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**ANALYSING THE PREVALENCE OF SERVANT
LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS AND CULTURAL
VALUES IN A UAE-BASED MULTINATIONAL AND
MULTICULTURAL WORKFORCE**

Richard John Atkinson
Master of Arts (OXON)

**Submitted in fulfillment of the requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy**



School of Law and Business
Sydney Campus

February 2024

Declaration

To the best of the candidate's knowledge, this thesis contains no material previously published by another person, except where due acknowledgment has been made.

This thesis is the candidate's own work and contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any institution.

Human Ethics

The research presented and reported in this thesis was conducted in accordance with the National Health and Medical Research Council National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007, updated 2018). The proposed research study received human research ethics approval from the University of Notre Dame Australia Human Research Ethics Committee (EC00418), Approval Number # 2022-077S

Signature:

Print Name: Richard John Atkinson

Date: 19 February 2024

Abstract

In an increasingly virtual, pandemic-affected working environment, cross-cultural and people-centric leadership approaches are needed. Scholars have explored leadership effectiveness under different conditions and influences. However, in the body of leadership literature, there is scant attention to the variance across cultures for servant leadership to manage workers effectively.

This mixed-methods study explores whether servant leadership relates to cultural characteristics across three different nationalities in a UAE-based multinational organisation, providing a more comprehensive understanding of these relationships and differences and employees' perceptions. The quantitative method is examined using context-specific knowledge and the qualitative method explores the nuances of participant responses making the mixed method most appropriate for this research,

The first quantitative research phase included 149 participants drawn from this organisation, from Emirati (44), United Kingdom (58), and Indian (47) nationalities, with a gender split of 79 females to 70 males. The second qualitative phase included 29 interviews with Emirati (five), United Kingdom (12) and Indian (12) leaders.

The study identified three key findings. First, while national cultural characteristics affected individual leadership traits, they did not affect the overall level of servant leadership. Contrary to the previous literature, there were no significant differences in servant leadership levels among Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. Second, differences existed in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure, with strong organisational culture proving more impactful than national culture. Third, differences emerged in leadership approaches relative to leaders' seniority.

This study contributes to servant leadership theory in particular, and leadership theories in general, in several ways. Significantly, this is a rare empirical study of a single multinational organisation using a mixed-methods approach to explore the cross-national differences across samples from the Emirates, the United Kingdom and India.

Additionally, it addresses a gap in our knowledge of Emirati servant leadership in business. The study also contributes to practice by informing Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders about the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics and provides insights to enhance their approach to multinational team leadership.

Servant leaders may benefit from the research to develop their leadership strategies to effectively manage the relationship between servant leadership, national characteristics and organisational culture.

The study may inform learning and development strategies within multinational organisations, particularly in the realms of cross-cultural communication and the implementation of servant leadership practices across diverse nationalities. The implications extend to the refinement of training programs, the cultivation of a culturally agile workforce, and the establishment of leadership frameworks that resonate across diverse cultural contexts.

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

AGFI	adjusted goodness-of-fit index
AIC	Akaike information criterion
AMOS	Analysis of Movement Structures
ANOVA	a statistical method in which the variation in a set of observations is divided into distinct components
APA	American Psychological Association
AVE	average variance extracted
BIC	Bayesian information criterion
CFA	confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	comparative fit index
CLT	cultural leadership theory
EFA	exploratory factor analysis
GFI	goodness of fit
IT	information technology
MA	moving average
RMR	root mean square residual
RMSEA	root mean square error of approximation
SD	standard deviation
SLS	servant leadership survey
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SRMR	standardised root mean square residual
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UK	United Kingdom
VSM 94	Values Survey Module 1994

Chapter 1 Introduction

Research has demonstrated a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among diverse leaders (Arun et al., 2021; Sahertian & Jawas, 2021). Additionally, studies have found a significant relationship between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identities (Newman et al., 2018; Tufan & Wendt, 2020). Furthermore, the literature suggests that a manager's nationality significantly influences specific leadership characteristics (Novosad & Werker, 2019). In addition, the literature notes that managers' tenure was significantly associated with their leadership (Lee et al., 2020; Peerman, 2021). In contrast, research suggests no significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics (Caponigro, 2020; Sallemi et al., 2021). These studies are relevant to the research because they examined (a) the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among diverse leaders, (b) the relationship between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identities and leadership, and (c) the relationship between managers' tenure and seniority and leadership. They also provide a foundation for the current research questions and hypotheses.

This study aims to contribute to the literature by exploring how cultural factors may influence the perception and practice of servant leadership and employee perceptions. Additionally, this study provides insights into how organisations can use cultural differences to promote more effective and cross-cultural leadership practices. The study can help organisations better understand how to develop and support servant leaders over time. Overall, the study provides valuable insights for organisations operating in multinational settings because they can use the findings to develop leadership development programs tailored to different cultural contexts and leadership levels. This study ultimately

contributes to developing effective leadership practices in multinational organisations, improving organisational outcomes and employee well-being.

Chapter 1 discusses the background of the study, the purpose of the study, the problem statement, the research questions, and the nature of the study. Finally, this chapter concludes with an outline of the organisation of this dissertation.

1.1 Background of the Study

Research suggests a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics. For example, Zhang et al. (2019) and Lee et al. (2020) found that servant leadership was significantly and negatively associated with cultural characteristics such as masculinity, individualism, and power distance. In contrast, Chung (2017) and Setyaningrum (2017) found that servant leadership was significantly and positively correlated with national culture dimensions such as power distance. In line with other studies, Arun et al. (2021), Hannay (2016), Kim et al. (2018), Sahertian and Jawas (2021), and Shahin et al. (2018) found that leadership was significantly associated with cultural characteristics. The literature review led up to the dissertation research by examining the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics.

1.1.1 Cultural Characteristics

Hofstede used factor analysis in an extensive global study to identify four cultural dimensions: power distance; individualism; masculinity and uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede, 1990). After further research a fifth dimension was added; short-term and long-term orientation (Hofstede, 1993).

The Power Distance Index examines the extent to which a country's populace accepts inherent inequalities within culture (Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Hofstede, 1980). The

second dimension of Individualism versus Collectivism quantifies the degree of independence prevailing in a society and appraising self-perception in terms of "I" or "we" (Brodbeck et al., 2000; Hofstede, 1980).

Masculinity versus Femininity, assessing the extent to which a society is motivated by achievements, success, and competition without gender-based discrimination (Gerstner & Day, 1994; Hofstede, 1980). The fourth dimension, the Uncertainty Avoidance Index, gauges the level of societal discomfort with unknown or ambiguous situations (Hofstede, 1980; Leung & Bond, 1989). The final dimension, Long-Term Orientation, delineates how societies apply connections with past events to confront present and future challenges. Societies with higher scores in this dimension adopt a pragmatic approach, while those with lower scores prefer to uphold traditions (van Dierendonck et al., 2017).

Subsequent research by van Dierendonck et al. (2011) and Beugelsdijk and Welzel (2018) found significant differences in cultural characteristics (that is, individualism versus collectivism) among various leaders. Middle Eastern countries were collectivistic, whereas Western countries were individualistic. Middle Eastern countries were more likely to focus on high-power distance than Western countries. Middle Eastern countries were less likely to focus on future and performance orientation and uncertainty avoidance than Western countries. Middle Eastern countries were more likely to focus on a humane orientation, collectivism, and assertiveness orientation than Middle Eastern countries. Western countries were more likely to focus on future orientation and gender egalitarianism than Middle Eastern countries. Collaborative leadership was an influential leadership behaviour in the Western world. Individualism – collectivism and power distance – distinguished the East from the West. Eastern managers were collectivists, whereas Western managers were individualists. Eastern managers were likely to distinguish between in-group and out-group

members (Zhang et al., 2019). Therefore, Indian, and Middle Eastern managers tended to believe they could treat individuals differently depending on their relationship with people.

1.1.2 Servant Leadership

Research into servant leadership theory proposes that a leader's primary motivation and role should be to serve others (Liden, Panaccio, Meuser, Hu, & Wayne, 2014), adopting a democratic style that promotes organisational goals through the growth and wellbeing of all employees (Gregoire & Arendt, 2014). This leadership approach emphasises assisting employees in reaching their fullest potential (Dinh et al., 2014), thereby supporting the organisation's objectives.

Various taxonomies have been developed to describe the characteristics of a servant leader taxonomies (Dinh et al., 2014).

A defining model is that of Greenleaf (1970; 1998) and further refined by Greenleaf and Spears (2002), which has used scales to measure the dimensions (Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014). According to Greenleaf (1970; 1998), servant leaders possess 10 specific characteristics: (1) listening, (2) empathy, (3) healing, (4) conceptualisation, (5) awareness, (6) persuasion, (7) foresight, (8) building community, (9) stewardship, and (10) commitment towards the growth of the people (Spears, 2010).

1.1.3 Servant Leadership and Cultural Characteristics

Studies by Beugelsdijk and Welzel (2018), Cabela (2018), Carroll and Patterson (2016), Khazma et al. (2016), Seto and Sarros (2016), Sylaj (2019), and van Dierendonck et al. (2017) have investigated the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among diverse leaders.

Consistent with other studies, Nart et al. (2018) found that a manager's nationality was significantly correlated with servant leadership. Similarly, Boone et al. (2019) also found a significant effect of a manager's nationality on leadership characteristics.

1.1.4 Manager Nationality and Employee Nationality

Further, research suggests that a significant relationship exists between the interaction of manager ethnic identity and employee ethnic identity. For example, Berger et al. (2017), Caza et al. (2021), Contiu (2020), Fan and Harzing (2017), Newman et al. (2018), Siebers (2017), Szydło and Grześ-Bukłaho (2020), Tariq and Syed (2017), Tufan and Wendt (2020), and Wong et al. (2017) found a relationship between the interaction of manager ethnic identity and employee ethnic identity. Specifically, Muslim employees described how their Netherlands managers allow them to practise their religion and constrain them simultaneously.

Similarly, Szydło and Grześ-Bukłaho's (2020) and Contiu's (2020) suggest that a significant relationship existed between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identity.

The literature led up to the dissertation research by examining the impact of a manager's nationality on leadership characteristics. There were diverse perspectives regarding the impact of a manager's nationality on leadership characteristics. Most of the findings suggest a significant impact of a manager's nationality on leadership characteristics.

1.1.5 Organisation Culture and National Culture Characteristics

Research suggests that there is a significant relationship between organisational culture characteristics and national culture characteristics. For example, Ansah and Louw (2019) found that high uncertainty avoidance and high-power distance cultures significantly and positively affected organisational culture. Two hundred and sixty-nine managers in Ghana

were surveyed and analysed, and a structural equation modelling analysis was performed (Ansah & Louw, 2019).

Similarly, Fietz et al. (2021) examined the effects of national culture on organisational resilience. Consistent with other studies, the authors found that power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and indulgence significantly affected an organisation's resilience. Kirin et al. (2017) also examined the interaction effects of national cultural characteristics and organisational cultural characteristics. The authors found the significant effects of interaction between national cultural characteristics and organisational cultural characteristics.

Mahbub (2017) found that national culture was associated with corporate culture. Ten employees in Bangladesh were selected, interviewed, and analysed. A qualitative research methodology was used to examine the relationship between national and corporate cultures. The author's study can help comprehend how multinational organisations can adapt their business to their local culture. The author's study suggests that employees can mitigate cultural differences.

Additionally, Hamza's (2018) cross-sectorial comparison study between private and public sector organisations in Iraqi Kurdistan finds significant effects of interaction between national cultural characteristics and organisational cultural characteristics.

In contrast, Mansaray's (2020) study does not align with other studies. The author found that national culture characteristics were not significantly associated with organisational culture.

Research also suggests a significant relationship between time living and working in a different culture and the characteristics of national culture. Harding (2016) found that there

was a significant difference in the categories, such as indulgence and individualism between three American groups (that is, Americans who had never resided abroad, Americans who had resided abroad between one and five years, Americans who had resided abroad between six and ten years). There was no significant difference in the categories such as power distance, masculinity, long-term orientation, and uncertainty avoidance, between the three American groups.

