



Servant Leadership and Organizational Citizenship in Rwanda: A Moderated Mediation Model

Timothy A. Brubaker, Mission pour la Nouvelle Créature

Mihai C. Bocarnea, Regent University

Kathleen Patterson, Regent University

Bruce E. Winston, Regent University

Abstract

The present study proposed and tested a moderated mediation model of the effects of servant leadership on two types of organizational citizenship behaviors (altruism and courtesy). Proposed relationships between study variables are explained on the basis of two theoretical trajectories: social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) and reciprocity/clientelism (Gouldner, 1960; Landé, 1977). The sample for this study was 194 adult Rwandans working in non-government settings. Analysis showed adequate support for the full mediation effects of perceived leader effectiveness on the relationship between servant leadership and both forms of organizational citizenship. However, concerning the moderating effects of exchange ideology in the mediation models, exchange ideology only moderates the mediation model with respect to courtesy and not altruism. The study ends with a discussion of theoretical and practical implications along with suggestions for future research. This study makes a unique contribution to understanding the nature of leader-follower relationships among non-government organizations in Rwanda and is helpful for generally advancing the study of leadership in Africa.

Keywords: Servant Leadership, Organizational Citizenship, Moderated Mediation Model, Regression

Although Western theories form the conceptual framework for much of the writing and teaching on leadership in Africa (Jackson, 2004), empirical literature demonstrates distinct differences in organizational dynamics and management principles that must be further explored, such as attitudes, assumptions, motivations, and satisfactions underlying leader-subordinate relationships (Jones, 1988). To add to the complexity, theorists and researchers alike have long wrestled with the roles of industrialization and development in the evolution of leadership styles (Harbison & Myers, 1959). However, Hofstede (2001) explains that although modernization leads to some societal similarities, it “does not wipe out variety” (p. 34). Thus, comparative global studies of cultural variation and its effects within organizations (e.g. Hofstede, 1980; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) emphasize the stability and uniqueness of cultures as well as the importance of considering national culture when attempting to understand how people organize themselves (Hofstede, 1997).

Servant leadership theory has been promoted as a universally endorsed leadership construct similar to the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) study’s (House, et al., 2004) humane orientation dimension of culture (Winston & Ryan, 2008). Empirical studies have confirmed the acceptability of servant leadership in relationship to positive organizational outcomes in cultures across the globe, including China (e.g. Ding, Lu, Song, & Lu, 2012), Turkey (Öner, 2012), Iran (Bardeh & Shimei, 2011), India (Mehta & Pillay, 2011), South Africa (Chatbury, Beaty, & Kriek, 2011), Indonesia (Pekerti & Sendjaya, 2010), and Bulgaria (Bocarnea & Dimitrova, 2010). Servant leadership theory is a relevant subject for further study in Africa and has the potential for reconceptualizing the process of selection and preparation of leaders (Agulanna, 2006). Brubaker (2013) demonstrated a strong correlation between servant leadership behaviors and perceived leader effectiveness in Rwanda. By showing the similar effects of servant leadership behaviors and behaviors consistent with the African philosophy of *ubuntu* on leader effectiveness, Brubaker has shown that “interconnectedness of self within society and the extension of humanness within shared community” (pp. 96-97) helps to account for the relevance and acceptability of servant leadership within Rwanda.

This current study contributes to the developing body of knowledge on servant leadership in three significant ways: first, this study explores the extent to which perceived leader effectiveness mediates the effect of servant leadership on Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter’s (1990) concept of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB). Second, this study examines the extent to which the mediating effect of perceived leader effectiveness depends upon Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa’s (1986) concept of exchange ideology. Exchange ideology refers to individual expectations of the extent to which reciprocity is necessary and important for repaying others for their positive behaviors (Scott & Colquitt, 2007). The effect of a moderator in a mediation model is what Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007) call a conditional indirect effect, which is defined as “the magnitude of an indirect effect at a particular value of a moderator” (p. 186). Accordingly, this study analyzes the conditional indirect effect of servant leadership on OCB (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). The hypothesized moderating

effects of exchange ideology are cast within the theoretical framework of clientelism, which refers to vertical quid pro quo dyadic alliance-building that exists between individuals of unequal status for the purpose of ensuring that one's needs are met (Landé, 1977). Patron-client exchanges are a unique form of motivation, particularly within developing societies, as the norm of reciprocity has the long-term effect of curtailing risk and ensuring security (Hicken, 2011). Third, this study provides a unique contribution to organizational research by focusing on leader-follower dynamics in Rwanda.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

This study presents and analyzes a moderated-mediation model that incorporates servant leadership (independent variable), organizational citizenship (dependent variable), perceptions of leader effectiveness (mediating variable), and exchange ideology (moderating variable). Building on previous research, this study responds to the following research question: Does an individual's exchange ideology moderate the indirect effect of perceived leader effectiveness on the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior? The model for the proposed relationships between study variables is presented in Figure 1, and the hypotheses are:

Hypothesis 1. Perceived leader effectiveness mediates the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior.

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), mediation is established by testing three relationships: (a) the independent variable must predict the mediator variable; (b) the mediator variable must predict the dependent variable; and (c) the independent variable must predict the dependent variable. Additionally, organizational citizenship, which refers to an employee's discretionary behaviors that are beneficial to an organization (Organ, 1988), covers a broad range of employee behaviors that focus on both the organization in general and other individuals within the organization in particular (Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). The present study is concerned with citizenship behaviors that are directed at individuals within the organization. These behaviors are conceptualized using two subscales, which represent altruistic citizenship behaviors and courteous citizenship behaviors. According to Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, and Bachrach (2000), altruism refers to behaviors that help coworkers with work-related problems, whereas courtesy refers to "foresightful [sic] gestures that help someone else prevent a problem" (p. 518). Therefore, the testing of Hypothesis 1 involves testing five sub-hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a. Follower perceptions of servant leadership positively predict perceived leader effectiveness.

Hypothesis 1b. Perceived leader effectiveness positively predicts altruistic organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 1c. Follower perceptions of servant leadership positively predict altruistic organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 1d. Perceived leader effectiveness positively predicts courteous organizational citizenship behavior

Hypothesis 1e. Follower perceptions of servant leadership positively predict courteous organizational citizenship behavior:

The second hypothesis establishes the moderating effects of exchange ideology on the indirect effects of perceived leader effectiveness in the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior:

Hypothesis 2. Exchange ideology moderates the strength of the mediated relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior.

