empowerment, opportunity for personal development and work environment required by followers, then the followers benefiting from these valued resources will reciprocate by way of developing quality relationship with the servant leader. Only one study (Ng *et al.*, 2008), found a positive relationship between servant leadership and leader-member exchange. However, Top *et al.* (2015) found a positive relationship between servant leadership and subordinate reaction to leadership style. Based on postulation of social exchange theory, the law of reciprocity, and the results from past studies, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₁: Servant leadership positively predicts leader-member exchange.

-Motivation-to-Serve and Motivation-to-Lead

The role of motivation-to-serve and motivation-to-lead in the servant leadership relationship can be explained by the modified form of the cognitive dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957) i.e. social consistency theory (Aronson, 1969). Cognitive dissonance theory assumes that individuals strive for consistency, and so they have beliefs, motives and attitudes that are consistent with each other, and also consistent with their behavior. Inconsistencies will arise if an individual holds two beliefs, motives or attitudes that are not consistent with each other (Festinger, 1957). Also dissonance will occur if individuals behave in a way that is not consistent with their beliefs, motives and attitude. According

to Festinger (1962), when people experience dissonance they resolve the inconsistency by any of the following ways: changing behavior, justifying behavior or ignoring or denying any information about the conflict. Using various experimental procedures, it has been established that people actually experienced stress when they hold conflicting views and behaviors. In order to improve on the predictability of this theory, various modifications have been proposed by psychologists. The social consistency theory by Aronson (1969), is the most accurate that can explain the relationship between motivation-to-serve/motivation-to-lead and servant leadership behaviors. Social consistency theory postulates that dissonance can best be explained if the issue of self-concept is considered. It further stipulates that dissonance will occur when a person's view of self is not consistent with the external behavior exhibited by the person (Aronson, 1969, 1992, 1997). For example, Aronson (1969: 28) states that "if a person sees of himself a schnook, un-schnook behavior arouses dissonance". Resolution of the dissonance is achieved through self-justification, and thus, the individual is able to "maintain a self-concept that is stable, predictable, competent and morally right" (Metin and Camgoz, 2011:134). This modification improved the predictive capacity of the cognitive dissonance theory by emphasizing self-concept.

Motivation-to-serve is an "individual difference construct that describes a leader's

inclination or willingness to promote the interest of his or her subordinates” (Ng *et al.*, 2008: 128). This study subscribes to the notion of motivation-to-serve being a motivational state, and so must have direction, intensity and persistence as stated by Kanfer (1990). Hence, leaders’ motivation-to-serve will determine the level of support and commitment given to subordinates. Motivation-to-serve can be developed through leadership activities, but also has inter-individual differences due to difference in personality (Ng *et al.*, 2008). Servant leadership begins with a natural desire to serve first, and then by choice the individual will aspire to lead (Greenleaf, 1970). The importance of motivation-to-serve in servant leadership is well explained as defined by Greenleaf (1996: 33), “...A new kind of leadership model– a model which puts serving others as a number one priority. Servant-leadership emphasizes increased service to others; a holistic approach to work; promoting a sense of community; and the sharing of power in decision making”. Because the primary desire of the servant leader is to serve, motivation-to-serve becomes a construct that defines self as far as the servant leadership is concerned. According to the social consistency theory, behaviors exhibited by the servant leader must be consistent with this self-concept to avoid dissonance. Thus, the greater the desire to be a servant leader, the greater is the servant leadership behaviors enacted.

When considering motivation-to-lead, it becomes necessary to note that motivation-to-lead is a secondary motive of servant leadership. According to my knowledge, no study has ever determined the right combination of motivation-to-serve and motivation-to-lead. However, since it is a secondary motive, there must be a level of motivation-to-lead that will be appropriate for high level of motivation-to-serve. When this level is attained, motivation-to-lead will moderate the relationship between servant leadership and leader-member exchange. Furthermore, a three way interaction involving servant leadership, motivation-to-serve and motivation-to-lead will properly demonstrate how motivation-to-serve combines with motivation-to-lead in enhancing the relationship between servant leadership and leader-member exchange.