1.1.6 Social Environment impact on Leaders and Workers

The leadership styles and behaviours of workers within organisational settings are significantly influenced by the social environment, particularly cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1980). Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory is instrumental in understanding how leadership approaches are shaped by cultural factors. For instance, collectivist cultures prioritise teamwork and group cohesion in leadership, whereas individualistic cultures may encourage more independent leadership styles (Hofstede, 1980). As an additional example, servant leaders can serve to inspire followers, through their consistent actions and behaviours, creating an effect both inside and outside of their organisation (Liden et al., 2008; Eva et al., 2019).

The concept of social support in the workplace, rooted in social psychology theories, underscores the impact of positive social interactions on employee well-being and job satisfaction (House & Kahn, 1985; Grant, 2007). A supportive social environment fosters positive relationships among colleagues and between leaders and subordinates, contributing significantly to overall organisational performance.

Societal factors, including economic conditions, also play a pivotal role in leadership and worker dynamics. Economic downturns, as noted in studies (Kniffin et al., 2016), can elevate stress levels among workers, influencing their job performance and satisfaction.

Leaders are tasked with navigating these challenges and adapting their leadership strategies to address the impact of economic uncertainties on their teams.

Therefore, the social environment, which encompasses cultural, social, and economic dimensions, plays an important role in shaping leadership and worker dynamics.

Understanding and adapting to these social dynamics are imperative for effective leadership and creating positive, productive, and inclusive work environments.

1.1.7 Manager Tenure

King and Haar (2017), Lajoie et al. (2017), Lee et al. (2020), Phungsoonthorn and Charoensukmongkol (2018), and Woods (2018) found significant differences in leadership based on the manager's tenure. Specifically, the leadership style of tenured managers reduced turnover, managers with a long tenure were less innovative than those with a short tenure. Similarly, servant leadership had a stronger, positive relationship with task performance for shorter-tenured individuals than for longer-tenured individuals.

While there are diverse perspectives regarding the relationship between tenure or time living and working in a different culture and the characteristics of national culture, most of the findings suggest a significant relationship between tenure or time living and working in a different culture and the characteristics of national culture.

The literature led up to the dissertation research by examining the relationship between tenure and the characteristics of national culture.

1.1.8 Manager Grade Seniority

Research suggests no significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics. For example, Caponigro (2020), Palta (2019), and Trapero et al. (2017) found no significant difference in perceived servant leadership based

on grade seniority. However, unlike other studies, Heyns et al. (2020) and Sallemi et al. (2021) found that grade seniority was significantly correlated with their leadership. Consistent with Heyns et al.'s (2020) study and Sallemi et al.'s (2021) study, Daly (2020) found that grade seniority moderated the relationship between perceived servant leadership and employee outcomes. However, most findings suggest no differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics. The literature led to the dissertation research examining the differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics.

1.1.9 Significance of the Study

Servant leadership theory in cultural contexts has been investigated to some extent. However, studies examining cultural background and servant leadership are limited, and research needs to identify the differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality, and the interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees' and managers' differences. Furthermore, the differences between line managers' tenures and grade seniority and cultural or leadership scale scores, and employees' perceptions regarding these relationships and differences in a UAE-based multinational organisation is non-existent. The present study fills the gap in the literature by using a mixed-methods approach, providing a more comprehensive understanding of these relationships and differences and employees' perceptions. The present study also offers a vital first step in promoting how servant leadership can be successfully implemented in culturally diverse organisations.

1.1.10 Implication of the Study

The mixed-methods study on servant leadership and cultural characteristics has significant implications for both theory and practice. From a theoretical perspective, the study

contributes to servant leadership theory by exploring the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among leaders from three different nationalities within a multinational organisation in the United Arab Emirates.

Scholars and servant leaders can use the research, and included questionnaires, to provide a framework to understand the dimensions of servant leadership and relationship with culture.

Servant leaders may use the research to develop their leadership strategies to effectively manage the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics, in particular those from the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom and India.

These leaders may also gain further understanding of the significance of organisational culture in shaping leadership approaches and facilitating servant leadership.

The research also emphasises the importance of developing leaders' skills and attributes in line with the servant leadership model.

The study will underscore the importance of cross-cultural communication and understanding in multinational organisations, highlighting the need for leaders to be culturally aware and adaptable in their approaches.

Additionally, the research identifies the opportunity for organisations in prioritizing training and development programs that support their leaders in becoming influential servant leaders, and ensure effective communication and collaboration across diverse cultural backgrounds.

Overall, the study significantly contributes to advancing servant leadership theory and offers practical insights for leadership development and practice in multinational

organisations. The findings suggest that servant leadership is a promising model that can be adapted to various cultural contexts, ultimately leading to positive outcomes for employees and organisations.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

This mixed-methods study investigated the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics and employees' perceptions related to the difference in the level of servant leadership across three different cultures (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India). It also examined the differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure and seniority in a UAE-based multinational organisation. The qualitative study followed the quantitative phase of the study. This approach was followed so that the quantitative study helped to identify the key issues to examine in depth through the interviews.

1.3 Research Questions

The quantitative research questions were as follows:

Section 1 – Servant Leadership and Cultural Characteristics

RQ1: What is the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders?

RQ2: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Emirati leaders?

RQ3: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among United Kingdom leaders?

RQ4: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Indian leaders?

RQ5: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, as well as any possible interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers?

RQ6: Does the manager's nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) mediate the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics?

Section 2 – Servant Leadership and Manager Tenure

RQ7: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' tenures and cultural or leadership scale scores?

Section 3 – Servant Leadership and Manager Grade Seniority

RQ8: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and cultural or leadership scale scores?

1.3.1 Qualitative Study

Following the qualitative study, the researcher used a qualitative study to explore the following questions in depth:

Question 1. How different is servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders?

Question 2. How different is leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure?

Question 3. How different is leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority?

1.4 Nature of the Study

The study's target population included employees from a multinational company with offices in the United Arab Emirates. The sample of the study involved three groups (that is, Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders working for a multinational company situated in the United Arab Emirates). The three cultures were selected as they are the nationalities most highly represented in the company's leadership roles. The eligibility criteria for this research sample include the following:

- being between the ages of 18 and 65
- being a United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, or Indian citizen
- working at a multinational company in the United Arab Emirates.

A thorough literature review was undertaken to make well informed decisions for the research methodology. The researcher selected the mixed-methods approach due to its relation to the research topic. Quantitative research allows researchers to quantify human behaviour using specific variables (Bryman, 2016). Quantitative studies answer the questions and are deductive (Leedy & Omrod, 2016). A quantitative methodology can determine if differences and relationships are statistically significant. Qualitative studies address the ‘how’ and ‘why’ questions and are inductive (Patton, 2015). A qualitative approach is appropriate for establishing a theory, a model, a definition, or understanding a phenomenon (Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015). A qualitative approach is appropriate for exploring a particular perception (Yin, 2018) and is most suitable for describing the perceptions of employees from a (single) multinational company with offices in the United Arab Emirates (Yin, 2018). A qualitative method is necessary to explore the nuances of participant responses to interview questions.

The research employed a mixed-methods approach, as guided by Hirose and Creswell (2023), combining quantitative and qualitative data to achieve a comprehensive understanding. Beginning with a quantitative phase, the study established a foundation of statistical relationships, guiding subsequent qualitative inquiry. This tiered strategy ensured that the qualitative phase was informed by patterns identified in the quantitative data, resulting in a nuanced and analytically robust study. Integrating both quantitative and qualitative strands, following Hirose and Creswell's recommendations, led to a holistic

analysis that was greater the sum of its parts, enhancing the validity and depth of comprehension of the research.

In cross-cultural research, the mixed-methods approach proved advantageous (Dawson, 2019; Hirose & Creswell, 2023), mitigating biases inherent in a single methodological lens. By utilizing both quantitative and qualitative methods, the study achieved a balanced and accurate depiction of leadership across diverse cultures. Quantitative results established statistical relationships, while qualitative findings delved into the underlying reasons, revealing contradictions and unexpected nuances in cross-cultural interactions.

The survey instrument used contained quantitative closed-ended Likert scale questions that began with a series of screening questions to ensure the survey targeted the correct audience. The demographic and multiple-choice questions with a Likert scale associated with the study's constructs followed. Quantitative research collects quantifiable, numeric data and explores relationships between independent and dependent variables (Watson, 2015). The primary objective of the quantitative, correlational research design is to measure the behaviour and strength of any relationship between two variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2015). Quantitative researchers examine the impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable. The quantitative method can be examined using context-specific knowledge (Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015).

Therefore, the mixed-methods approach, is appropriate for examining the research questions.

The single UAE-based multinational company serves as a unique platform for context-specific contributions and as a testing ground for the research questions. Such an entity provides an ideal setting to study the interplay between servant leadership and national culture. As a testing bed, the company becomes a microcosm reflecting the broader

societal and cultural trends, facilitating targeted research, and providing insights that are both theoretically significant and practically relevant.

Cross-border studies within the same organisation have limitations reflecting the different organisational culture that exists within a company's international locations.

Kwantes et al. (2010) identified in their research into managing organisational culture in a multinational corporation with headquarters in the United States. This study across employees of the multinational across three countries, more than half the organisation culture styles differed indicating both differences based on the location of the employees and some common experience. The perceived differences in organisational culture that emerged were consistent with research on differences in social culture (c.f., Bu & McKeen, 2001).

This opportunity to study three nationalities working within the same multi-national and in the same country (UAE) offers an opportunity to remove the geographic company subculture.

Additionally, to the researcher's knowledge, no empirical studies have examined the co-relationship between servant leadership and background cultural characteristics in a single case study organisation focusing on two or more national cultures.

1.5 Organisation of the Study

Chapter One has provided an introduction to this mixed methods study providing the purpose, significance, and research questions along with background information. Chapter Two will examine the literature on culture and servant leadership. Chapter Three will explain the development of the research questions from this literature. Next, Chapter Four will outline the research design and rationale for this mixed methods study followed by

Chapter Five which will explain the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data gathered during the study. Chapter Six will answer the study's research questions and discuss the findings in the context of the literature. Lastly, Chapter Seven will address the implications for theory and practice with limitations of the study.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Due to various drawbacks in the traditional leadership paradigms, the concept of servant leadership came into existence, which is focused on serving others before oneself. Servant and leader are two contrary words often not seen in the same sentence, but their combination has created a revolutionary form of leadership. Servant leadership has upended the traditional paradigms of the old leadership, placing the employees at the top. This form of leadership emphasises the moral sense of concern for others. Some research has demonstrated that leadership styles affect employee commitment, employee motivation and performance, and organisational productivity (Masa'deh et al. 2016). Leadership style-specific research that focused on servant leadership has shown the influence servant leadership has on the employees and the organisation (Tischler et al., 2016). Other research has identified that an individual's cultural background influences leadership style and skills (Ag Budin & Wafa, 2015).

However, while servant leadership theory in cultural contexts has been investigated to some extent, studies related specifically to cultural background and servant leadership, particularly, are limited (Setyaningrum, 2017). To the researcher's knowledge, no empirical studies have examined the co-relationship between servant leadership and background cultural characteristics in a single case study organisation focusing on two or more national cultures. Therefore, this mixed-methods study identifies the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics and employees' perceptions related to the extent of servant leadership across three different cultures--the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India). It further explores the differences in

leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure and seniority in the United Arab Emirates (UAE)-based multinational organisation.

The central focus of this literature review is on servant leadership. Following the brief introduction of the impact of leadership styles, those in servant leadership in particular and a reassertion of the knowledge gap in the literature, the chapter begins with discussions regarding the theoretical framework introducing Greenleaf's model of leadership (1970; 1998; Greenleaf and Spears, 2002). Next, a discussion of the foundations and characteristics of Servant Leadership which is followed by the comparative understanding of servant leadership within the context of other leadership theories and cultural characteristics. The final section includes the conclusion.

2.2 Significant Leadership Styles

Discussing significant leadership styles provides valuable insights into their distinct characteristics, goals, and approaches (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Authentic leadership, as proposed by Avolio and Gardner (2005), emphasises self-awareness, relational transparency, and a balanced approach to conducting affairs, aiming to align followers' values with tasks and challenges. However, while prioritizing honesty and integrity, authentic leadership may not address deeper employee needs (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Servant leadership, as conceptualized by Greenleaf (1977), shares similarities with authentic leadership in vision and self-awareness but diverges by prioritizing employee attitudinal improvement over productivity. Servant leadership focuses on meeting others' needs and fostering collective trust (Liden et al., 2008), distinguishing itself as a cause-oriented approach that prioritises holistic development.