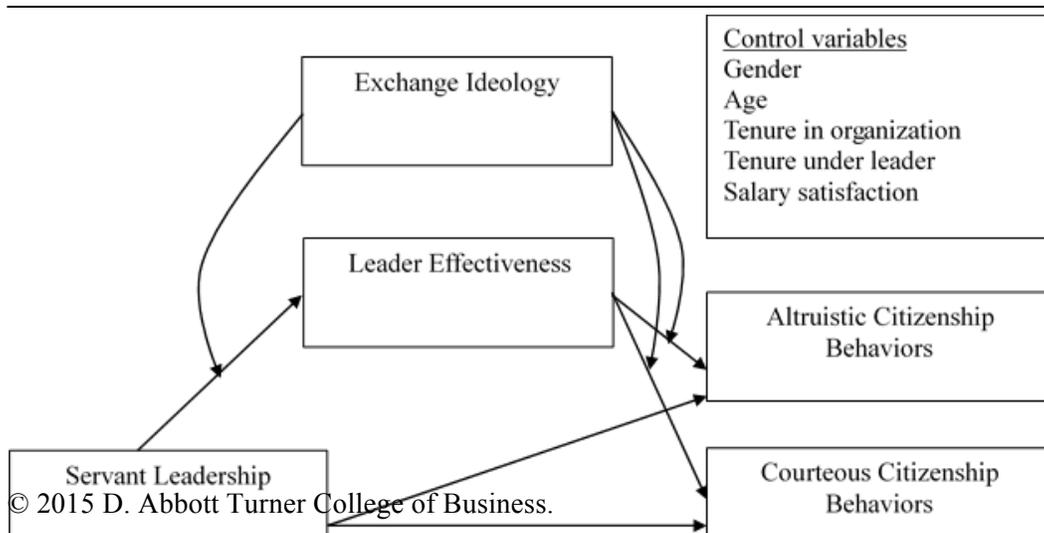
According to Muller, Judd, and Yzerbyt (2005), testing a moderated mediation model necessitates examining the effects of the moderator on two relationships: (a) the relationship between the independent variable and the mediating variable; and (b) the relationship between the mediating variable and the dependent variable. According to Edwards and Lambert (2007), this is a moderated mediation model that examines first- and second-stage indirect effects. Muller, et al. explain that if the moderator affects either of these relationships (or both), then moderated mediation is established within the model. Therefore, in light of the two outcome variables incorporated in this study, testing Hypothesis 2 involves testing three sub-hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2a. Exchange ideology moderates the relationship between servant leadership and perceived leader effectiveness such that perceptions of leader effectiveness increase as exchange ideology increases.

Hypothesis 2b. Exchange ideology moderates the relationship between perceived leader effectiveness and altruistic organizational citizenship behaviors such that altruistic organizational citizenship behaviors increase as exchange ideology increases.

Hypothesis 2c. Exchange ideology moderates the relationship between perceived leader effectiveness and courteous organizational citizenship behaviors such that courteous organizational citizenship behaviors increase as exchange ideology increases.

Figure 1. Model of Study Variables.



CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework for the present study is rooted in two theoretical trajectories: social learning theory and clientelism. First, social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) provides the framework for the basic supposition that positively perceived leadership behaviors result in positive follower behaviors. Social learning theory (also called social cognitive theory) posits that learning is governed by four processes: (a) attention to the important aspects of behavior that is being modeled; (b) retention or memory of the modeled behavior; (c) production and attempt to match the modeled behavior; and (d) motivation to persist in the modeled behavior increases when the learner perceives that the behavior is tied to positive outcomes (Gibson, 2004). Thus, with respect to the model incorporated in this study, the positive perceptions of the follower-focused behaviors of servant leadership are expected to correlate significantly with extra-role behaviors, as has already been shown by Hunter, et al. (2013), Walumbwa, Hartnell, and Oke (2010), and Vondey (2010).

Bandura (2002) notes the significance of culture (as a context, not necessarily as a level of analysis) in understanding the environmental forces at work in determining behavior. Bandura explains that although there is commonality across cultures in the processes of learning, the diversity of language, customs, and practices results in complex and subtle differences in the behavior that is learned and reproduced. Yet, Bandura opines that the subtlety of these differences is largely oversimplified in cross-cultural research. Bandura writes, “Modeling is a universalized human capacity but how it is used varies in different cultural milieus” (p. 273). Herein is the rationale within the present study for pursuing better understanding of how exchange ideology, as a facet of the culturally important concept of clientelism, impacts the indirect effects of perceived leader effectiveness on the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship.

The literature on patron-client relationships (also called clientelism; Hicken, 2011) makes a significant theoretical contribution to the hypothesized moderating role of exchange ideology. As is demonstrated within more recent publications on clientelism (e.g., Hicken, 2011; Muno, 2010), Landé’s (1977) classic work is integral to theorizing the nature of patron-client relationships. Additionally, the conceptual centrality of Gouldner’s (1960) theory of reciprocity to both Landé’s work and to the organizational construct of exchange ideology (Eisenberger, et al., 1986) justifies the relevance of Landé’s older work.

According to Landé (1977), the vertical relationships that characterize patron-client systems are established upon the premise that both patron and client have needs that are satisfied by the quid pro quo nature of dyadic alliance-building. Although the obligations are to each other for the pursuit of one’s own interests and goals, Landé notes that reciprocity is a significant and powerful norm that ensures that “unrepaid favors will be returned” (p. xvii). Accordingly, un-repaid debt within patron-client relationships becomes a powerful motivating influence for ensuring reliability and response in the time of need. The strength of patron-client exchanges is very influential within developing

societies where such relationships are significant for curtailing risk and ensuring security (Hicken, 2011). However, as needs are met through formalization (e.g. contracts) and institutionalization (e.g. clearly defined benefits and responsibilities), patron-client relationships become less significant (Landé, 1977). Hicken notes that patron-client relationships are most prevalent in developing societies.

According to Landé (1977), one of the primary mechanisms utilized to ensure the reliability of patron-client relationships is the norm of reciprocity. Gouldner (1960) explains that the norm of reciprocity is a universally regarded duty, although its enactments vary with circumstances and contexts. Gouldner maintains that the norm of reciprocity is based on two inter-related demands: “People should help those who have helped them [and] people should not injure those who have helped them” (p. 171). Thus, according to Gouldner, reciprocity (as a universal norm) is a strong motivating influence that maintains societal balance and protects against exploitation of power differentials. Three considerations, then, make the norm of reciprocity (conceptualized and measured as exchange ideology; Eisenberger, et al., 1986) a significant factor in studying the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior: (a) Rwanda is a developing country (ranked 167 out of 187 countries within the United Nations Human Development Index; United Nations Development Programme, 2013) in which patron-client relationships are likely to be a prevalent societal force (Hicken, 2011); (b) Podsakoff, et al. (2000) have proposed the importance of reciprocity in understanding follower OCB; and (c) the norm of reciprocity, as a primary motivating mechanism (Gouldner, 1960), may minimize the indirect effects of perceived leader effectiveness, meaning that followers may be motivated to reciprocate leaders’ prosocial behaviors with their own extra-role behaviors - even when they do not think the leader is effective.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This study used a non-experimental cross-sectional quantitative methodology to test the hypotheses. A quantitative approach to this study is appropriate in light of the study’s interest in building on existing quantitative research as well as its focus on statistical relationships between study variables (Cozby, 2009). According to Bordens and Abbott (2010), cross-sectional research has the advantage of allowing the researcher to obtain data in a short period of time, especially in comparison with longitudinal research, which could take years to gather. However, according to Cozby (2009), non-experimental research requires attention to at least two significant threats to validity: (a) extraneous variables (variables that are not considered in the research design) may be responsible for the observed relationships in the data; and (b) it is difficult to infer direction of causality from non-experimental research.