No study has ever tested the moderating role of motivation-to-serve and motivation-to-lead, according to my knowledge. However, based on the postulations of the cognitive dissonance theory, and its modification, social consistency theory, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H₂: Motivation-to-serve will moderate the relationship between Servant leadership and leader-member exchange, such that the strength of the positive relationship will become higher for high motivation-to-serve

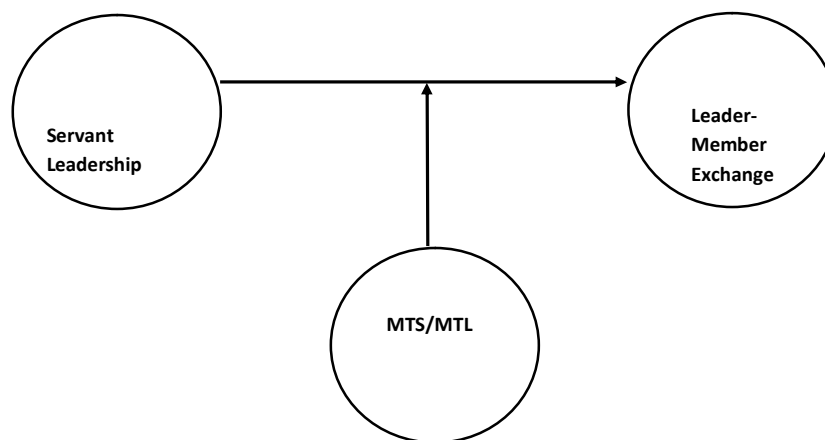
H₃: Motivation-to-lead will moderate the relationship between Servant leadership

and leader-member exchange such that the strength of the positive relationship will become higher.

H₄: Motivation-to-serve and motivation-to-lead will jointly moderate the relationship between Servant leadership and leader-member exchange such that the strength of the positive relationship will become higher.

The model tested is shown in Figure 1.

to such subordinate. The supervisors/managers completed the questionnaire containing the motivation-to-lead and motivation-to-serve variables. The subordinates completed questionnaire containing the leader-member exchange and servant leadership. None of the supervisors/managers knew who in their group filled out the questionnaire. Confidentiality was assured because the questionnaires were



Note: MTS=Motivation-to-Serve; MTL=Motivation-to-Lead

Figure 1. Model of Relationship between Servant Leadership and Leader-Member Exchange

METHODOLOGY

–Sample and Procedure

Participants were drawn from employees of an oil company, a bank and a manufacturing company all based in Lagos, Nigeria. These organizations provided the list of their supervisors and managers, from which 500 (60 percent of the managers in each organization) were selected and questionnaire were directly sent to them. The organizations provided list of the employees under each manager. From the list, a subordinate was randomly chosen and questionnaire was sent

returned in sealed envelopes to the researcher. Two email reminders were sent out to the participants of the study. 250 managers/supervisors filled out the questionnaire, while 210 subordinates filled out the questionnaires. Only 200 pairs were obtained from what was filled out (40%). Thus, the study was based on only 200 questionnaires filled by leaders and their subordinates. The demographics for the managers and subordinates are contained in Table 2.

–Measures

Demographics	Managers	Subordinates
Gender:		
Male	110 (55%)	122 (60%)
Female	90 (45%)	78 (40%)
Age:		
Under 30 Years	12(6%)	36 (18%)
31-40 Years	50 (25%)	52 (26%)
41-50 Years	48 (24%)	88 (44%)
51-60 Years	86 (43%)	24(12%)
Above 60 Years	4(2%)	0

Table 2: Participants' Demographics (n=200)

All the measures used 5-point Likert-type scale (1=*strongly disagree*) to 5 =*strongly agree*). Leader-member exchange and servant leadership were obtained from the subordinates, while motivation-to-lead and motivation-to-serve were obtained from the supervisors/ managers. The reliabilities of the measures were ascertained using Cronbach' s Alpha (Cronbach, 1951). The acceptable limit for Alpha is minimum of .70 (Nunnally, 1978; Frone, Russell and Cooper, 1992). The reliabilities for all the measures as indicated below are acceptable.