Transformational leadership, according to Bass and Riggio (2006), emphasises inspiring and motivating employees to innovate and achieve organisational goals. Transformational

leadership aims for overall follower development and performance improvement (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transactional leadership, as delineated by Burns (1978), focuses on the exchange between leaders and followers, where rewards and punishments motivate performance. In contrast, servant leadership, according to Spears (1998), emphasises prioritizing others' development over transactional exchanges.

Charismatic leadership, as studied by House (1977), focuses on the leader's charisma and inspirational qualities to motivate followers. While there may be overlaps in inspiring motivation, servant leadership differs by emphasizing fostering a culture of empathy and support (Van Dierendonck, 2011). Situational leadership, as proposed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969), adapts leadership style based on the situation and followers' readiness. While situational leadership acknowledges flexibility in leadership, servant leadership prioritises serving others' needs regardless of the problem (Ehrhart, 2004). Laissez-faire leadership involves minimal leader interference, providing followers autonomy to make decisions. In contrast, servant leadership involves active engagement and support from the leader in fostering followers' development (Greenleaf, 1977).

Overall, understanding the nuances of these leadership styles is crucial (Northouse, 2015). While each offers advantages, servant leadership emerges as compelling for promoting employee well-being, trust, and collective success. By critically analysing these styles and their comparative strengths, organisations can make informed decisions about leadership practices aligned with their values and goals.

2.3 Traditional Servant Leadership Theory and Models

Over the last several decades, leadership theory has included a compendium of trait-centred, behaviour-focused, and contingency-based theories, evolving to contemporary approaches, including servant leadership theory. Servant leadership theory asserts that the leader's primary motivation and role must be to provide service to others (Liden, Panaccio, Meuser, Hu, & Wayne, 2014). As a democratic leadership style, servant leadership suggests that organisational goals and objectives will be achieved by facilitating all employees' growth and general wellbeing (Gregoire & Arendt, 2014). Such a leadership style emphasises helping employees reach their fullest potential (Dinh et al., 2014), which will, in turn, support the goals of the organisation.

Foundational principles derived from ancient philosophies and contemporary leadership theories form the basis of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977; Spears, 2010). Greenleaf and Spears outline key principles, including empathy, listening, emotional healing, self-awareness, commitment to growth, community-building, conceptualization, foresight, persuasion, and stewardship. These characteristics are justified based on their role in fostering effective leadership and addressing the needs of diverse cultural contexts.

Servant leaders prioritise understanding the feelings and frustrations of others, crucial for fostering trust and connection in culturally diverse environments (Greenleaf, 1977).

Effective communication, essential in any cultural setting, is exemplified by servant leaders through active listening, ensuring they hear and value diverse perspectives (Spears, 2010). Emotional healing, also emphasised by Greenleaf and Spears, addresses conflicts arising from cultural differences, promoting understanding and reconciliation.

Servant leaders' self-awareness enables them to navigate cultural complexities with humility and openness, fostering a culture of mutual respect and learning (Greenleaf,

1977). Nurturing the growth of team members is a priority, recognizing the intrinsic value of each individual's contributions irrespective of cultural background (Spears, 2010).

Cultural awareness and sensitivity are central to creating inclusive organisational communities, where servant leaders strive to build cohesive and supportive environments valuing diverse cultural perspectives (Greenleaf, 1977). Cultural agility, foresight, persuasion, and humility are highlighted as essential characteristics by van Dierendonck and Patterson (2015), contributing to the overall development and effectiveness of servant leaders in navigating cultural complexities and fostering inclusive organisational cultures.

The conclusion regarding the importance of specific characteristics for servant leaders is grounded in a thorough analysis of scholarly literature, including the works of Greenleaf (1977), Spears (2010), and van Dierendonck and Patterson (2015), and empirical research. Extensive literature reviews consistently highlight these traits as fundamental, and empirical evidence demonstrates correlations between servant leadership behaviours and positive organisational outcomes. Theoretical frameworks, such as those proposed by Greenleaf and subsequent scholars, provide a conceptual basis, and practical application in organisational settings underscores the significance of these characteristics. In summary, the conclusion is well-supported by a robust body of literature, empirical evidence, theoretical frameworks, practical application, and alignment with organisational values, emphasizing the integral role of these traits in servant leadership's effectiveness across diverse organisational contexts.

The servant leadership approach has been developed according to several taxonomies (Dinh et al., 2014), but in general, suggests that the five characteristics of a servant leader include: (1) authenticity, (2) vulnerability, (3) accepting nature, (4) present-tense acting, and (5) usefulness or utility (Gregoire & Arendt, 2014; Washington et al., 2014). In

another conceptualisation, these five traits of a servant leader are described as valuing people, developing people, building community, providing leadership, displaying authenticity, and sharing leadership (van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015). A third conceptual model by Russell and Stone (2002) considered 20 servant leader characteristics, including vision, modelling, communication, credibility, listening, integrity, persuasion, honesty, pioneering, appreciation, competence, encouragement, service, delegation, visibility, trust, empowerment, stewardship, and influence (Washington et al., 2014).

However, other theorists have characterised servant leadership as a style that naturally follows transformational leadership style and thus makes up a conceptual model for servant leadership based on love, humility, altruism, empowerment, service, vision, and trust (Seto & Sarros, 2016). For example, Patterson (2003) defines servant leadership as having seven attributes, including love for others, concern for the wellbeing of others, being teachable to oneself, having and demonstrating self-discipline, believing in and pursuing the greatest good for all and for the organisation, being merciful in thought and deed, meeting the needs of the employees and peers within the organisation, and creating a space for peace within the organisation. Other theorists have developed a conceptual model for servant leadership with 10 dimensions and a scale that was produced by Liden, Wayne, Liao, and Meuser (2014) that measures dimensions including: (1) healing, (2) awareness, (3) persuasion, (4) listening, (5) empathy, (6) stewardship, (7) commitment, (8) conceptualisation, (9) foresight, and (10) building society.

One study investigated the association between servant leadership and cultural characteristics (Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014). However, the extent of this association between servant leadership and cultural characteristics is unknown because

researchers have not tested the relationship between servant leadership and specific ethnic and cultural characteristics utilising empirical data, creating a vast knowledge gap. Consequently, there is an increased need for an empirical study to be conducted that utilises a validated tool to establish the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics to provide enhanced support for the theoretical claims of the association. Simultaneously, using empirical data to establish and illustrate the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics will show the extent of the relationship, rather than just acknowledge its mere existence.

2.4 Greenleaf's Model of Leadership

Regardless of how the dimensions or constructs are packaged, the main traits of servant leadership have been considered to characterise a leadership that contributes to, supports, and facilitates the physical and psychological wellbeing of the employees (Gregoire & Arendt, 2014; Rivkin et al., 2014). This trait is especially the case with Greenleaf's model of leadership (1970; 1998) and further refined by Greenleaf and Spears (2002), a model which has used scales to measure the dimensions (Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014). In this model, it is presumed that servant leadership, which is best suited for church, education, health, and business organisations (Greenleaf, 1970; 1998), is rooted in ethics, morality, and the virtues above developed one on top of the other in five primary dimensions: (1) self-awareness, (2) listening to others, (3) empathy for others, (4) development of others, and (5) foresight (Greenleaf & Spears, 2002).

In 1977, Greenleaf developed the servant leadership model that regarded the servant as the leader. Greenleaf (1977) devised servant leadership after reading *the Journey to the East* (Hesse, 1932). After the story's servant character, Leo went on a journey with a group of people, he disappeared, which caused the journey to be discarded (Greenleaf, 1977).

People found that Leo was their leader, which led to Greenleaf's (1977) servant leadership model. Greenleaf (1977) argues that a good leader is a servant. According to Greenleaf (1977), servant leaders are servants of their followers. Servant leaders tended to emphasise the interest of their followers rather than their own interests (Greenleaf, 1977).

The servant leader acknowledges the perspectives of others and provides support to these people so that they can meet work and personal goals. As such, servant leaders involve team members in decision-making activities and in building a workplace community (van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015). According to Greenleaf (1970; 1998), servant leaders possess 10 specific characteristics: (1) listening, (2) empathy, (3) healing, (4) conceptualisation, (5) awareness, (6) persuasion, (7) foresight, (8) building community, (9) stewardship, and (10) commitment towards the growth of the people (Spears, 2010).

Therefore, when the servant leader demonstrates service attributes, the leader's charges will be physically and psychologically supported. When employees are physically and mentally supported, they are more productive for the organisation (Tischler et al., 2016).

According to Greenleaf (1977), the first characteristic required to be present in a servant leader is receptive listening. A leader needs to listen receptively to what others are saying. Listening to followers can help one acquire vital information relevant to the business.

Servant leaders should communicate with their followers by acknowledging their point of view, which means that they should have the attitude of a selfless servant. Servant leaders should listen intently to what others say. It also helps determine a person's readiness level to work. A leader with this quality can build a team of employees willing to work to achieve a common goal. The second characteristic of the servant leader is empathy toward followers. The servant leader always accepts others as they are and never rejects them. At times, the servant leader might also reject a person's efforts, but this must only sometimes

happen. The third trait, as given by Greenleaf (1977), is that the servant leader must possess intuition and foresight. The servant leader must be able to foresee something unforeseeable and possess a sense of something which is unknowable. Foresight is defined as the “lead” possessed by a leader. Servant leadership is generally lost due to the lack of insight “to foresee what reasonably could have been foreseen, and from failure to act on that knowledge while the servant leader had the freedom to act” (Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014). This intuition enables the servant leader to bridge the gap between them, which is present in the needed information and the available information.

Possessing awareness and perception is the next characteristic of a servant leader. Awareness enables servant leaders to comprehend issues regarding values, which means they can be responsive to their surroundings. Servant leaders should convince their followers to have an impact on them. Possessing awareness and perception allows the servant leader to differentiate what work is urgent and what is important. Highly developed persuasion powers are essential for a servant leader. The servant leader initiates, gives ideas to proceed, provides a structure, and takes the risks of failing along with the chances to succeed.

The servant leader also can communicate all the concepts to the followers. The servant leader can also conceptualise. The servant leader can identify the goals, and for all those followers who are unsure of the aim, they can articulate the same to them. The term “goal” is particularly used by Greenleaf (1977) to signify the big dreams a servant leader visualises.

Apart from the characteristics mentioned above, there are three other characteristics of a servant leader, which include building workplace community (van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015); developing the art of contemplating (Grandy & Sliwa, 2017); and having

the capability to influence different individuals, followers, and institutions (Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014). To become a servant leader, they should inevitably have the desire to bring a change within themselves. “If a flaw in the world is to be remedied, to the servant, the process of change starts in here, in the servant, not out there” (Greenleaf, 1970, n. p.).

2.5 Foundations of Servant Leadership

Based on ancient philosophies, servant leadership has several foundations and principles. For Greenleaf (1977), these foundations and principles included “empathy, mental models, reflection, self-awareness, emotional healing, listening, commitment [to the growth of others], and community building” (Geer & Coleman, 2014, p. 114). For Spears (2010), these foundations and principles have included empathy, listening, emotional healing, self-awareness, commitment to the growth of others, and building community, but also include foresight, conceptualisation, persuasion, and overall stewardship. Each of these are explained below.

2.5.1 Empathy

Empathy is appreciating the feelings, responses, and frustrations of others by providing a basis for servant leaders to work with subordinates as well as peers. Spears (2010) explains that “People need to be accepted and recognised for their special and unique spirits” (p. 27). Even when employees speak or behave in unacceptable ways, the servant leader may reject the speech or behaviour but not the person or persons, because the empathetic servant leader assumes that people have good intentions.

2.5.2 Listening

According to Spears (2010), “The most successful servant leaders are those who have become skilled, empathetic listeners” (p. 27). Along with empathy, the servant leader

possesses good listening skills. This possession means the servant leader engages in inactive or empathetic listening.