Sampling and Data Collection

This study used a non-probability purposive sampling technique (Cozby, 2009). Purposive sampling is appropriate for the objectives of the present study because of the need for a large sample and the scarcity of large organizations in Rwanda.

The population from which the sample for this study was drawn is adult Rwandans (over 18 years of age) working in non-government organizations in Rwanda. Therefore, the predetermined criteria for inclusion in the study were (a) Rwandan nationality; (b) at least 18 years of age; and (c) full-time employment in non-government setting. Data was drawn from multiple organizational contexts convenient to the primary researcher.

Data were collected from 208 individuals; yet 14 of these responses were unusable. Nine were rejected based upon the specific sampling criteria for inclusion in the study, as the respondents were from countries other than Rwanda. Five other responses showed significant evidence of misunderstanding the survey instructions (e.g. placing a checkmark beside items rather than rating items on the scales provided).

The number of independent variables required for the regression analyses used to test the study hypotheses did not exceed eight. Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham's (2005) note that a desirable ratio of observations to independent variable in regression analyses is 15:1 or 20:1. Additionally, they explain that sample size is important for detecting the prediction accuracy of regression models. Following Hair, et al. (2005), in the current study, a sample size of 160 respondents allowed for detecting R^2 values of approximately 13% at the $\alpha = 0.01$ level or 10% at the $\alpha = 0.05$ level with a power level of 0.80.

Instrumentation

Data for this study were collected using anonymous and confidential surveys translated from English into Kinyarwanda. Preexisting psychometric instrumentations with established validity and reliability were used to measure five of the study variables. Servant leadership behaviors were measured using Winston and Fields' (2015) 10-item Essential Servant Leadership Behaviors scale ($\alpha = 0.96$). Respondents utilized a five-point Likert scale to respond to items (1 = definitely no; 5 = definitely yes). A sample item from this scale is the following: "[My leader] practices what he/she preaches." In the present study, this scale also had adequate reliability ($\alpha = 0.94$).

Perceptions of leader effectiveness were measured using a six-item scale developed by Ehrhart and Klein (2001) for assessing followers' ratings of their leaders (α ranges between 0.88 and 0.92). Respondents were asked to rate their leaders using a five-point Likert scale (1 = definitely no; 5 = definitely yes). A sample item from this scale is: "I work at a high level of performance under my leader." This scale was found to have adequate reliability in the present study ($\alpha = 0.90$).

Organizational citizenship behavior was measured using two subscales developed by Podsakoff, et al. (1990) for measuring altruistic and courteous OCBs. According to Podsakoff, et al. (2000), altruism refers to behaviors that help coworkers with work-related problems, whereas courtesy refers to "foresightful gestures that help someone else prevent a problem" (p. 518). Although these items originally comprised two subscales within Podsakoff, et al.'s multidimensional conceptualization of OCB, theory demonstrates that these two factors are closely related as a "class of OCB [that is] targeted toward an individual as they are acted out" (Organ, 1997, p. 94). Indeed, this distinction between extra-role behaviors that benefit individuals in the organization and

extra-role behaviors that generally benefit the organization has been broadly upheld within theoretical and empirical literature on OCB (e.g. Settoon & Mossholder, 2002; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Items were reworded for self-reporting (Fields, 2002). Participants responded on a five-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). Sample items are: “[I] willingly help others who have work related problems” (altruism) and “[I] take steps to try to prevent problems with other workers” (courtesy). Podsakoff, et al. (1990) reported adequate reliability for both subscales ($\alpha = 0.85$ for each scale). In the present study, these scales had slightly lower reliability (altruism, $\alpha = 0.76$; courtesy, $\alpha = 0.79$).

Exchange ideology refers to the extent to which employees believe that they ought to reciprocate positive behavior, as those with strong exchange ideology believe that they should help those who help them and not injure those who have helped them (Scott & Colquitt, 2007; Gouldner, 1960). In the present study, exchange ideology was measured using a five-item scale ($\alpha = 0.80$) developed by Eisenberger, et al. (1986). Participants responded on a five-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree). A sample item from this scale is: “An employee who is treated badly by the organization should lower his or her work effort.” In the present study, this scale suffered from significant reliability concerns, as the full five-item scale was found to have Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of $\alpha = 0.49$. After two items were removed (which is further explained in the analysis and limitations sections of this paper), reliability was found to be sufficient at $\alpha = 0.75$. The remaining three-item scale was used in the remaining analyses.

Control Variables

This study also controlled for the effects of five additional variables in order to avoid improper inferences from the data and increase internal validity of the study: gender, age, tenure with organization, tenure under leader, and satisfaction with salary. Previous research has demonstrated the significance of personal/demographic factors in predicting OCB (Turnipseed & Murkison, 1996). Studies have shown that gender affects employee perceptions and responses to supportive measures within the workplace (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Scandura & Lankau, 1997). Additionally, Ehrhart and Klein (2001) demonstrated the importance of controlling for gender and age when assessing perceived leader effectiveness, as perceptions of effective types of leadership were found to be significantly correlated with these demographic factors. Dennis and Bocarnea (2005) also showed that perceptions of servant leadership behaviors may vary across gender. Additionally, Organ and Ryan (1995) showed that tenure within the organization and tenure under leader are both related to OCB.

Finally, this study also controlled for the effects of satisfaction with one’s salary, as Robinson and Morrison (1995) showed that an employer’s fulfillment of transactional obligations has a significant effect on employee OCB. This is consistent with Rousseau’s (1990) supposition that employee behaviors are sensitive to employer fulfillment of transactional obligations. In the model in the current study, it is possible that an employee’s lack of extra-role behavior (OCB) may be affected by dissatisfaction with salary. Therefore, this study controlled for employee’s satisfaction with salary using a two-item subscale from Hackman and Oldham’s (1974) Job Diagnostic Survey. Items

are rated following the respondent's level of satisfaction (1 = extremely dissatisfied; 7 = extremely satisfied). A sample item from this scale is: "The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this organization." Mathieu, Hofmann, and Farr (1993) report a satisfactory reliability coefficient ($\alpha = 0.88$). The present study also found satisfactory reliability for Hackman and Oldham's scale ($\alpha = 0.87$).

Translation of the Instrument

Survey instrumentation was translated from English for use in this study following methods adapted from Brislin (1970). According to Brislin, a robust strategy for translation and back-translation is necessary to avoid problems caused by the perception without the actuality of equivalence. Following Brislin, six steps were adopted for survey translation: (a) a translatable English version was established using the aforementioned instruments; (b) one bilingual with knowledge of both English and Kinyarwanda, as well as the subject material, translated the survey into Kinyarwanda; (c) a second bilingual translated the survey from Kinyarwanda into English without having access to the original English survey; (d) based on the back-translation, the researcher (also bilingual) worked with the first two bilinguals to refine the Kinyarwanda translation; (e) two other bilinguals were utilized to compare the original English with the refined Kinyarwanda translation, after which additional corrections were made; and (f) the survey was pretested with four people who speak the target language, and revisions were made where there was confusion in comprehension.