Leader-Member Exchange. This was a measure adopted from the work of Liden and Maslyn (1998). It contained eleven items that captured the four dimensions of leader-member exchange. Example items for affect, loyalty, contribution and professional respect dimensions are " I like my supervisor personally as a person," " My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior even without complete knowledge of the issue in question," " I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description," " I am impressed with my supervisor' s knowledge of his/her job" respectively. Liden and Maslyn (1998)

obtained alpha of .90, .78, .60, and .92 for affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect respectively. This study obtained alpha of .83, .75, .83, and .81 respectively.

Servant Leadership. Adopted from the work of Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011), the scale contained 29 items which measured the eight dimensions of servant leadership listed in Table 1. Example items from the measure are " My manager gives me the information I need to do my work well," " My manager keeps himself/herself in the background and gives credits to others," " I am held accountable for my performance by my manager," " My manager keeps criticizing people for the mistakes they have made in their work," " My manager takes risks even when he/she is not certain of the support from his/her own manager," " My manager is open about his/her limitations and weaknesses," " My manager learns from criticism," " My manager emphasizes the importance of focusing on the good of the whole," for empowerment, accountability, standing back, humility, authenticity, courage, interpersonal acceptance, and stewardship respectively. The original alpha for the dimensions were .89, .81, .76, .91, .82, .69, .72, and .74

respectively. The alpha obtained in this study are .71, .86, .70, .65, .75, .82, .78, and .74 respectively.

Motivation-to-Lead. This was adopted from Chan and Drasgow (2001) 26 items scale that measured the three dimensions of the variable. Example items for affective-identity, non-calculative, and social normative dimensions are “Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group,” “I have the tendency to take charge in most groups or teams that I work in,” “I agree to lead whenever I am asked or nominated by the other members” respectively. The original alpha obtained were .87, .80, and .65 respectively. The alpha for this study are .75, .88, and .82 respectively.

Motivation-to-Serve. This was adopted from Ng *et al.* (2008) that contains 6 items in one dimensional construct. Example items are “I am the type of leader who is inclined to promote the career interest of my subordinates”, and “I am the type of leader who is passionate about transforming the lives of my subordinates”. The original alpha reported was .87, while the current study obtained alpha of .82.

-Analyses

Series of analyses were conducted as follows: The items for servant leadership, motivation-to-serve, motivation-to-lead and leader-member exchange were subjected to unrotated principal component factor analysis. This was to confirm the level of common method variance in the entire data. The items that measured servant leadership were

subjected to both unrotated and rotated principal component factor analyses. A confirmatory factor analysis on the items that measured servant leadership was also carried out. Confirmatory factor analysis utilized the Analyses of moments of structure (AMOS) software with maximum likelihood estimation procedure. Model fit was determined using the criteria suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999), and the indices used are comparative fit index (CFI), goodness of fit index (GFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). For a well fitted model, the CFI and GFI were expected to be greater than .9 (Hu and Bentler, 1999), while the value for RMSEA was expected to be less than .08 (Bentler, and Dudgeon, 1996; MacCallum, Browne and Sugawara, 1996).

Hypotheses 1 – 4 were tested using hierarchical regression analysis. Hierarchical regression model contained the control variables of gender and age in step 1, servant leadership (SL) in step 2, motivation-to-lead (MTL) and motivation-to-serve (MTS) in step 3, the two-way interaction variables in step 4, and the three-way interaction in step 5. The items that measured each study variable were aggregated to form a single value for the construct (Nunnally, 1978). Also the composite Cronbach Alpha was high for each study variable.