2.5.3 Emotional Healing

While complex, the principle of emotional healing offers the assumption that “the healing of relationships is a powerful force for transformation and integration” (Spears, 2010, p. 27). The servant leader can heal themselves and in turn heal connections between self and others (Spears, 2010). This healing component is premised on Greenleaf’s (1977, in Spears, 2010) proposition that both leader and followers have ambitions toward seeking wholeness of self and, therefore, of seeking wholeness of relationships.

2.5.4 Self-Awareness

Along with reflection, the self-awareness component requires the servant leader the ability to maintain attentiveness to others, to self, and the relationship between self and other(s). According to Spears (2010), “Awareness helps one in understanding issues involving ethics, power, and values. It lends itself to view most situations from a more integrated, holistic position” (pp. 27–28).

Awareness, as observed by Greenleaf (1977), and reiterated by Spears (2010), does not feed or fuel solitary efforts, but is an energiser, an awakener, and a disturber. Rather than being stalled in complacency, the aware servant leader is “usually sharply awake and reasonably disturbed” (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 40, in Spears, 2010, p. 28).

2.5.5 Commitment to the Growth of Others

Just as the leader and followers are assumed to seek wholeness (Greenleaf, 1977; Spears, 2010), they are moving toward such wholeness and self-actualisation by developing and growing in all areas of their lives. Spears (2010) states, “Servant leaders believe that people have an intrinsic value beyond their tangible contributions as workers” (p. 29).

Maintaining such a belief, the servant leader assumes the responsibility of nurturing, supporting, and facilitating the personal, as well as the professional development of employees and colleagues. This responsibility can involve taking an interest in, providing funds for, and encouraging involvement in group decision making, group professional development activities, and pre- and post-practices toward personal and professional betterment.

2.5.6 Building Community

According to Spears (2010), the historical shifts of people from close-knit communities to institutions and global structures have shaped people's community differently and requires awareness and recognition on the part of the servant leader. In turn, the awareness will lead the servant leader to search for ways to focus on the individual institution or organisation to build a "true community" (p. 29). This community might be part of what Greenleaf (1977; 2002, in Spears, 2010) considered

rebuild[ing] community as a viable life form for large numbers of people... with enough servant-leaders to show the way, not by mass movements, but by each servant-leader demonstrating his or her unlimited liability for a quite specific community-related group (Greenleaf, 1977, p. 53, in Spears, 2010, p. 29).

2.5.7 Conceptualisation

Spears (2010, p. 28) asserts that "Servant leaders seek to nurture their abilities to dream great dreams". For the servant leader, conceptualising requires that they be able to "think beyond day-to-day realities" (p. 28). Practice and discipline are necessary, and along with foresight, which see the servant leader looking beyond the kind of thinking used for short-term operational goal achievement to the kind of thinking that encompasses "broader-based conceptual... [visionary]... thinking" (p. 28).

2.5.8 Foresight

Like conceptualisation, foresight involves attention to and understanding of situations, but also requires attention and conceptualisation before the fact or instance at hand:

Foresight is a characteristic that enables the servant leader to understand the lessons from the past, the realities of the present, and the likely consequence of a decision for the future (Spears, 2010, p. 28).

According to Spears (2010), it is not easy to define, but easier to identify, foresight, because it is as much intuitive as it is cognitive.

2.5.9 Persuasion

“In making decisions, the servant leader will also rely upon the powers of persuasion, moving beyond just relying upon his or her positional authority” (Spears, 2010, p. 28).

According to Spears (2010), “The servant leader seeks to convince others rather than coerce compliance” (p. 28). In addition, persuasion as a foundation of leadership distinguishes servant leadership from other styles of leadership that are characteristically more authoritarian (Spears, 2010).

2.5.10 Stewardship

Stewardship is the embodying component of servant leadership. The servant leader is entrusted with holding, or holds in trust, the situation, serving all others for the good of all by taking stewardship (for example, the community, the society) (Rachmawati & Lantu, 2014).

2.6 Further Characteristics of Servant Leadership

Beyond what Greenleaf (1977) identified, a servant leader usually possesses many characteristics. These characteristics are divided into two categories: functional attributes and accompanying attributes. Russell and Stone (2002) termed the first category as

functional attributes because of their repetitive importance in the literature. These functional attributes are quite clearly seen in a servant leader and can be observed through the behaviour of the leaders in the workplace. These functional attributes include vision, trust, integrity, honesty, service, pioneering, empowerment, modelling, appreciating the work of others, and pioneering. On the other hand, the accompanying attributes include the remaining characteristics of servant leadership. These characteristics are communication, visibility, competence, credibility, stewardship, listening, delegation, influence, encouragement, and teaching.

Important characteristics that help in the overall development of the servant leaders are listening to their subordinates; always displaying empathy towards others; general awareness about their strengths and weaknesses; persuasion; conceptualisation; committing to the growth and development of the subordinates; possessing foresight; and building a community (van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015). The list mentioned above, as per Greenleaf, is not exhaustive. Traditional leadership style states that it is very important that leaders possess excellent communication skills.

However, as per the model of leadership proposed by Greenleaf (1977), along with excellent communication skills, a leader must also listen to others. If a leader possesses this quality, it will help them to find out whether the process followed by the organisation could be more effective and is the reason for employee dissatisfaction. Development of positive relations with the employees is facilitated, making the leader popular among the employees (Ferri-Reed, 2019).

All employees have their personal lives and their own set of problems. This issue may be the reason for their underperformance. Hence, the leader must be empathetic towards their

feelings and always be polite. Empathy will help in fostering solid relations between the leader and the follower (Greenleaf, 1970).

Servant leadership also has a role in establishing inclusive workplaces. The focus on serving others, empathy, and empowerment (Greenleaf, 1977), has a profound impact on inclusion. Servant leaders actively listen, understand, and support their team members, fostering an environment where diverse voices are valued and heard (Liden et al., 2008).

This approach has been linked to increased employee satisfaction, trust, and organisational commitment (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008). Liden et al's (2008) study underscores how servant leadership, with its focus on individualized consideration and empowerment, contributes to the development of an inclusive and supportive organisational environment. These servant leadership principles are compelling and effective for fostering diversity, equity, and collaboration within organisational cultures.

According to Spears (2010), the relationship between the characteristics of a person and a leader has gained importance. Various scholars have researched on various traits which are generally practised by the servant leaders. The most important characteristics a leader must possess are vision, trustworthiness, inspiration, and empathy.

2.6.1 Major Leadership Styles Compared

2.6.2 Authentic Leadership Versus Servant Leadership

A common leadership style in practice today is authentic leadership. According to Walumbwa et al. (2008), "At the individual leader level, there is growing evidence that an authentic approach to leading is desirable and effective for advancing the human enterprise and achieving positive and enduring outcomes in organisations" (p. 91). Authentic leadership is characterised by a self-aware leader with an internalised morality (Walumbwa et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2014). This self-awareness enables them to recognize and

appreciate the diversity of perspectives within their teams, laying the foundation for inclusive behaviour.

The authentic leader maintains relational transparency, often resulting in followers' internalising values and beliefs to perform tasks or meet challenges (Walumba et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2014). The authentic leader also has and offers a vision they communicate to followers; to achieve goals, the authentic leader conducts affairs with honesty, integrity, and in a balanced manner; and simultaneously, they invite, support, and promote participatory action on the part of followers (Walumba et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2014) building trust and reinforcing an inclusive culture.

However, authentic leaders, when perceived as inauthentic or incongruent in their actions, may undermine trust and credibility among followers (Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005). This perception of inauthenticity can create a sense of exclusion among team members, especially when authenticity is a fundamental value of the leadership style. Additionally, authentic leaders often draw heavily on their personal values, beliefs, and experiences (Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). While authenticity is valued, an overemphasis on personal values may lead to a lack of consideration for the diverse perspectives and values of others, potentially hindering inclusive decision-making.

However, authentic and servant leadership are visionary, honest, and self-aware (Spears, 2010; Walumba et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2014). Authentic leadership and servant leadership also conduct business in a balanced manner. However, the two leadership styles also differ in overarching goals: the authentic leader's and the servant leader's goal is to develop employee productivity and performance, but the servant leader does so by being more concerned with employee attitudinal improvement, which in turn leads to

performance improvement. This is because servant leaders emphasise collective trust over innovation or self-competence influencing employee outcomes (Ling et al., 2017). In conclusion, authentic leadership is different from servant leadership. Authentic leadership is concerned about outcomes rather than approach. However, servant leadership is concerned with leading.

2.6.3 Transformational Leadership Versus Servant Leadership

Another prominent leadership style is transformational leadership. Both transformational leadership and servant leadership styles are attracting attention because they both have similar types of strengths (Chen et al., 2015; Choudhary et al., 2013; Hoch et al., 2016; Seto & Sarros, 2016; van Dierendonck et al., 2017) (See Figure 2 for comparisons).

Because of their similar strengths, people believe both styles are appropriate for bringing the requisite change in organisations (Stone et al., 2004).

The term transformational leadership first came into existence in 1978. The leaders' ability to fulfil their requisite job roles and inspire the workforce under them to work with more enthusiasm, commitment, and energy are described in a publication by Burns (1978). Most leaders believe that energy and commitment are very important factors that can help transform the organisation; in this manner, the employees can be persuaded to become united to achieve the organisation's mission (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Transformational leadership, characterized by inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and idealized influence (Bass, 1985), has been linked to increased inclusion. This leadership style motivates followers to transcend self-interests and contribute to a collective vision, promoting a sense of belonging and shared values (Northouse, 2015). However, the high reliance on the leader's vision may unintentionally sideline alternative viewpoints. This can lead to a lack of inclusivity, as

diverse perspectives may not receive adequate consideration in the pursuit of a singular vision (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Both servant leadership and transformational leadership styles are very similar, but there is one significant difference between them. Transformational leadership encourages employees to innovate (Chen et al., 2015; Choudhary et al., 2013; Hoch et al., 2016; Seto & Sarros, 2016; van Dierendonck et al., 2017). Transformational leadership focuses on improving the performance of those working under a leader. Transformational leadership facilitates the development of the employees to their full potential, ultimately leading to the overall development of the organisation (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

On the other hand, servant leadership focuses on the quality of the leader through which they strive to serve other people (Greenleaf, 1970). Servant leaders ensure that other people's needs must be fulfilled on priority. Servant leaders can influence and inspire others, and serving others is their driving force. The major difference in both styles of leadership is the area of focus of the leader. Although both types of leadership believe in motivating their subordinates and also show some concern for them, but a servant leader is focused only on providing service to the subordinates, whereas transformational leaders focus on the overall development of the followers (Hoch et al., 2016; Seto & Sarros, 2016; Chen et al., 2015; van Dierendonck et al., 2017; Choudhary et al., 2013), which helps in fulfilment of the organisational objectives (Stone et al., 2004).

In conclusion, transformational leadership is different from servant leadership.

Transformational leadership is concerned with the effect. However, servant leadership is concerned with the cause.

2.7 Comparative Strengths of Authentic, Transformational and Servant Leadership Styles

The primary leadership styles under review here have several strengths in common while departing in some components (see Figure 2 Servant Leadership Model). As Figure 2 demonstrates, servant leadership shares some components with both authentic and transformational leadership styles. For example, honesty and moral integrity reveals an overlap among the three leadership styles considered here (Table 1). However, more similarities are found between servant leadership and transformational leadership. In addition, servant leadership carries components not taken into consideration by authentic leadership or by transformational leadership. For example, while some motivation of followers complements each leadership style, only servant leadership has as a primary goal the serving of the needs and the attempting to meet the needs of others.

Table 1 Comparative Strengths of Authentic, Transformational and Servant Leadership Styles

	Authentic Leadership	Transformational Leadership	Servant Leadership
Built on honesty and moral integrity	✓	✓	✓
Built on leader self-awareness	✓		✓
Has goals to meet the needs of others			✓
Acts with vision		✓	✓
Acts with conceptualisation		✓	✓
Acts with foresight		✓	✓
Takes individualised consideration		✓	✓
Maintains relational transparency	✓		✓
Encourages participation	✓		
Encourages enthusiasm and commitment		✓	
Encourages/inspires motivation		✓	✓
Encourages/inspires innovation		✓	
Inspires intellectual stimulation		✓	
Encourages/supports personal/professional development			✓

(Source: Northouse, 2015)

As researchers have concluded (for example, Northouse, 2015), the foundational components of servant leadership, like other leadership styles, contribute to employee performance and productivity. For example, the model of servant leadership based on the 10 foundational components, as introduced by Greenleaf (1977), and further developed by Spears (2010) and Northouse (2015), and is illustrated by Northouse (2015), reproduced in Figure 1 below.