ANALYSIS

Descriptive statistics of the sample are reported in Table 1.

Table 1. Population Sample Demographics and Control Variables.

<i>Variable</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Details</i>	<i>Sample</i>
Gender	194	Male	55%
		Female	45%
Age (years)	189	Range	19-89
		Mean	35.21
		Median	33.00
		Standard deviation	9.78
Tenure in organization (years)	192	Range	1.00-20.00
		Mean	4.85
		Median	4.00
		Standard deviation	3.87
Tenure under leader (years)	188	Range	1.00-18.00
		Mean	3.07
		Median	2.00

Items comprising psychometric scales were transformed into variables representing mean scores. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated for each scale to assess the reliability of these instruments among the population being sampled. The two-item scale for measuring satisfaction with salary (Hackman & Oldham, 1974) was found to be reliable ($\alpha = 0.87$), as were the six-item scale for measuring leader effectiveness (Ehrhart & Klein, 2001; $\alpha = 0.90$) and the ten-item scale for measuring servant leadership (Winston & Fields, 2015; $\alpha = 0.94$). The two five-item subscales for measuring OCB (Podsakoff, et al., 1990) were also found to be reliable (altruism, $\alpha = 0.76$; courtesy, $\alpha = 0.79$). However, the five-item scale for measuring Exchange Ideology was found to have an extremely low alpha coefficient ($\alpha = 0.49$). After deleting one item, reliability increased to 0.64. After deleting a second item, reliability increased to $\alpha = 0.75$. Therefore, this three-item version of Eisenberger, et al.'s (1986) five-item scale was maintained for subsequent analyses. The remaining three items are provided in Table 2. These three items were used in subsequent analyses. Means, standard deviations, and correlations among study variables are presented in Table 3.

Table 2. Refined Scale for Measuring Exchange Ideology.

<i>Item</i>
1 How hard an employee works should not be affected by how well the organization treats him or her (reverse coded)
2 An employee's work effort should have nothing to do with the fairness of his or her pay (reverse coded)
3 The failure of the organization to appreciate an employee's contribution should not affect how hard he or she works (reverse coded)

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were used to study the mediating effects of perceived leader effectiveness on the relationship between servant leadership and altruistic OCB (Hypothesis 1a, 1b, and 1c) and courteous OCB (Hypothesis 1a, 1d, and 1e). According to Baron and Kenny (1986), assessing mediation consists of analyzing three relationships: (a) independent variable as predictor of mediating variable (IV to M); (b) mediating variable as predictor of dependent variable (M to DV); and (c) independent variable as predictor of dependent variable (IV to DV). Additionally, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), if controlling for the mediating variable eliminates the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable, then the relationship is perfect; if the relationship is only diminished, then it is partial (p. 160). Therefore, consideration of the mediating effects of perceived leader effectiveness concluded with analysis of the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable while controlling for the effects of the mediator.

Tests of the mediating effects of perceived leader effectiveness in the relationship between servant leadership and OCB-altruism (Hypothesis 1a-c) began with initial review of bivariate correlations, which suggested that mediation was likely, as independent, dependent, and mediating variables were all significantly correlated ($p < 0.01$; see bivariate correlations in Table 3). The first hierarchical multiple regression analysis assessed the relationship between servant leadership and perceived leader

effectiveness (see Table 4). Control variables (age, gender, organizational tenure, tenure under leader, and salary satisfaction) were entered in Step 1, explaining 22.4% of the variance in perceived leader effectiveness. After entering servant leadership in Step 2, the total variance explained by the model was 65.5%, $F(6, 176) = 58.71, p < 0.001$. Servant leadership explained an additional 44.3% of the variance in perceived leader effectiveness, R^2 change = 0.44, F change (1, 176) = 233.79, $p < 0.001$. In the final model, only servant leadership was found to be statistically significant ($\beta = 0.79, p < 0.001$).

The second hierarchical regression analysis assessed the relationship between perceived leader effectiveness and OCB-altruism (see Table 5). Control variables (age, gender, organizational tenure, tenure under leader, and salary satisfaction) were entered in Step 1, explaining 10.9% of the variance in OCB-altruism. After entering perceived leader effectiveness in Step 2, the total variance explained by the model was 15.9%, $F(6, 168) = 5.29, p < 0.001$.

Table 3 (part 1). Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Study Variables.

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5
1 OCB- altruism	4.14	.59	—				
2 OCB- courtesy	4.47	.53	.59**	—			
3 Servant leadership	3.88	.82	.33**	.40**	—		
4 Leader effectiveness	4.06	.81	.35**	.41**	.81**	—	
5 Exchange ideology	2.37	.99	-.27**	-.26**	-.19**	-.17*	—
6 Salary satisfaction	4.95	1.57	.31**	.29**	.51**	.45**	.24**
7 Age	35.21	9.78	.18*	.05	.31**	.20**	-.05
8 Gender	1.45	.50	-.08	-.09	-.08	-.09	-.07
9 Org. tenure	4.85	3.87	.07	.07	.17*	.13	-.04
10 Tenure under leader	3.07	2.69	.06	.04	.02	.03	-.06

Note: * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Table 3 (part 2). Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among Study Variables.

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	6	7	8	9	10
1 OCB- altruism	4.14	.59					
2 OCB- courtesy	4.47	.53					
3 Servant leadership	3.88	.82					
4 Leader effectiveness	4.06	.81					
5 Exchange ideology	2.37	.99					
6 Salary satisfaction	4.95	1.57	—				
7 Age	35.21	9.78	.39**	—			
8 Gender	1.45	.50	.04	-.03	—		
9 Org. tenure	4.85	3.87	.14*	.05**	.02	—	
10 Tenure under leader	3.07	2.69	.04	.30**	.02	.60**	—

Note: * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Perceived leader effectiveness explained an additional 5% of the variance in OCB-altruism, R^2 change = 0.05, F change (1, 168) = 10.05, $p < 0.01$. In the final model, salary satisfaction ($\beta = 0.17$, $p < 0.05$) and perceived leader effectiveness ($\beta = 0.26$, $p < 0.01$) were found to be statistically significant.

Table 4. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Servant Leadership with Perceived Leader Effectiveness.

	<i>b</i>	Standard error	β
Step 1			
Constant	3.16	0.28	
Age	0.00	0.01	-0.03
Gender	-0.18	0.11	-0.11
Org tenure	0.02	0.02	0.11
Leader tenure	-0.01	0.03	-0.04
Salary sat	0.24	0.04	0.45**
Step 2			
Constant	1.14	0.23	
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.10
Gender	-0.06	0.07	-0.04
Org tenure	0.01	0.01	0.03
Leader tenure	0.01	0.02	0.03
Salary sat	0.05	0.03	0.09
Servant leader	0.78	0.05	0.79**

Note. $R^2 = 0.22$ ($p = 0.00$) for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = 0.44$ ($p = 0.00$) for Step 2.