Prior to calculating the product of the moderating variables, the values for servant leadership, motivation-to-lead and motivation-to-serve were centralized around their respective means to avoid

multicollinearity (Aiken and West, 1991). Interpretation of the three way interaction followed the procedure recommended by Aiken and West (1991). The entire sample was divided into two categories, high motivation-to-serve (mean+1 standard deviation) and low motivation-to-serve (mean-1 standard deviation). Each category was further segregated into low motivation-to-lead (mean-1 standard deviation), and high motivation-to-lead (mean+1 standard deviation), and regression carried out for each category to determine the relationship between servant leadership and leader-member exchange.

RESULTS

Validation of the Factor Structure for Servant Leadership

The unrotated principal component factor analysis on the items that measured servant leadership extracted a total of 8 factors. The first factor extracted only 23 percent of the variance in the items compared to 47 percent extracted by the other seven factors. Rotated principal component factor analysis indicated an initial 8-factor structure for servant leadership. However, the items for humility loaded on other factors, and two items in the empowerment factor loaded separately as a factor. A second rotated principal component factor analysis was done removing the items that did not load properly. The analysis extracted 7 factors and the variance extracted was 75 percent. The extracted factors and their item loadings are shown in Table 3 (See Appendix-I).

The confirmatory factor analysis for servant leadership for 7-factor structure obtained in the rotated factor analyses, had the following fit indices; GFI=.92, CFI=.94, RMSEA=.057, Chi-square= 200.11, $df=146$ and $p=.002$. These are acceptable fit indices (Bentler and Dudgeon, 1996; MacCallum, Browne and Sugawara, 1996; Hu and Bentler, 1999). Analyses showed that the correlation between empowerment factor and stewardship factor was .60. Hence, a 6-factor model that combined empowerment and stewardship factors was tested. The fit indices for this model were, GFI=.83, CFI=.89, RMSEA=.090, Chi-square=243.910, $df=152$ and $p=.003$. Thus, the fit indices indicated that a 7-factor model fits the items in servant leadership. The loadings for the accepted 7-factor structure for servant leadership are shown in Table 4 (See Appendix-II), while the correlations of the 7-factors are shown in Table 5 (See Appendix-III).

Unrotated principal component factor analyses for all the items in the four study variables measured was done to determine the level of common method variance in the data acquired. The analysis extracted 13 factors. The first factor extracted only 21 percent of the variance in the data, compared to 56 percent extracted by the rest of the factors. This shows that common method variance was not an issue in this study (Koufteros, Vonderembse and Doll, 2002). The correlation between servant leadership and leader-member exchange is .45, and is significant. The correlation between servant leadership

and motivation-to-serve is .41 and is significant. These results and the means and standard deviation of the study variables are shown in Table 6.

$\beta = .14$, $p > .05$) and motivation-to-lead*servant leadership ($\beta = -.11$, $p > .05$) did not predict leader-member exchange. Thus hypotheses 2 and 3 were not supported. However, the

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Gender	-	-						
2. Age	-	-	-.13					
3. Servant Leadership	3.70	.40	.03	-.19*	(.78)			
4. Motivation-to-serve	3.99	.59	.15	.09	.41**	(.82)		
5. Motivation-to-lead	3.03	.48	.01	.22*	.45**	-.13	(.79)	
6. Leader-member exchange	3.97	.49	.06	-.06	.45**	.64**	.12	(.86)

Note: Composite coefficient alpha appear across the diagonal in parentheses.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 6: Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of Study Variables (n=200)

Hierarchical regression analyses indicated that servant leadership predicted leader-member

three-way interaction term predicted leader-member exchange ($\beta = .70$, $p < .05$). Thus,