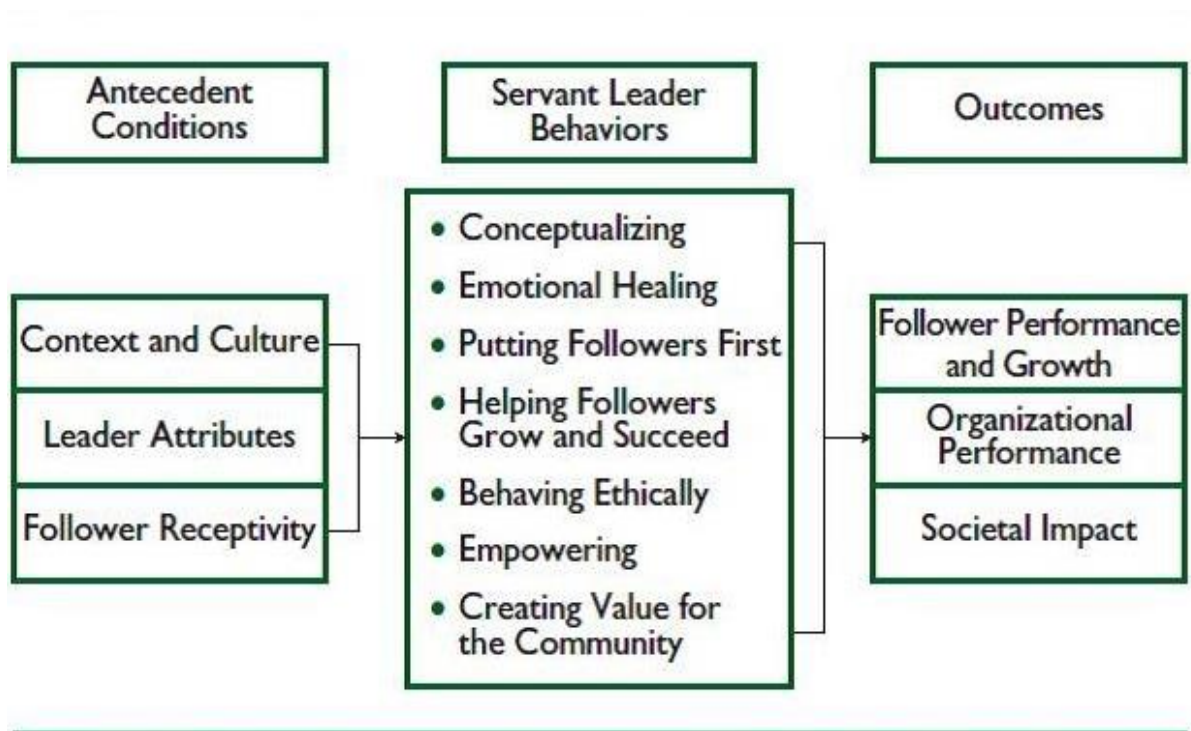


Figure 1 Servant Leadership Model

(Source: Northouse, 2015.)

The servant leadership model is further identified as contributing to employee outcomes, including follower performance and growth, which contributes to positive organisational performance and productivity, which in turn contributes to positive social impact modelled by Northouse (2015) and others.



Figure 2 Servant Leadership Model

(Source: Northouse, 2015.)

2.8 Relationships Between Servant Leadership and Cultural Characteristics

Research suggests a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics. Chung (2017) found that servant leadership was significantly and positively correlated with national culture dimensions such as power distance. Employees in the United States and Korea were surveyed and analysed. Correlation analysis was successfully performed to examine the relationship between servant leadership and national culture. However, sampling techniques have some limitations. The author collected samples for each country using convenience and snowball sampling techniques. These convenience and snowball sampling techniques can limit the study, because the author cannot control gathering data. The author's findings cannot be generalised to other populations because they used the non-profit network to collect the United States samples.

Servant leadership measures have a limitation. Data intended for other use were used, which limits coverage of the servant leadership model. The items' reliability and validity were strengthened by using the Q-sorting methodology and exploratory factor analysis. However, Chung's (2017) findings can help leaders for global expansion in multinational settings.

Similarly, Zhang et al. (2019) examined the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics. The authors found that servant leadership was significantly and negatively associated with cultural characteristics such as masculinity, individualism, and power distance. However, servant leadership was significantly and positively associated with traditionality. The authors performed a meta-analysis using 125 studies and tested incremental validity. Zhang et al.'s (2019) study has four limitations. The authors used cross-sectional data, which kept them from measuring the causal relationship between the variables. Therefore, researchers can capture the causality by gathering longitudinal data in the future. The authors did not measure the moderating effects. Therefore, researchers are advised to measure if cultural dimensions moderate the impact of culture on servant leadership in the future. The authors found few studies that examined the multilevel effects of servant leadership. Therefore, researchers are urged to examine the multilevel effects of servant leadership in the future. The researchers found only a few studies using multiple mediators. Therefore, researchers are encouraged to include multiple mediators of servant leadership in the future.

In common with existing literature, Lee et al. (2020) also examined the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics. Consistent with Zhang et al.'s (2019) study, the authors found that servant leadership was significantly and negatively correlated with power distance. The authors conducted a meta-analysis using 130 studies.

Lee et al.'s (2020) study has two strengths: The authors measured the incremental predictive validity of the measures. The authors examined multiple mediators. Lee et al.'s (2020) study has two limitations. The authors could not examine the causal relationship between the variables because they used a cross-sectional design. The authors found only a few studies that measured the relationship between servant leadership and voice. Therefore, the findings based on a few studies should be treated with caution.

Setyaningrum (2017) also examined the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics. Consistent with other studies, the author found that servant leadership correlated significantly with cultural characteristics. Men were demanding in countries with high on masculinity, and women were soft. In contrast, in countries low on masculinity, men and women were modest and tender. In countries high on masculinity, people were more likely to accept "machismo style" management than in countries low on masculinity. Masculine and feminine cultures created different leader hero types. For example, in masculine cultures, the heroic manager was assertive. In contrast, in feminine cultures, the heroic manager was cooperative. Setyaningrum (2017) surveyed 240 customers in Bekasi Regency and analysed them using structural equation modelling. The author successfully tested reliability and validity using factor analysis, indicating high reliability and validity. However, the author did not test the assumption of the normal distribution required for conducting structural equation modelling.

In addition to other studies, Shafai (2018) found that servant leadership was significantly associated with Islamic principles. However, Saudi higher education leaders were unfamiliar with the term servant leadership. Servant leadership was appropriate in higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia.

Table 2 Comparative Analysis of Servant Leadership and National Cultures

Study	Relationship with Servant Leadership	Cultural Characteristics Examined	Strengths	Limitations
Chung (2017)	Positive correlation with power distance	Power distance	Q-sorting methodology, exploratory factor analysis	Convenience and snowball sampling, non-generalizable findings, limited servant leadership measures
Zhang et al. (2019)	Negative correlation with masculinity, individualism, and power distance; Positive correlation with traditionality	Masculinity, individualism, power distance, traditionality	Meta-analysis, incremental validity testing	Cross-sectional data, lack of measurement of moderating effects, few studies on multilevel effects and multiple mediators
Lee et al. (2020)	Negative correlation with power distance	Power distance	Meta-analysis, incremental predictive validity, examination of multiple mediators	Cross-sectional design, few studies on the relationship between voice
Setyaningrum (2017)	Correlation with cultural characteristics	Masculinity, femininity	Structural equation modeling, reliability, and validity testing	Lack of testing for normal distribution assumption
Shafai (2018)	Associated with Islamic principles	Islamic principles	Alignment with cultural values	Lack of familiarity with servant leadership term among Saudi higher education leaders

Based on the above, although studies have been conducted on the link between servant leadership and cultural characteristics, there is a gap in the literature on the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics on the mediating effect of managers' nationality on this relationship. The present study fills the gap in the literature by using the mixed-methods approach, providing a more comprehensive understanding of these relationships and differences and employees' perceptions of leaders in one multinational organisation headquartered in the United Arab Emirates

2.9 Conclusion

Empirical investigations have been conducted regarding leadership for years and researchers continuously increase their understanding, definition, refining, and explanation of organisational leadership. According to recent research, the success or failure of the

organisation depends on leadership aspects within the workplace. Due to the increasing number of studies regarding leadership within the workplace and the plethora of data proving the impact of organisational leadership, changes have continued to occur within the workplace culture, which has helped develop leadership theories. Therefore, leadership theory study and determining beneficial leadership characteristics have become increasingly necessary for the organisation's success. As a result, it has become increasingly evident that the leadership style adopted within the organisation is significant in achieving long-term goals. This significance also means that leaders are responsible for instructing employees to complete an assigned task ensuring the workforce can solve problems and resolve interpersonal and workplace culture discrepancies.

According to the literature, servant leadership style and lifestyle are rooted in the goal and promise of service to others above all else – or, as Greenleaf (1970; 1998) suggests, service first. According to the servant leadership approach, when the servant leader demonstrates service attributes, the leader's charges will be physically and psychologically supported. When employees are physically and mentally supported, they are more engaged, more motivated, more satisfied, and more productive for the organisation. However, as the literature also reveals, servant leadership may not have the cross-cultural applicability ideal for such a leadership approach because different servant leader attributes are weighted differently across cultures. It may also be impacted by other factors such as tenure and seniority.

Chapter 3 Research Questions and Hypothesis Development

3.1 Introduction

The literature suggests significant correlations between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among diverse leaders (Arun et al., 2021; Sahertian & Jawas, 2021).

Additionally, the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identities has been found to impact leadership (Newman et al., 2018; Tufan & Wendt, 2020), while a manager's nationality has been shown to influence specific leadership traits (Novosad & Werker, 2019). Furthermore, managers' tenure has been associated with their leadership style (Lee et al., 2020; Peerman, 2021), but no significant differences have been observed between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics (Caponigro, 2020; Sallemi et al., 2021).

Building upon this relevant prior research, this study will develop research hypotheses to explore the mediating effect of managers' nationality on this relationship, as well as the potential differences between line managers' and employees' nationalities regarding leadership scores. Furthermore, the study aims to examine the interaction effect between the nationalities of both employees and managers and assess the impact of managers' tenure and grade seniority on cultural and leadership scale scores. This research was conducted within a UAE-based multinational organisation.

3.2 National Culture Theory

National culture plays a pivotal role in shaping organisational behaviours, leadership styles, and managerial practices across the globe. Understanding the intricate layers of national culture and its impact on leadership is essential for navigating the complexities of

the global business environment. In addition to Hofstede's (1984) seminal work, several frameworks and studies have contributed to the understanding of national culture, including the Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck Framework (1961), Harry Triandis's (2004) cultural dimensions, Fons Trompenaars's (1997) model, and the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) study (House, 2004). These contributions offer unique insights into how cultural underpinnings affect leadership and organisational dynamics (House, 2004; Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961; Triandis, 2004; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997).

3.2.1 Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck Framework

Developed in the early 1960s by anthropologists Florence Kluckhohn and Fred Strodtbeck (1961), this framework is one of the earliest attempts to categorize cultural differences. Florence Kluckhohn and Fred Strodtbeck (1961) proposed that societies develop unique orientations to address five fundamental human problems: human nature, the person-nature relationship, time orientation, activity orientation, and relational orientation. These orientations help in understanding how cultures prioritise societal values, such as whether they view human nature as fundamentally good or evil, their relationship with the environment (subjugation, harmony, or mastery over nature), their emphasis on past, present, or future, the nature of human activities (being, becoming, or doing), and how people relate to each other (hierarchical, lineal, or individualistic). This framework laid the groundwork for subsequent cultural studies by providing a systematic way to think about cultural variations and their implications for leadership and organisational behaviour.