** $p < 0.01$

Table 5. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Perceived Leader Effectiveness with OCB-Altruism.

	<i>b</i>	Standard error	β
Step 1			
Constant	3.59	0.22	
Age	0.00	0.01	0.07
Gender	-0.10	0.09	-0.08
Org tenure	-0.01	0.02	-0.04
Leader tenure	0.01	0.02	0.05
Salary sat	0.11	0.03	0.29**
Step 2			
Constant	3.01	0.28	
Age	0.01	0.01	0.08
Gender	-0.07	0.08	-0.06
Org tenure	-0.01	0.02	-0.07
Leader tenure	0.01	0.02	0.06
Salary sat	0.07	0.03	0.17*
Leader effect	0.18	0.06	0.26**

Note. $R^2 = 0.11$ ($p = 0.00$) for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = 0.05$ ($p = 0.00$) for Step 2.

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

The third analysis assessed the relationship between servant leadership and OCB-altruism (see Table 6). Control variables (age, gender, organizational tenure, tenure under leader, and salary satisfaction) were entered in Step 1, explaining 10.9% of the variance in OCB-Altruism. After entering servant leadership in Step 2, the total variance

explained by the model was 14.6%, $F(6, 168) = 4.78, p < 0.01$. Servant leadership explained an additional 4% of the variance in OCB-altruism, R^2 change = 0.04, F change (1, 168) = 10.05, $p < 0.01$. In the final model, salary satisfaction ($\beta = 0.18, p < 0.05$) and servant leadership ($\beta = 0.23, p < 0.01$) were found to be statistically significant.

Table 6. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Servant Leadership with OCB-Altruism.

	<i>b</i>	Standard error	β
Step 1			
Constant	3.59	0.22	
Age	0.00	0.01	0.07
Gender	-0.10	0.09	-0.08
Org tenure	-0.01	0.02	-0.04
Leader tenure	0.01	0.02	0.05
Salary sat	0.11	0.03	0.29**
Step 2			
Constant	3.17	0.27	
Age	0.00	0.01	0.05
Gender	-0.07	0.09	-0.06
Org tenure	-0.01	0.02	-0.06
Leader tenure	0.02	0.02	0.07
Salary sat	0.07	0.03	0.18*
Servant leader	0.16	0.06	0.23**

Note. $R^2 = 0.11$ ($p < 0.01$) for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = 0.04$ ($p < 0.01$) for Step 2.

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

Finally, the fourth analysis assessed the relationship between servant leadership and OCB-altruism while controlling for the effects of perceived leader effectiveness (see Table 7). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), if controlling for the effects of M eliminates the effect of the IV on the DV, then the relationship is perfect. Control variables (age, gender, organizational tenure, tenure under leader, and salary satisfaction) were entered in Step 1, along with perceived leader effectiveness, explaining 15.9% of the variance in OCB-altruism. After entering servant leadership in Step 2, the total variance explained by the model was 16.0%, $F(7, 167) = 4.55, p < 0.01$. Servant leadership explained no additional variance in OCB-Altruism, R^2 change = 0.00, F change (1, 167) = 0.25, $p > 0.05$. In the final model, no variables were found to be statistically significant.

Table 7. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Servant Leadership with OCB-Altruism while Controlling for Perceived Leader Effectiveness.

	<i>b</i>	Standard error	β
Step 1			
Constant	3.01	0.28	
Age	0.01	0.01	0.08
Gender	-0.07	0.08	-0.06
Org tenure	-0.01	0.02	-0.07
Leader tenure	0.01	0.02	0.06
Salary sat	0.07	0.03	0.17*
Leader effect	0.18	0.06	0.26**
Step 2			
Constant	2.99	0.29	
Age	0.00	0.01	0.07
Gender	-0.06	0.09	-0.05
Org tenure	-0.01	0.02	-0.07
Leader tenure	0.01	0.02	0.06
Salary sat	0.06	0.03	0.16
Leader effect	0.15	0.09	0.21
Servant leader	0.05	0.09	0.07

Note. $R^2 = 0.16$ ($p < 0.01$) for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = 0.00$ ($p > 0.05$) for Step 2.

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

In summary, all three conditions for mediation were met, as servant leadership predicted perceived leader effectiveness, perceived leader effectiveness predicted OCB-altruism, and servant leadership predicted OCB-altruism. Additional analysis showed that perceived leader effectiveness perfectly mediates the effects of servant leadership on OCB-altruism, as controlling for the effects of the mediator removed the effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Therefore, Hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 1c are fully supported.

Tests of the mediating effects of perceived leader effectiveness in the relationship between servant leadership and OCB-courtesy (Hypothesis 1a, 1d, and 1e) followed the same order as the testing of previous hypotheses. Analysis began with initial review of bivariate correlations, which suggested that mediation was likely, as independent, dependent, and mediating variables were all significantly correlated ($p < 0.01$; see bivariate correlations in Table 3). The first hierarchical multiple regression analysis assessing the relationship between servant leadership and perceived leader effectiveness was performed in testing Hypothesis 1a (see Table 4); therefore it was not repeated for this analysis.

The second hierarchical regression analysis assessed the relationship between perceived leader effectiveness and OCB-courtesy (see Table 8). Control variables (age, gender, organizational tenure, tenure under leader, and salary satisfaction) were entered in Step 1, explaining 10.2% of the variance in OCB-courtesy. After entering perceived leader effectiveness in Step 2, the total variance explained by the model was 19.1%, $F(6,$

167) = 6.57, $p < 0.001$. Perceived leader effectiveness explained an additional 9% of the variance in OCB-Altruism, R^2 change = 0.09, F change (1, 167) = 18.44, $p < 0.01$. In the final model, salary satisfaction ($\beta = 0.17$, $p < 0.05$) and perceived leader effectiveness ($\beta = 0.34$, $p < 0.01$) were found to be statistically significant.

Table 8. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Perceived Leader Effectiveness with OCB-Courtesy.

	<i>b</i>	Standard error	β
Step 1			
Constant	4.27	0.20	
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.13
Gender	-0.11	0.08	-0.10
Org tenure	0.01	0.01	0.08
Leader tenure	0.00	0.02	0.02
Salary sat	0.11	0.03	0.33**
Step 2			
Constant	3.57	0.25	
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.12
Gender	-0.07	0.08	-0.07
Org tenure	0.01	0.01	0.04
Leader tenure	0.01	0.02	0.03
Salary sat	0.06	0.03	0.17*
Leader effect	0.22	0.05	0.34**

Note. $R^2 = 0.10$ ($p < 0.01$) for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = 0.09$ ($p < 0.00$) for Step 2.

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

The third analysis assessed the relationship between servant leadership and OCB-courtesy (see Table 9). Control variables (age, gender, organizational tenure, tenure under leader, and salary satisfaction) were entered in Step 1, explaining 10.2% of the variance in OCB-courtesy. After entering servant leadership in Step 2, the total variance explained by the model was 19.0%, F (6, 167) = 6.51, $p < 0.01$. Servant leadership explained an additional 8.8% of the variance in OCB-courtesy, R^2 change = 0.09, F change (1, 167) = 18.09, $p < 0.01$. In the final model, only servant leadership ($\beta = 0.35$, $p < 0.01$) was found to be statistically significant.