Predictors	Leader-member exchange		
	<i>B</i>	<i>R</i> ²	ΔR^2
Moderator analysis			
Step 1			
Control Variables ^a		.02	
Step 2			
Servant Leadership	.60***	.37	.34***
Step 3			
Motivation-to-serve	.46***		
Motivation-to-lead	.02	.55	.14***
Step 4			
Motivation-to-serve*Servant Leadership	.14		
Motivation-to-lead*Servant Leadership	-.11	.52	.01
Step 5			
Motivation-to-serve*Motivation-to-lead* Servant Leadership	.70*	.55	.02*

N=200; ^a Control variable (Gender, Age)

* $p < .05$

*** $p < .001$

Table 7 : Results of Moderator Regression Analysis for Leader-Member Exchange as a Function of Servant Leadership, Motivation-to-Serve and Motivation-to-Lead

exchange ($\beta = .60$, $p < .001$), thus hypothesis 1 was supported. The interaction terms motivation-to-serve*servant leadership (β

hypothesis 4 was supported. Motivation-to-serve predicted leader-member exchange ($\beta = .46$, $p < .001$). Servant leadership accounted

for extra variance in leader-member exchange even after motivation-to-serve was controlled for. Servant leadership, motivation-to-serve and three-way interaction term explained 35 percent, 14 percent, and 2.8 percent variance in leader-member exchange respectively. The total variance in leader-member exchange explained by the model was 55 percent. The results for the regression analyses are shown in Tables 7, 8 and 9.

moderates the relationship between servant leader and leader-member exchange. When motivation-to-serve is low (see Table 9), none of the regression analyses were significant.

DISCUSSION

The use of supervisors/managers and subordinates to obtain data on the variables improved the methodology of the study. Supervisors/managers who are in better position to explain their motive for leadership

	Constant	β	Sig.
Low Motivation-to-lead Sample	3.04	.15	.01
High Motivation-to-lead Sample	3.00	.11	.18

Table 8 : High Motivation-to-Serve Category (Mean+1 Standard Deviation)

	Constant	β	Sig.
Low Motivation-to-lead Sample	2.08	.3	.22
High Motivation-to-lead Sample	3.03	.26	.34

Table 9 : Low Motivation-to-Serve Category (Mean-1 Standard Deviation)

The graph for the significant three-way interaction is shown in Figure 2. When motivation-to-serve is high (see Table 8), only

provided data for motivation-to-serve and motivation-to-lead, while subordinates who are recipients of the servant leadership and

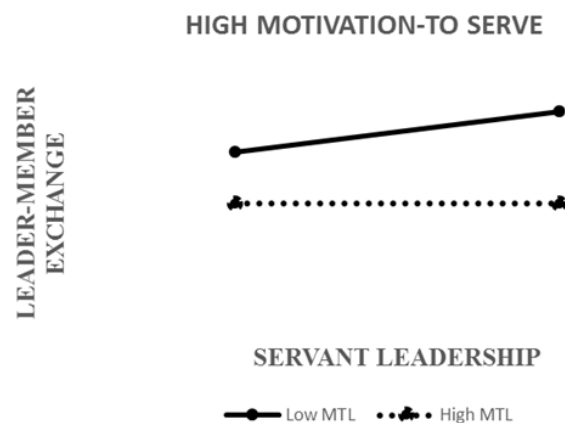


Figure 2: Regression Analyses for Low and High Motivation-to-Lead

the regression for low motivation-to-lead was significant. Thus, in environment of high motivation-to-serve, low motivation-to-lead

leader-member exchange behaviors provided data for the two constructs. In this way common method variance was reduced. The

results of the unrotated principal factor analysis for all the study variables indicate that common method variance was not an issue in this study (Koufteros *et al.*, 2002).