3.2.2 Harry Triandis's (2004) Cultural Dimensions

Building on earlier work, Harry Triandis (2004) introduced additional dimensions to understand cultural differences, focusing on individualism and collectivism. Triandis

(2004) detailed how societies vary in their emphasis on the self, versus the group, affecting communication styles, decision-making processes, and leadership behaviours. Triandis's (2004) work expanded the understanding of cultural diversity beyond simple dichotomies, introducing the idea of tight versus loose societies and exploring the nuances of vertical and horizontal individualism and collectivism. Triandis's (2004) research highlighted how cultural orientations influence interpersonal relationships and organisational practices, offering valuable insights for leaders in multicultural environments.

3.2.3 Fons Trompenaars's Model

Fons Trompenaars, building on the work of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), developed a model that identified seven dimensions of culture: universalism versus particularism, individualism versus collectivism, neutral versus emotional, specific versus diffuse, achievement versus ascription, sequential time versus synchronous time, and internal versus external control (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997). These dimensions provide a framework for understanding how cultures differ in their approaches to rules and relationships, emotional expressions, public versus private life, the basis of social status, time management, and the locus of control (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997). Trompenaars's model offers practical insights for international managers and leaders by delineating the cultural factors that affect business negotiations, team dynamics, and leadership effectiveness across different cultural settings (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997).

3.2.4 The GLOBE Study

The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) study, initiated in the mid-1990s by Robert J. House and his colleagues, represents a comprehensive research effort to understand the relationship between culture and

organisational behaviour across 62 nations (House, 2004). The GLOBE study identified nine cultural dimensions: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, societal collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation, and humane orientation (House, 2004). Additionally, the study distinguished between societal culture and leadership practices, offering insights into the desired leadership attributes in different cultures (House, 2004). The GLOBE study's findings provide a rich source of information for understanding how leadership expectations and practices vary globally, guiding leaders in developing culturally appropriate leadership strategies (House, 2004).

3.2.5 Implications for Leadership and Organisational Behaviour

International leaders and managers must deeply understand frameworks and studies related to national culture. This understanding is indispensable in tailoring leadership practices to meet the diverse needs of global teams. By recognizing and respecting the cultural values that shape employee expectations and behaviours, leaders can devise more effective communication strategies, cultivate cohesive teams, and nurture an organisational culture that values diversity and inclusivity.

Moreover, cultural models provide essential tools for identifying and addressing cultural challenges within multinational organisations. These cultural models equip leaders to constructively manage cross-cultural conflicts and harness cultural diversity's power to spur innovation and secure a competitive edge. Incorporating cultural competence into leadership development programs highlights the importance of preparing leaders to navigate the complexities of leading diverse teams with efficacy and empathy.

Synthesizing the insights garnered from various cultural models, including Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) framework, Triandis's (2004) cultural dimensions, Trompenaars's

model, and the GLOBE study, significantly enhances the comprehension of the intricate relationship between culture and leadership. These contributions lay a solid foundation for appreciating the vast spectrum of cultural perspectives and their impact on leadership and organisational behaviour in an increasingly globalized business landscape (House, 2004; Kluckhohn & Strodbeck, 1961; Triandis, 2004; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997).

Cultural intelligence is critical in today's global business environment, enabling leaders to foster environments conducive to cross-cultural understanding and collaboration. Such environments are pivotal for the success of multinational organisations, encouraging culturally attuned and inclusive strategies. This environment fosters a sense of belonging and engagement among employees from varied cultural backgrounds.

These cultural frameworks guide international businesses in crafting organisational policies, practices, and initiatives that respect and capitalize on cultural differences to drive corporate growth (House, 2004; Kluckhohn & Strodbeck, 1961; Triandis, 2004; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997). Integrating cultural considerations into the heart of business strategy allows organisations to boost their global competitiveness, enhance international collaborations, and adeptly manoeuvre through the intricacies of global markets. Exploring national culture through various cultural models provides invaluable insights for evolving leadership and organisational behaviour (House, 2004; Kluckhohn & Strodbeck, 1961; Triandis, 2004; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997). As businesses extend their reach across borders, the capacity to seamlessly integrate cultural nuances into leadership practices emerges as a critical competency. This ability ensures leaders are influential in their roles and serve as champions of cultural diversity and inclusivity, fostering a more connected and understanding global business community.

3.3 Servant Leadership Across Cultures

The literature shows that Middle Eastern cultures were different from Indian and Western cultures. Servant leadership in Middle Eastern cultures differed from that in Indian and Western cultures. This section discusses servant leadership in Middle Eastern, Indian, and Western cultures.

Research suggests that there is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics. Chung (2017) found that servant leadership was significantly and positively correlated with national culture dimensions such as power distance. Molnar (2017) found a significant relationship between servant leadership and masculinity and femininity.

Hannay's (2016) finding suggests that servant leadership was associated with cultural characteristics dimensions such as power distance and uncertainty avoidance, individualism, masculinity, and long-term orientation. Servant leadership can be applied in a culture with low power distance, low to moderate individualism, low uncertainty avoidance, low to moderate masculinity, and a moderate-to-high long-term orientation. The most important cultural characteristics of servant leadership are uncertainty avoidance and power distance.

Chung (2017) found that servant leadership was significantly and positively correlated with national culture dimensions such as power distance. Similarly, Malone (2015) found a significant correlation between servant leadership and cultural characteristics. These findings align with other studies. For example, Kim et al. (2018) also found a significant association between servant leadership and national culture.

Shafai's (2018) research, consistent with other studies, found a significant association between Islamic principles and servant leadership. While the terminology of *servant leadership* was not recognised by Saudi higher education leaders, the approach was appropriate in higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia

Kenya and Tanzania were higher in power distance than Uganda. People in Kenya, Uganda, and Tanzania worked collaboratively with others. Kenya and Uganda were higher on masculinity than Tanzania. Kenyans and Tanzanians were higher on avoidance of uncertainty than Ugandans. Tanzania and Uganda were low on long-term orientation. Tanzania was soft on indulgence.

3.3.1 Servant Leadership in Middle Eastern Cultures

Leadership in Middle Eastern cultures generally fell under the classification of authoritarian and transformational, transactional, or passive avoidance leadership styles (Al-Haj, 2017).

While there is comparatively less literature on servant leadership in middle eastern countries, the servant leadership style in the Middle East was one with deep roots. The servant leadership style in this region also aligned with the culture's values, including reputation, wealth, family, religion, gift-giving, rivalry, and Sharia Law.

Kruger and Seng (2005) determined that followers in Islam are likely to give their leader the right. Kruger and Seng (2005) assumed that an established religion would be associated with servant leadership. Sarayrah (2004) examined the relationship between Bedouin Arabic culture and servant leadership. Sarayrah (2004) found that Bedouin-Arab tribal leaders were associated with servant leadership.

Greenleaf's theory on Servant Leadership was developed after reading from 'Journey to the East' (Hesse, 1932) also reinforcing the spiritual dimension to servant leadership.

The Western tradition held, as did a of culture treating employees (and clients) with respect. Simultaneously, Middle Eastern business leadership practices ascribed to and supported unequal distributions of power. However, according to Weerakkody et al. (2015), Qatar was a nation that was moving from an oil and gas economy supported by foreign labour to a knowledge-driven economy led by its own citizens. Thus, Middle Eastern leadership was primed for reform, as well. Such localisation efforts serve to facilitate leadership style change.

Al-Ababneh et al. (2017) found that Middle Eastern leaders focused on psychological and structural empowerment. In their study, Middle Eastern managers concentrated on meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Therefore, Middle Eastern leaders focused on empowerment gave their employees high confidence in their values and beliefs. In addition, Middle Eastern leaders' focus on empowerment enabled their employees to have a high level of trust in their abilities in their work. Middle Eastern leaders' focus on empowerment made their employees satisfied with their job. Middle Eastern managers had greater attention to their employees' interests and benefits. Their managers focused on their employees, built interpersonal trust, and focused on the developmental needs of the followers. Middle Eastern leaders developed solid supportive relationships with all followers.

Al-Ababneh et al. (2017) asked 332 hotel employees in Jordan to complete a survey, resulting in 186 participants. The authors conducted principal components analysis and regression analysis. The authors tested the validity and reliability of their instruments. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients were higher than 0.70, showing high reliability. The item

loadings were greater than 0.60, indicating high validity. Al-Ababneh et al.'s (2017) study has two limitations. First, the authors used hotel employees in Jordan. Therefore, the findings may not be generalised to other countries or sectors. Second, the authors did not ensure that the regression analysis assumptions were met.

Similarly, Akdol and Arikboga's findings (2017) suggest that Middle Eastern managers were likely to build interpersonal trust and focus on the needs of the employees. In addition, Middle Eastern managers in their study developed solid supportive relationships with their employees. The authors surveyed Turkey employees and analysed 628 questionnaires using regression analyses. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients were higher than 0.70, showing high reliability. Akdol and Arikboga's (2017) study has two limitations. First, the authors did not check the validity of their instruments. Therefore, researchers are recommended to test construct and discriminant validity in the future. Second, the authors did not ensure that the regression analysis assumptions were met. Therefore, testing the regression analysis assumptions would lead to more robust future studies.

3.3.2 Servant Leadership in Indian Cultures

Servant leadership by Indian leaders in Indian organisations was comparatively low. However, where servant leadership was practised, in the IT industry, for one example, there were few perceived differences cross-culturally (Carroll & Patterson, 2016). For example, Carroll and Patterson (2016) studied servant leadership in Indian organisations by applying the model of servant leadership, which features seven characteristics: *agapao* (affectionate love – Greek), altruism, humility, trust, vision, empowerment, and service.

Of these seven characteristics of servant leadership, the only significant difference in perception across cultures was of vision. Carroll and Patterson (2016) note that such

differences in understanding of vision might be attributed to each country's cultural cluster and each country's particular bias or receptivity toward a cultural leadership theory (CLT). Similarly, Chordiya et al. (2017) found a significant difference in effective organisational commitment between Indian and United States managers. The authors' findings suggest that Indian managers were more likely to have affective organisational commitment than United States managers. Indian managers were more likely to enjoy working with others in their organisation than United States managers. United States managers were more likely to think their job was well respected in society than Indian managers. The authors analysed 1661 United States employees and 202 Indian employees using ANOVA. The authors tested the reliability and validity of their measures. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for most scales were higher than 0.70, indicating high reliability. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was between 0.7 and 0.9.

Sy et al. (2017) highlight that Indian managers in their study thought that their key success factors were cultural understanding (100%), rules of success (59%), leadership branding (79%), communication (85%), social etiquette (74%), leadership aspiration (72%), career determinism (86%), and cultural inclusion (54%). The authors interviewed 30 Indian managers and analysed them using the constant comparative method. The constant comparative method is most suitable for comparing newly collected data with previously gathered data.

3.3.3 Servant Leadership in Western Cultures

The leadership principles that were followed by the management of organisations in America were generally focused on generating the required profit, which was the reason for the rise of specialist practices of leadership, rather than generalist practices (van Dierendonck et al., 2017). The specialist practices were adopted to articulate the

assessment of the employees' future. These specialist practices included managing innovation, strategic planning, and fostering human relations. These specialist practices were considered an analytical thought process. In this leadership style, the workers were considered components of production. Analysing the various theories which were written on the Western style of leadership (for example, servant leadership in America), it was found that the management system in Western nations often gave priority to the discussion of objectives which were then followed by a command, followed by tactics and the personnel (Hoch et al., 2016; Seto & Sarros, 2016).

In Western nations, it was always expected that leaders display integrity in all their dealings and behave ethically. This was very important for a leader because it was required that they must establish trust. When coupled with benevolence and capability, integrity became one of the most important antecedents of trust. Building trust was essential for improving the health of the financial and economic systems. Followers could trust their leaders when their leaders focused on their interests.

In the last few decades of the twentieth century, consideration regarding the humane treatment of subordinates again came into the picture. Now it has become essential for leaders to treat their followers well and give due respect to them. The leaders must interact with the employees politely and pay due value to all their contributions. The employees must also be involved in the organisation's decision-making process. Important points regarding how the task must be performed must be given to the employees through a proper and well-established communication system. All the tasks mentioned above must be performed by the servant leaders to promote the overall development of the employees.