Table 9. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Servant Leadership with OCB-Courtesy.

	<i>b</i>	Standard error	β
Step 1			
Constant	4.265	0.202	
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.13
Gender	-0.11	0.08	-0.10
Org tenure	0.01	0.01	0.08
Leader tenure	0.00	0.02	0.02
Salary sat	0.11	0.03	0.33**
Step 2			
Constant	3.68	0.24	
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.16
Gender	-0.08	0.08	-0.07
Org tenure	0.01	0.01	0.04
Leader tenure	0.01	0.02	0.05
Salary sat	0.06	0.03	0.16
Servant ldr	0.23	0.05	0.35**

Note. $R^2 = 0.10$ ($p < 0.01$) for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = 0.09$ ($p < 0.01$) for Step 2.

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

Finally, the fourth analysis assessed the relationship between servant leadership and OCB-courtesy while controlling for the effects of perceived leader effectiveness (see Table 10). Control variables (age, gender, organizational tenure, tenure under leader, and salary satisfaction) were entered in Step 1, along with perceived leader effectiveness, explaining 19.1% of the variance in OCB-courtesy. After entering servant leadership in Step 2, the total variance explained by the model was 20.3%, $F(7, 166) = 6.03$, $p < 0.01$. Servant leadership explained no additional variance in OCB-courtesy, R^2 change = 0.01, F change (1, 166) = 2.41, $p > 0.05$. In the final model, no variables were found to be statistically significant.

Table 10. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis of Servant Leadership with OCB-Courtesy while Controlling for Perceived Leader Effectiveness.

	<i>b</i>	Standard error	β
Step 1			
Constant	3.57	0.25	
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.12
Gender	-0.07	0.08	-0.07
Org tenure	0.01	0.01	0.04
Leader tenure	0.01	0.02	0.03
Salary sat	0.06	0.03	0.17*
Leader effect	0.22	0.05	0.34**
Step 2			
Constant	3.53	0.25	
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.14
Gender	-0.07	0.07	-0.06
Org tenure	0.01	0.01	0.04
Leader tenure	0.01	0.02	0.05
Salary sat	0.05	0.03	0.15
Leader effect	0.13	0.08	0.20
Servant leader	0.13	0.08	0.20

Note. $R^2 = 0.19$ ($p < 0.01$) for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = 0.01$ ($p > 0.05$) for Step 2.

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

In summary, all three conditions for mediation were met, as servant leadership predicted perceived leader effectiveness, perceived leader effectiveness predicted OCB-courtesy, and servant leadership predicted OCB-courtesy. Additional analysis showed that perceived leader effectiveness perfectly mediates the effects of servant leadership on OCB-courtesy, as controlling for the effects of the mediator removed the effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Therefore, Hypotheses 1d and 1e are fully supported. A summary of mediation results is provided in Table 11.

Table 11. Summary of Mediation Results (Beta Values; Standard Errors in Parenthesis).

IV	M	DV	A	B	C	C'
SL	PLE	OCB-A	0.79** (0.05)	0.26** (0.06)	0.23** (0.06)	0.07 (0.09)
SL	PLE	OCB-C	0.79** (0.05)	0.34** (0.05)	0.35** (0.05)	0.20 (0.08)

Note. IV = independent variable; M = mediator; DV = dependent variable; A = effect of IV on M; B = effect of M on DV; C = effect of IV on DV; C' = effect of IV on DV while controlling for M; SL = servant leadership; PLE = perceived leader effectiveness; OCB-A = altruistic organizational citizenship behaviors; OCB-C = courteous organizational citizenship behaviors.

** $p < 0.01$

Hypothesis 2 predicts the moderating effects of exchange ideology on the mediated relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship behavior. Three sub-hypotheses were tested using a framework for moderated mediation. Following Edwards and Lambert (2007), moderated mediation refers to “a mediated effect that

varies across levels of a moderator variable” (p. 6). Muller, et al. (2005) note that two stages of moderation are the basis for assessing moderated mediation. Thus, testing for moderated mediation entails analyzing the moderating effects of exchange ideology on the path from the independent variable to the mediator and the path from the mediator to the dependent variable. Therefore, in light of the two subscales used in this study to conceptualize organizational citizenship, the moderating effects of exchange ideology were analyzed in the following three relationships, which are accounted for by Hypotheses 2a, 2b, and 2c: (a) servant leadership and perceived leader effectiveness; (b) perceived leader effectiveness and OCB-altruism; and (c) perceived leader effectiveness and OCB-courtesy. Significance levels for interaction terms were lightened to $p < 0.10$, as interaction effects are often difficult to detect and frequently suffer from low power (McClelland & Judd, 1993).

The first analysis considered the moderating effects of exchange ideology on the relationship between servant leadership and perceived leader effectiveness (see Table 12). Control variables (age, gender, organizational tenure, tenure under leader, and salary satisfaction) were entered in Step 1 and were found to account for 22% of the variance in perceived leader effectiveness. Servant leadership and exchange ideology were entered in Step 2; these variables accounted for an additional 44% of the variance in perceived leader effectiveness. The interaction terms (Servant Leadership \times Exchange Ideology) were entered in Step 3. The total variance explained by the model was 67.1%, $F(8, 170) = 43.34, p < 0.01$. However, the interaction terms did not explain any additional variance in perceived leader effectiveness, as R^2 change = 0.00, F change (1, 170) = 2.14, $p > 0.10$. Therefore Hypothesis 2a is not supported.

Table 12. Regression Analysis of Moderating Role of Exchange Ideology on Relationship Between Servant Leadership and Perceptions of Leader Effectiveness.

	<i>b</i>	Standard error	β
Step 1			
Constant	3.16	0.28	
Age	0.00	0.01	-0.03
Gender	-0.18	0.11	-0.11
Org tenure	0.02	0.02	0.11
Leader tenure	-0.01	0.03	-0.04
Salary sat	0.24	0.04	0.45**
Step 2			
Constant	1.15	0.27	
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.10
Gender	-0.06	0.07	-0.04
Org tenure	0.01	0.01	0.03
Leader tenure	0.01	0.02	0.03
Salary sat	0.04	0.03	0.09
Servant leader	0.78	0.05	0.79**
Exchange ideo	0.00	0.04	0.00
Step 3			
Constant	0.61	0.46	
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.10
Gender	-0.06	0.07	-0.04
Org tenure	0.01	0.01	0.03
Leader tenure	0.01	0.02	0.03
Salary sat	0.05	0.03	0.10
Servant leader	0.91	0.10	0.92**
Exchange ideo	0.22	0.15	0.26
Exchange mod	-0.06	0.04	-0.28

Note. $R^2 = 0.22$ ($p < 0.01$) for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = 0.44$ ($p < 0.05$) for Step 2; $\Delta R^2 = 0.00$ ($p > 0.05$) for Step 3

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

The second analysis considered the moderating effects of exchange ideology on the relationship between perceived leader effectiveness and OCB-altruism (see Table 13). Control variables (age, gender, organizational tenure, tenure under leader, and salary satisfaction) were entered in Step 1 and were found to account for 10.9% of the variance in OCB-altruism. Perceived leader effectiveness and exchange ideology were entered in Step 2; these variables accounted for an additional 8.5% of the variance in OCB-altruism. The interaction terms (Perceived Leader Effectiveness \times Exchange Ideology) were entered in Step 3. The total variance explained by the model was 19.6%, $F(8, 166) = 5.05$, $p < 0.01$. However, the interaction terms did not explain any additional variance in OCB-altruism, as R^2 change = 0.00, F change (1, 166) = 0.37, $p > 0.10$. Therefore Hypothesis 2b is not supported.