Servant leadership study in Africa has been very scanty. The study in Ghana (Hale, and Fields, 2007) did not indicate much by way of validating the factor structure of servant leadership with sample from other locations in the world. The current study tested an 8-factor model instead of the 3-factor model tested by Hale and Fields (2007). Rotated principal factor analysis extracted only 7 factors in the servant leadership measure. The factors extracted are empowerment, accountability, standing back, authenticity, courage, interpersonal acceptance and stewardship. The humility factor was not part of those extracted. The 7 factors accounted for 75% of the variance of servant leadership. Confirmatory factor analysis carried using Analyses of Moments of Structure software confirmed 7 factor structure. This result differs from the work of Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011) which extracted 8 factors. The factor structure obtained in this study may be an indication that the sample used did not perceive humility as an aspect of leadership behavior they expect from their leaders. The study did not measure power distance, however, it can be postulated that in a high power distance culture, leader being humble may likely be interpreted as weakness, since in such culture people actually accept the power inequality in the system, and expect their

leaders to act accordingly (Hofstede, 2001). Nigeria is a high power distance country.

The mean of servant leadership obtained in this study is 3.70 in a scale of 1–5 (see Table 6). This is higher than the mean value of 3.12 obtained for Ghana sample (Hale and Fields, 2007). Thus, there is higher enactment of the servant leadership in the sample used for the current study. The result should be carefully handled since the sample is from private sector organizations. There may be significant difference in the level of servant leadership if sample is taken from a public sector organization. The average for motivation-to-serve is 3.99 compared to the mean of 3.70 obtained for servant leadership (see Table 6). This means that managers/supervisors perceive themselves as having high motivation-to-serve, which is not necessarily translated to full enactment of servant leadership behavior. The reason might be that managers/supervisors view themselves more positive than they are viewed by their subordinates.

Servant leadership and motivation-to-serve independently predicted leader-member exchange. Thus, hypothesis 1 is proved. This result agrees with those of Ng *et al.* (2008) and Top *et al.* (2015). The relationship between motivation-to-serve and leader-member exchange was not hypothesized. The results obtained for servant leadership and motivation-to-serve are indications that the behavioral and motivational approaches jointly provide better prediction for leader-member exchange. The fact that servant leadership

predicted additional variance after motivation-to-serve was included in the model, indicates that using motivation-to-serve as replacement for servant leadership is also not the best way to predict leader-member exchange. Motivation-to-serve is a distal predictor of leader-member exchange, while servant leadership is a more important proximal predictor of leader-member exchange. By combining the motivational and behavioral approach in a model, the study has made valuable contribution in clarifying the relationships among motivation-to-serve, servant leadership and leader-member exchange.

The study had predicted that based on the dissonance consistency theory, motivation-to-serve and motivation-to-lead will moderate the relationship between servant leadership and leader-member exchange. The hypothesized moderation effects were not significant, hence hypotheses 2 and 3 are not proved. The failure to obtain significant independent moderation for motivation-to-serve and motivation-to-lead is not a failure of the stipulated theory. The significance of the result of the three-way interaction confirms the applicability of the theory, and shows that hypothesis 4 is proved. This result means that the joint interaction of the primary and secondary motives for enacting servant leadership behavior is a better moderator of the relationship between servant leadership and leader-member exchange. Motivation-to-lead is indeed a secondary motivation factor, since its value did not compensate for low

values of the primary factor, motivation-to-serve. For servant leadership to be effective in predicting leader-member exchange, motivation-to-serve must be high. This assertion makes sense since motivation-to-serve is what distinguishes servant leadership from other forms of charismatic leadership styles. The result of the three-way interaction shows that in an environment of low motivation-to-serve, no amount of motivation-to-lead can compensate for the deficiency of the primary motive, motivation-to-serve. The negative correlation obtained for motivation-to-serve and motivation-to-lead (though not significant) supports this assertion (see Table 6). The result of the three-way interaction also confirms that motivation-to-lead is a significant variable in a model of servant leadership. This is the first study to indicate that motivation-to-serve and motivation-to-lead jointly moderate the relationship between servant leadership and leader-member exchange.