Al-Haj (2017) highlights Western employees being focused on their leaders' personalities with Western leaders being focused on the results of the work performed and the productivity and output of follower-employees.

Similarly, Beugelsdijk and Welzel (2018) found significant differences in cultural characteristics (that is, individualism versus collectivism) among various leaders. Western countries were individualistic, less likely to focus on power-distance and more on performance orientation. Western countries were more likely to focus on future orientation and collaborative leadership. Zhang et al. (2019) also suggested that Western managers were individualists.

van Dierendonck et al. (2017) found that Western managers gave their employees the information they needed to do their work well. In addition, Western managers encouraged their employees to use their talents (van Dierendonck et al., 2017). In addition, Western managers helped their subordinates to develop themselves, encouraged their staff to develop new ideas, offered them abundant opportunities to learn new skills, put or valued the team first and gave their employees the authority to make decisions that made their work more accessible (van Dierendonck et al., 2017). Western managers focused on the long-term orientation associated with servant leadership in the Western world (van Dierendonck et al., 2017). Additionally, they were not chasing recognition for what they did for others (van Dierendonck et al., 2017).

van Dierendonck et al. (2017) noted that Western managers showed their feelings to their staff. In addition, Western managers were open about their limitations and weaknesses (van Dierendonck et al., 2017).

van Dierendonck et al. (2017) surveyed 5201 professionals from eight countries. The authors successfully conducted a confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation

modelling. However, the fit indices of the authors' model were less than recommended values. In addition, it is advisable for the authors to check the reliability and validity of their instruments.

3.3.4 A Conceptual Model of Servant Leadership with Cross-Dimensions

The conceptual model derived from the theoretical literature consists of servant leadership attributes and cultural characteristics of the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. The conceptual model derived from this theoretical literature, consists of servant leadership attributes and cultural characteristics of the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. The hypothesised mediation model (Figure 3) synthesises Hofstede's cultural dimensions framework and Liden's Servant Leadership Scale to enhance our understanding of leadership dynamics in diverse cultural contexts. Hofstede's five cultural dimensions, encompassing Power Distance, Individualism vs. Collectivism, Masculinity vs. Femininity, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Long-Term Orientation vs. Short-Term Normative Orientation, provide a comprehensive lens to analyse cultural variations in organisational settings (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, 2001).

Liden's Servant Leadership Scale, rooted in the principles of servant leadership, emphasises leaders' commitment to serving others, fostering individual growth, and promoting a collective sense of purpose (Liden et al., 2008). The amalgamation of these two frameworks aims to illuminate how cultural dimensions influence the manifestation and effectiveness of servant leadership.

Building on existing research that explores the impact of cultural factors on leadership behaviours (Chhokar et al., 2018; Dorfman et al., 1997), this theoretical model proposes that specific cultural dimensions moderate the relationship between servant leadership and

organisational outcomes. This model contributes to the development of the research questions and hypotheses in this study.

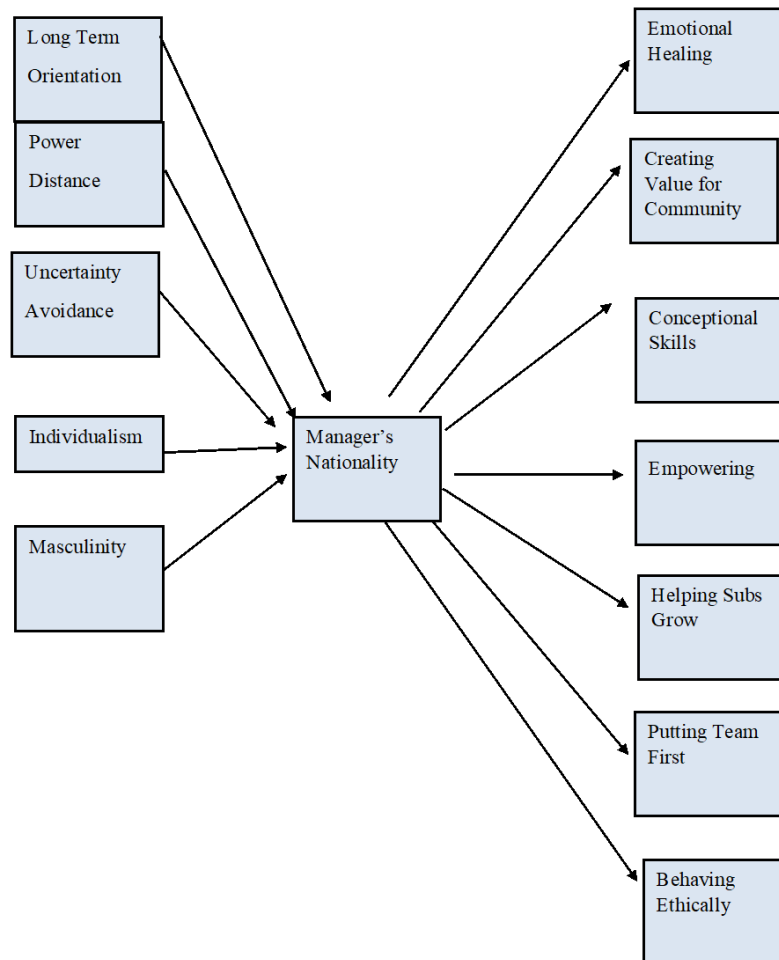


Figure 3 Hypothesised Mediation Model

3.3.5 Servant Leadership and Cultural Characteristics among Diverse Leaders

Research suggests a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among diverse leaders.

Beugelsdijk and Welzel (2018) examined the relationship between servant leadership and the cultural characteristics among diverse leaders. The authors found significant

differences in cultural characteristics (that is, individualism versus collectivism) among various leaders. The authors surveyed 495,011 participants in 110 countries. The authors measured the difference in power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity. The authors tested the validity of the measures using factor analysis. The authors successfully conducted correlation and regression analyses. Beugelsdijk and Welzel's (2018) study has two limitations. First, the authors did not check the assumption of correlation and regression analyses. Therefore, researchers are advised to ensure that the assumptions of correlation and regression analyses are met. Second, the authors defined subjects that were born between 1900 and 1999. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalised to other generations.

Similarly, van Dierendonck et al. (2017) examined the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics using the servant leadership survey (SLS) and tested for cross-cultural equivalence in the Netherlands, Portugal, Germany, Iceland, Italy, Spain, Turkey, and Finland. The authors examined 5201 respondents from Western and Middle Eastern countries. The study suggests a significant relationship between culture (Western or Middle Eastern) and servant leadership.

Carroll and Patterson (2016) compared servant leadership in the United States and India. The authors examined the causal relationships posited by the Patterson model and investigated the differences in the United States and India among the seven servant leadership characteristics. The authors found that the significant difference in perception across diverse cultures was of vision. Such differences in visual perception might be attributed to each country's cultural cluster and to each country's particular bias or receptivity toward a cultural leadership theory.

Merino (2016) compared the differences between the acceptance and practice of servant leadership in the United States and Latin America. The findings align with Hofstede's (1983) uncertainty principle as they applied to the respondents of Latin America and whereby the United States had a low uncertainty index. The authors found that the lower practice of servant leadership was attributed to Latin America having a higher score than the United States in power distance. In addition, the authors found that societies with a higher power distance score were likely to accept inequality. The authors found that the empowerment of employees was more likely to be allowed in societies with lower power distance. In contrast, the empowerment of employees was less likely to be permitted in communities with higher power distance.

Khazma et al. (2016) found variation based on cultural differences by comparing servant leadership in Saudi Arabia and the United States. The authors found that Saudi Arabia was weak in openness, whereas the United States was strong in openness. In addition, the authors found that Saudi Arabia was in the middle ground in conscientiousness while the United States was high in conscientiousness. Consistent with other studies, Khazma et al. (2016) found that Saudi Arabia was high in extroversion, while the United States was low in extroversion. In agreement with related research, the authors also found that Saudi Arabia was high in agreeableness and neuroticism, while the United States was low in agreeableness and neuroticism. In addition, the authors determined that Saudi Arabia was high in power distance, low in individualism, high in masculinity, high in uncertainty avoidance, low in long-term orientation, and high in indulgence. Simultaneously, the United States was comparatively low in power distance, high in individualism, high in masculinity, low in uncertainty avoidance, low in long-term orientation, and high in indulgence.

In keeping with similar studies, Cabela (2018) examined Asian leaders in the United States. Asian leaders were found to be linear or nonlinear. The authors found that the United States scored high in a humane-oriented score. Therefore, the United States shows an increased tendency to prefer servant leadership.

In line with previous research, Sylaj (2019) examined the difference in servant leadership based on individualism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity. Consistent with other studies, Sylaj (2019) found that individualists tended to prefer a supportive management style. However, the authors did not find that in societies low on uncertainty avoidance, a supportive management style was preferred. The authors found that a directive management style was not preferred in societies high on masculinity.

Shahin et al. (2018) examined the relationship between servant leadership and national culture. The authors found a significant association between servant leadership and national culture. The authors surveyed 129 nurses and analysed them using hierarchical regression. Shahin et al.'s (2018) study has seven limitations. The authors surveyed only 128 nurses using a self-reported questionnaire. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalised. In the future, researchers are encouraged to use a sample size greater than 128 to increase the findings' generalisability. The authors used a cross-sectional design, keeping them from examining the causal relationship between the variables. The authors did not check the assumption of hierarchical regression analyses. The authors are advised to check whether observations are independent by using the Durbin-Watson statistic. The Durbin-Watson statistic should be between 1.5 and 2.5. It is recommended that using a scatterplot, the authors check if there is a linear relationship between the outcome and independent/predictor variables. It is advisable for the authors to check if the data shows

homoscedasticity and are approximately normally distributed using skewness and kurtosis and a normal probability plot.

Kim et al. (2018) also examined the relationship between servant leadership and national culture. Consistent with other studies, the authors also found a significant association between servant leadership and national culture. The authors analysed 55 samples using a meta-analysis. The authors tested reliability, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients were from .84 to .92 (< 0.70 , Nunnally, 1978). Kim et al.'s (2018) study has four limitations. The authors did not test the validity of the measures, such as construct and discriminant validity. Therefore, the authors did not present that the instruments were valid. In the future, researchers are advised to test the validity of the measures to show that they are valid. The authors found a few studies regarding outcome categories and moderators. Therefore, the findings of the authors cannot be generalised. They analysed the studies using cross-sectional designs, which made it difficult to draw causal conclusions. Therefore, researchers are encouraged to use a longitudinal design to examine the future causal relationships between the variables. The authors found a few studies that used mediators. Therefore, researchers are urged to include studies using mediators in the future.

Hannay (2016) examined the association between servant leadership and cultural characteristics. Consistent with other studies, the author's finding suggests that servant leadership was significantly associated with power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, masculinity, and long-term orientation. According to Hannay (2016), servant leadership can be applied in a culture with low power distance, low to moderate individualism, low uncertainty avoidance, low to moderate masculinity, and a moderate-to-high long-term orientation. Servant leadership's most important cultural characteristics

were uncertainty avoidance and power distance. A literature review was conducted to find the association between servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions. However, correlation analysis is recommended to be used because it is most appropriate for measuring the relationship between servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions.

The United States lacks power distance and uncertainty avoidance (Hannay, 2016). In contrast, the United States, the Netherlands, and Germany were highly individualistic. The United States and Germany were high on masculinity. In contrast, the Netherlands was low on masculinity. In addition, Germany and the Netherlands were moderate in long-term orientation. The United States was lower on long-term orientation than Germany and the Netherlands

3.4 Research Question 1: Level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders

Beugelsdijk and Welzel (2018), Cabela (2018), Carroll and Patterson (2016), (Hannay, 2016), Khazma et al. (2016), Kim et al. (2018) Seto and Sarros (2016), Sylaj (2019), and van Dierendonck et al. (2017) examined the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics between leaders. Most findings suggest a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics, although Tirmizi and Tirmizi (2020) found substantial similarities in servant leadership across diverse cultures.

Based on the existing literature, the researcher hypothesises that There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders (H1). While this hypothesis may not introduce entirely novel concepts or perspectives to the discussion, its uniqueness lies in its

specificity to the Emirati, UK, and Indian contexts. This specificity may offer insights into how servant leadership manifests differently across diverse cultural settings.