Table 13. Regression Analysis of Moderating Role of Exchange Ideology on Relationship Between Servant Leadership and OCB-Altruism.

	<i>b</i>	Standard error	β
Step 1			
Constant	3.59	0.22	
Age	0.00	0.01	0.07
Gender	-0.10	0.09	-0.08
Org tenure	-0.01	0.02	-0.04
Leader tenure	0.01	0.02	0.05
Salary sat	0.11	0.03	0.29**
Step 2			
Constant	3.42	0.32	
Age	0.01	0.01	0.09
Gender	-0.08	0.08	-0.07
Org tenure	-0.01	0.02	-0.06
Leader tenure	0.01	0.02	0.04
Salary sat	0.05	0.03	0.13
Exchange ideo	-0.12	0.04	-0.19**
Leader effect	0.17	0.06	0.24**
Step 3			
Constant	3.69	0.56	
Age	0.01	0.01	0.09
Gender	-0.08	0.08	-0.07
Org tenure	-0.01	0.02	-0.07
Ldr tenure	0.01	0.02	0.05
Salary sat	0.05	0.03	0.12
Exchange ideo	-0.23	0.20	-0.39
Leader effect	0.11	0.12	0.15
Exchange mod	0.03	0.05	0.20

Note. $R^2 = 0.11$ ($p < 0.01$) for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = 0.09$ ($p < 0.05$) for Step 2; $\Delta R^2 = 0.00$ ($p > 0.05$) for Step 3.

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

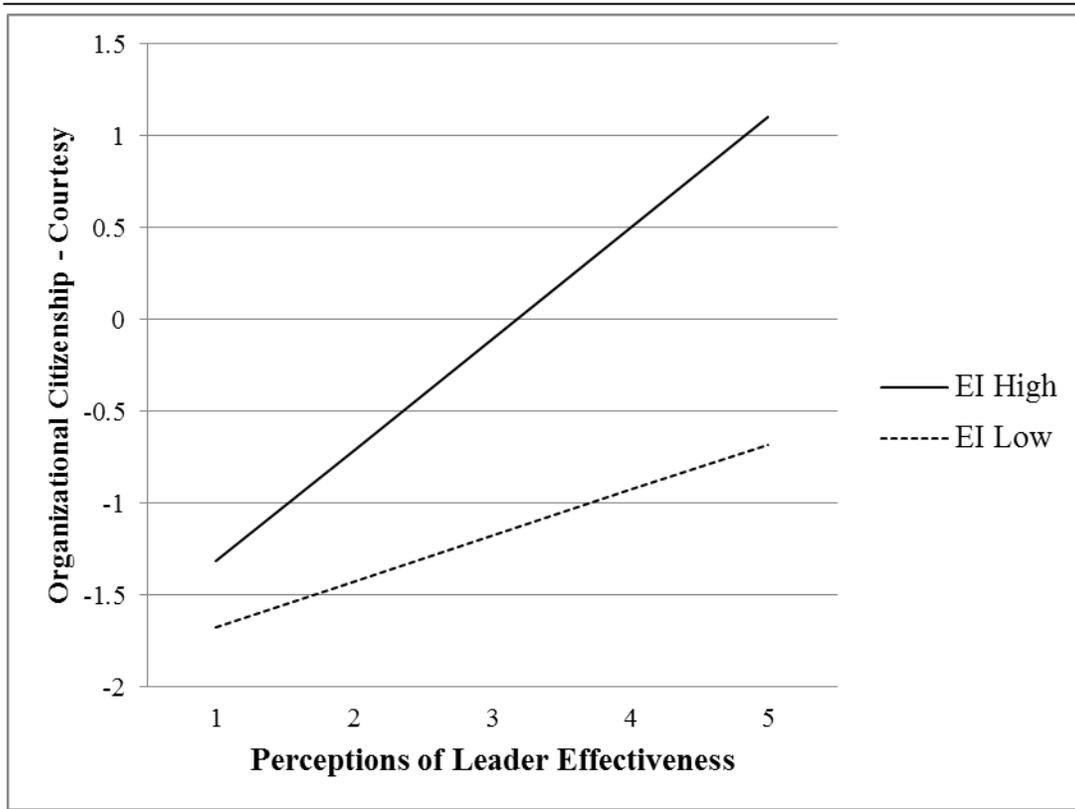
The third analysis considered the moderating effects of exchange ideology on the relationship between perceived leader effectiveness and OCB-courtesy (see Table 14). Control variables (age, gender, organizational tenure, tenure under leader, and salary satisfaction) were entered in Step 1 and were found to account for 10.2% of the variance in OCB-courtesy. Perceived leader effectiveness and exchange ideology were entered in Step 2; these variables accounted for an additional 12.1% of the variance in OCB-courtesy. The interaction terms (Perceived Leader Effectiveness \times Exchange Ideology) were entered in Step 3. The total variance explained by the model was 30.6%, $F(8, 165) = 9.11$, $p < 0.01$. The interaction terms explained additional variance in OCB-courtesy, as R^2 change = 8.4%, F change (1, 165) = 19.88, $p < 0.01$. Therefore Hypothesis 2c is supported. The moderating effects of exchange ideology in the relationship between perceived leader effectiveness and OCB-courtesy are illustrated in Figure 2.

Table 14. Regression Analysis of Moderating Role of Exchange Ideology on Relationship Between Servant Leadership and OCB-Courtesy.

	<i>b</i>	Standard error	β
Step 1			
Constant	4.27	0.20	
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.13
Gender	-0.11	0.08	-0.10
Org tenure	0.01	0.01	0.08
Leader tenure	0.00	0.02	0.02
Salary sat	0.11	0.03	0.33**
Step 2			
Constant	3.92	0.28	
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.11
Gender	-0.08	0.07	-0.08
Org tenure	0.01	0.01	0.04
Leader tenure	0.00	0.02	0.02
Salary sat	0.05	0.03	0.13
Exchange ideo	-0.10	0.04	-0.19*
Leader effect	0.21	0.05	0.32**
Step 3			
Constant	5.63	0.47	
Age	-0.01	0.01	-0.12
Gender	-0.09	0.07	-0.08
Org tenure	0.00	0.01	0.01
Leader tenure	0.01	0.02	0.03
Salary sat	0.03	0.03	0.09
Exchange ideo	-0.81	0.16	-1.51**
Leader effect	-0.18	0.10	-0.28
Exchange mod	0.18	0.04	1.39**

Note. $R^2 = 0.10$ ($p < 0.01$) for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = 0.12$ ($p < 0.05$) for Step 2; $\Delta R^2 = 0.08$ ($p < 0.05$) for Step 3.