CONCLUSION

This study made valuable contributions in the expansion of servant leadership research in an African environment. The successful validation of a 7-factor structure for servant leadership using sample from another location in the world, is an addition to knowledge in the understanding of servant leadership construct across cultures. By the results obtained, it can be conclusively stated that the concept of servant leadership has meaning in the developing world. What is required is to further confirm the 7-factor structure developed in

this study. The study also helped to clarify the need to use the motivational and behavioral approaches jointly in any model involving servant leadership and leader-member exchange. The result that motivation-to-serve and servant leadership made significant and independent contribution to the variance in leader-member exchange, further clarifies the pathway between servant leadership and leader-member exchange.

Another contribution is the use of cognitive dissonance theory and social consistency theory in explaining the moderating role of motivation-to-serve and motivation-to-lead in the relationship involving servant leadership and leader-member exchange. The variance in leader-member exchange would have been under-estimated if the three-way interaction was omitted. The three-way interaction also revealed that servant leadership makes valuable contribution to the variance in leader-member exchange only in situations where leaders have high motivation-to-serve and low motivation-to-lead. This confirms that indeed the primary motive for the servant leader is to serve subordinates so as to make them willing and interested in adding to organizational productivity by improving their productivity. Motivation-to-lead is not a differentiating factor, and is not expected to be high. The study makes contribution in the definition of the path ways through which servant leadership behaviors affect leader-member exchange.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

A limitation of the current study is that the study is based on cross-sectional data gathering and thus, causality cannot be inferred. In using this data gathering methodology, common method variance cannot be completely eliminated. However, the use of subordinates and managers to gather different data minimized the effects of common method variance. Secondly, the unrotated principal factor analysis showed that common method variance was minimal. The sample used for the study was obtained from a private sector establishment. The work culture and ethics in the public sector is different from that of the private sector. Thus, generalizing the result to public section establishment should be cautiously made.

Future studies should consider including more variables in the model so as to better understand how servant leadership affects individual work outcomes and work attitudes. Thus, future studies should consider including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement, and organizational citizenship behavior in the same model. To test such model, the use of structural equation modeling techniques should be explored.

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Appendix-I

Item	Factor 1 Empowerment	Factor 2 Account.	Factor 3 Inter. Acceptance	Factor 4 Standing Back	Factor 5 Stewardship	Factor 6 Courage	Factor 7 Authenticity
	.81						
	.80						
	.59						
	.70						
		.89					
		.86					
		.80					
			.80				
			.87				
			.73				
				.82			
				.75			
				.68			
					.74		
					.75		
					.69		
						.82	
						.86	
							.84
							.88
Var.	12.93%	12.87%	11.0%	10.56%	10.05%	8.91%	8.69%
Que.	4	3	3	3	3	2	2

Note: Que=Questions that loaded appropriately on the dimension

Table 3: Rotated Principal Factor Analysis Item Loadings

Factor 1 Empowerment	Factor 2 Accountability	Factor 3 Interpersonal acceptance	Factor 4 Standing Back	Factor 5 Stewardship	Factor 6 Courage	Factor 7 Authenticity
.72						
.65						
.66						
.88						
	.76					
	.85					
	.92					
		.66				
		.92				
		.62				
			.74			
			.67			
			.59			
				.75		
				.60		
				.78		
					.86	
					.81	
						.86
						.70

Note: Questions that loaded appropriately on the dimension

Table 4: Confirmatory Factor Analyses Item Loadings

Appendix–III

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Empowerment						
2. Stewardship	.60***					
3. Standing back	.56***	.49***				
4. Forgiveness	.33**	.21*	.20*			
5. Accountability	.47***	.47***	.27**	.28**		
6. Courage	.32**	.37**	.12	.24*	.23*	
7. Authenticity	.20*	.29*	.18*	.28**	.15	.46***

* $p < .05$
 ** $p < .01$
 *** $p < .001$

Table 5: Correlations of Extracted Factors