* $p < 0.05$ ** $p < 0.01$

Figure 2. Illustration of the moderating effects of exchange ideology.

Note: The only significant coefficients in the final regression model are for exchange ideology ($B = -1.51$; $p < 0.01$) and for the interaction of exchange ideology and leader effectiveness ($B = 0.18$; $p < 0.01$). This graph utilizes unstandardized beta values for the significant variables in the final regression model and illustrates two equations representing high (mean + one standard deviation) and low (mean – one standard deviation) exchange ideology.

Theoretical Implications

There are at least two significant theoretical implications of this study. The first implication concerns the differing results from the analyses of the moderating effects of exchange ideology in the two moderated mediation models. The second implication concerns the strong relationship between servant leadership and perceived leader effectiveness in Rwanda.

Implications of the Moderating Effects of Exchange Ideology

The relationship between exchange ideology and OCB-courtesy was observed to be significant and negative, which indicates that an employee's reciprocity beliefs are likely to result in diminished organizational courtesy. However, the interaction of exchange ideology and perceptions of leader effectiveness was found to be significant and positive, meaning that as an employee increasingly perceives that his/her leader is effective, then reciprocity beliefs have an increasingly important role in explaining organizational courtesy. An employee with strong exchange ideology is more likely to perform courteous organizational behaviors than an employee with weak exchange ideology –

even more so as perceptions of leader effectiveness increase. More broadly, this study confirms the full mediating effects of perceived leader effectiveness on the relationship between servant leadership and organizational citizenship. Thus, with respect to the study's full model, servant leadership behaviors have their strongest effect on OCB-courtesy when an employee has high reciprocity beliefs. Therefore, it is concluded that with respect to OCB-courtesy, exchange ideology does indeed moderate the mediation model.

Implications of the Perceived Effectiveness of Servant Leadership in Rwanda

A second theoretical implication of this study is found in the strong relationship between servant leadership and perceptions of leader effectiveness in Rwanda. Hannay (2009) proposes that lower power distance and low uncertainty avoidance are among the critical cultural dimensions indicative of the success of servant leadership. Hofstede's (2001) aggregated data for East Africa, of which Rwanda is a part, describes the region as having high power distance and moderately high uncertainty avoidance. This is also consistent with GLOBE study's (House, et al., 2004) findings of other sub-Saharan African countries (e.g., Nigeria, Zambia, and Zimbabwe) with respect to societal practices of power distance and uncertainty avoidance.

In contrast with Hannay's (2009) propositions, in the present study, there was a strong correlation between servant leadership and perceptions of leader effectiveness ($\beta = 0.79, p < 0.01$). Accordingly, this study provides further evidence that the construct of servant leadership is helpful in identifying leadership behaviors that are consistent with general implicit assumptions about positive prototypes of leadership (cf. Den Hartog, et al., 1999). Yet, while this relationship between servant leadership and perceived leader effectiveness is strong, it is important to consider the reasons for this relationship from an emic perspective.

Practical Implications

There are at least two practical implications of this study. First, notwithstanding the fact that the correlational nature of the present study makes it difficult to determine causality or directionality (perhaps followers' pro-organizational behaviors are partially responsible for eliciting leader servant behaviors), it is worth noting that working to increase followers' perceptions of servant leadership is likely to have positive results on follower outcome behaviors. The sample in the present study strongly endorsed servant leadership behaviors.

However, this leads to a second practical implication. The moderating effects of exchange ideology in the mediation model proposed in this study highlights the importance of vigilance and caution so that leadership does not utilize the perception of servant leadership behaviors as a mechanism for manipulation or exploitation. Gouldner (1960) maintains that the norm of reciprocity guards powerful people from the temptations to exploit and "inhibits the emergence of exploitative relations which would undermine the social system" (p. 174). However, Hall (1977) notes that broader contextual pressures (e.g. economic and social) can lead to repressive uses of patron-client relationships for the purpose of solidifying control. The social pressure to

reciprocate can trap the weak in a vicious cycle of exploitation (especially in work relationships without formal contracts; Landé, 1977) in which the only response for one's survival is to support the repressive structure. Consequently, from a practical perspective, leadership development should focus not just on the adoption of servant leadership behaviors, but, perhaps more importantly, on the reorientation of the leader's understanding of authority, power, and purpose (i.e. moral reorientation not just behavioral reorientation).

Limitations

One significant limitation of the present study was the unanticipated lack of reliability of Eisenberger, et al.'s (1986) scale for measuring exchange ideology. After recoding reverse-coded items in the scale, Cronbach's alpha coefficient was found to be exceptionally low ($\alpha = 0.49$). After deleting one item, reliability increased to 0.64. After deleting a second item (leaving a three-item scale), reliability increased to an acceptable level of 0.75 (Pallant, 2005).

Additionally, this study is limited by its use of self-report surveys, which makes it susceptible to common method variance (CMV). Although Spector (2006) proposes that CMV has become a "methodological urban legend" (p. 222), Conway and Lance (2010) provide suggestions for addressing CMV concerns, including demonstrating why self-report measures are appropriate, evidence that measures have construct validity, and demonstration that CMV concerns have been considered. Notwithstanding this limitation, all of these suggestions were addressed in the present study. Additionally, as Chan (2009) explains, the use of non-self-report measures for OCB do not necessarily provide more valid assessments of OCB, but rather measure a different construct, as supervisor- or peer-reported measures of OCB may be interpreted differently than by the individual.

A final limitation to note is the ability of this study to generalize to a broader population. This study utilized a purposive sampling technique and included only the type of individuals described by the population being studied (adult Rwandans employed in non-government settings). According to Cozby (2009), one disadvantage of purposive sampling is that "results may not generalize to [the] intended population" (p. 141). However, as Bordens and Abbott (2010) explain, psychological research often depends on nonrandom samples, using theories and models to make hypotheses that are then tested within a subset of the population.

Suggestions for Further Research

There are a few notable directions for further research stemming from the present study. First, based upon the distinction observed in the different moderating effects of exchange ideology on OCB-altruism and OCB-courtesy, it would be appropriate to continue to explore variation in the effects on other dimensions of OCB utilizing other subscales developed by Podsakoff, et al. (1990) to measure sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness, as well. OCB-altruism and OCB-courtesy are both extra-role behaviors that are focused on other individuals within the organization (Organ, 1997). Yet, it is important to further consider extra-role behaviors that generally benefit the

organization (sportsmanship, civic virtue, and conscientiousness). Given that the norm of reciprocity exists within relationships among people, it is possible that exchange ideology would not moderate similar mediation models with OCBO behaviors as dependent variables, as these behaviors do not directly benefit other people. However, if an individual perceives that these behaviors are a form of reciprocation, then exchange ideology could function as a significant moderator.

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