While previous research has explored the correlation between servant leadership and cultural factors, this hypothesis's contribution lies in its comparative analysis across specific cultural contexts. This comparative approach can enrich the debate by providing empirical evidence on how cultural factors shape leadership behaviours in particular settings, thus advancing the understanding of the complexities involved in leadership across cultures. Therefore, while the hypothesis may not be conceptually groundbreaking, its focused examination of servant leadership within specific cultural contexts contributes to a more nuanced and mature discussion in the field.

Therefore, the researcher hypothesises that:

H1: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders.

3.5 Research Question 2: Servant Leadership and Cultural Characteristics among Emirati Leaders

direction, Dubai's leadership model, as identified by Weir (2015), comprises three key components: execution, strategy, and vision. Execution involves five elements, including focus, micro-monitoring, not accepting mediocrity, loyalty, and consulting. The strategy consists of four components: acting decisively, creating an environment where others succeed, sticking with the strategy, and being brave. The vision includes three components: leading today for tomorrow's future, having an ambitious appetite, and developing future leaders.

The literature also reveals that servant leadership is deeply rooted in the Middle Eastern culture, as noted by Al-Haj (2017). Furthermore, the cultural values of the Middle East

align with servant leadership characteristics, such as a focus on employees' needs and structural empowerment, as highlighted by Akdol and Arikboga (2017) and Al-Ababneh et al. (2017), respectively. Based on this literature, the researcher hypothesises that there is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Emirati leaders (H2).

This hypothesis offers a unique perspective by exploring the compatibility of Emirati culture with servant leadership. This hypothesis acknowledges the deep-rooted nature of servant leadership in the Middle Eastern context and the limited academic research. This hypothesis aligns servant leadership with cultural characteristics such as a focus on employee needs and structural empowerment. By examining the alignment between servant leadership characteristics and Emirati cultural values, this hypothesis offers a nuanced understanding of leadership dynamics in the region. This hypothesis adds depth to the debate on leadership practices in the Middle East by providing insights into how servant leadership manifests within a unique cultural context.

Therefore, the researcher hypothesises that:

H2: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Emirati leaders.

3.6 Research Question 3: Servant Leadership and Cultural Characteristics among United Kingdom Leaders

Beauchamp et al. (2021) examined United Kingdom leaders' servant leadership. The authors note that the United Kingdom leaders in their study focused on servant leadership and professionalism. Communication was vital to maintaining and enhancing connections and relationships across school communities. The authors interviewed 12 school leaders in the United Kingdom. The Beauchamp et al. (2021) study has two limitations. First, the authors interviewed school leaders in the United Kingdom using self-reported

questionnaires. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalised to other countries or sectors (Kivuna & Kuyini, 2017). Researchers are advised to use multiple nations to increase the findings' generalisability. Second, the authors interviewed school leaders during the initial response stage. However, leadership strategies can change at different stages. Therefore, researchers are urged to interview school leaders at various stages (Quiñones et al. 2017).

De Clercq et al. (2014) conducted a region-specific (United Kingdom) study that examined the moderated relationship between servant leadership and work engagement. The authors surveyed and analysed data from 263 employees at four IT companies in the United Kingdom. The authors determined that servant leadership positively affected work engagement, especially when there were higher levels of goal congruence and social interaction. The authors further concluded that the relationship between servant leadership and work engagement might have been moderated by leader–follower social capital, a construct characterised by culture and cultural differences. The concluding discussion by the authors also points to the significance of the current study because they suggest that, given their study's findings, additional cross-country studies could lend further insights into the relative importance of leader–follower relationships.

Beauchamp et al. (2021) and De Clercq et al. (2014) examined United Kingdom leaders' servant leadership. The latter study concluded that their findings might have been moderated by a construct characterised by culture and cultural differences. van Dierendonck et al. (2017) suggested differences in communication styles between cultures and noted that low-context communicators (for example, those in the United Kingdom) used explicit and coded messages. Additionally, van Dierendonck et al. (2011) identified that Western (including United Kingdom) managers focused on the long-term orientation associated with servant leadership in the Western world (van Dierendonck et al., 2017).

Western managers put or valued the team first and helped their subordinates to develop themselves (van Dierendonck et al., 2017).

Based on the existing literature, the researcher hypothesises that there is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among United Kingdom leaders (H3). This hypothesis adds a unique perspective to the existing literature, particularly in the context of leadership practices in Western cultures. The United Kingdom-focused hypothesis provides insights into the nuances of servant leadership practices within a specific cultural context, contributing to a more mature debate on leadership practices in the Western world:

Therefore, the researcher hypothesises that:

H3: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among United Kingdom leaders.

3.7 Research Question 4: Servant Leadership and Cultural Characteristics among Indian Leaders

Where servant leadership was practised in India, there were few perceived differences cross-culturally. Characteristics of Indian leadership culture included vision (Carroll & Patterson, 2016), effective organisational commitment (Chordiya et al. 2017) and cultural understanding (Sy et al. 2017). Additionally, Chung (2017) found that servant leadership was significantly and positively correlated with national culture dimensions such as power distance. van Dierendonck et al. (2017) noted that Eastern managers (for example, India, the Middle East) were more likely to accept unequal power distribution.

Kale et al. (2020) conducted a systematic literature review. The authors found a significant difference between Indian and Australian leadership on national culture dimensions such as individualism, power distance, long-term orientation, and indulgence. However, there was no significant difference between the two countries on the uncertainty avoidance

index and masculinity. Based on this literature review, the researcher hypothesises that there is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Indian leaders (H4).

This hypothesis offers a unique perspective on Indian leadership practices. Focusing on this nationality provides insights into leadership dynamics within a specific cultural context. The identified characteristics of Indian leadership culture underscore the importance of examining how servant leadership manifests within this framework.

Considering the unique cultural nuances of Indian leadership, this hypothesis adds depth to the discussion on servant leadership and cultural dimensions, advancing our understanding of servant leadership and enhancing the maturity of the discourse.

Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

H4: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Indian leaders.

3.8 Research Question 5: Manager Nationality and Employee Nationality

Research suggests a significant relationship exists between the interaction of manager ethnic identity and employee ethnic identity. Fan and Harzing (2017) examined the relationship between the interaction of manager ethnic identity and employee ethnic identity. The authors found a significant and positive relationship between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identity. The authors surveyed 265 professionals in Beijing, China, and analysed them by conducting experiments. The authors tested a mediation model using structural equation modelling. The authors successfully tested reliability, and Cronbach's alpha coefficients of most scales were higher than 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978).

Fan and Harzing's (2017) study has several limitations. The authors relied on employees' perceptions. Therefore, researchers are encouraged to examine the actual interaction between managers and their subordinates. The authors examined the effects of employees' ethnicity on only a few dependent variables. Therefore, researchers are advised to examine the effects of employees' ethnic identity on all dependent variables in the future. The authors relied on employees' ethnic identity needs when interacting with managers of similar ethnicity. Therefore, researchers are urged to examine employees' needs when interacting with managers of different ethnicities. The authors manipulated ethnic identity confirmation self-view. Therefore, researchers are encouraged to use different ways of manipulation to manipulate ethnic identity. The authors did not test the assumption of the normal distribution, which is a requisite for conducting structural equation modelling.

Wong et al. (2017) also examined the relationship between the interaction of manager ethnic identity and employee ethnic identity. Consistent with other studies, the authors found a significant relationship between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identity. In addition, the authors found that the manager's nationality affected the employee's performance. The authors used a mixed-methods approach by surveying 77 managers and interviewing five managers in the Klang Valley and Kuala Lumpur. The authors performed a Mann-Whitney U test for a quantitative method and used a thematic analysis for a qualitative method.

Newman et al. (2018) also examined the relationship between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identity. Consistent with other studies, the authors found a significant relationship between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identity. In addition, the authors found that diversity climate on affective organisational commitment and turnover intentions was strong when employees identified with their ethnic group. The

authors successfully surveyed 135 employees in Melbourne, Australia, and analysed them using ordinary least squares regression. The authors examined the construct validity using confirmatory factor analysis, showing that the measures were valid. Newman et al.'s (2018) study has five limitations. The authors collected the data simultaneous point. Therefore, the findings cannot indicate causality. In the future, researchers are advised to collect the data across multiple time points, enabling the determination of causality. The authors used self-report data from a single source, leading to common method bias. In the future, researchers can include other-rated instruments to reduce common method bias. The authors did not control for the employees' demographic characteristics, such as their industry or position. The authors did not test the reliability of the measures. Therefore, researchers are recommended to check Cronbach's alpha coefficient to test the reliability of the instruments in the future. The authors did not ensure that the assumptions of ordinary least squares regression were met. Therefore, researchers are encouraged to check the assumptions of ordinary least squares regression.

Additionally, Berger et al. (2017) examined the relationship between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identities. Consistent with other studies, the authors found a relationship between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identities. The authors interviewed 16 Muslim employees in the Netherlands. In this study, Muslim employees experienced how their Netherland managers allow them to practise their religion and constrained them simultaneously. The authors successfully open-coded interviews and analysed them using thematic analysis. However, the authors did not develop the trustworthiness of their study. Specifically, the authors did not check credibility, confirmability, dependability, and transferability.

Tufan and Wendt (2019) also examined the relationship between the interaction of manager ethnic identity and employee ethnic identity. Consistent with other studies, the authors found a significant relationship between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identity. In addition, the authors found that Belgium managers' diversity-related psychological contract breaches predict Turkish employees' organisational citizenship behaviour via organisational identification. The study found that minorities tended to be the least satisfied in predominantly caucasian settings, while caucasians were the least satisfied in minority–majority settings. In contrast, minorities were most satisfied in minority–majority settings, whereas caucasians were most satisfied in caucasian majority settings.

The authors surveyed 416 Turkish employees in Belgium, and deleted missing values, leading to 361 participants. The authors used structural equation modelling to test their mediation model. Structural equation modelling is most appropriate for examining latent variables with several indicators. Tufan and Wendt's (2019) study has several limitations. The authors used only Turkish employees in Belgium. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalised to other immigrants. In the future, researchers are advised to include multiple immigrants (Kivuna & Kuyini, 2017). The authors collected data using self-reported surveys, leading to common method bias (Sundell & Olsson, 2017). Other individual and cultural factors may affect the authors' findings (Sundell & Olsson, 2017).

Tariq and Syed (2017) also examined the relationship between the interaction of manager ethnic identity and employee ethnic identity. The authors interviewed and analysed 20 Muslim women in the United Kingdom using thematic analysis. Consistent with other studies, the authors found a significant relationship between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identity. In addition, the authors' findings suggest that Muslim women

employees faced challenges when working with United Kingdom managers. However, Muslim women employees could overcome challenges using personal strategies and networks. The authors emphasised the need to consider intersectionality to enable Muslim women's inclusion. Tariq and Syed's (2017) study has several limitations. First, the authors did not develop the trustworthiness of their study (Quiñones et al. 2017). Specifically, the authors did not check credibility, confirmability, dependability, and transferability (Quiñones et al. 2017). The authors analysed only South Asian Muslim women in the United Kingdom. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalised to Muslim women of other nationalities (Kivuna & Kuyini, 2017).

Siebers (2017) also examined the relationship between the interaction of manager ethnic identity and employee ethnic identity. Consistent with other studies, the authors found a significant relationship between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identity. In addition, the authors presented three factors affecting ethnic boundary construction between migrant and non-migrant officers: (1) ethnicised precarity, (2) ethnic conflicts, and (3) the quasi-therapeutic leadership style. The authors interviewed 20 police officers in the Netherlands and conducted ethnographic research. The findings cannot be generalised to other countries (Kivuna & Kuyini, 2017).

In line with other studies, Caza et al. (2021) also examined the relationship between the interaction of manager ethnic identity and employee ethnic identity. Consistent with other studies, the authors found a significant relationship between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identity. The authors found that employees were alike in their perceptions of leadership behaviour and their satisfaction with such leadership behaviour when interacting with leaders from their ethnicity. The authors surveyed 71,537 leaders and

203,027 employees from 77 countries. The authors performed multilevel mixed coefficient models.

Caza et al.'s (2021) study has several strengths. First, the authors used a large sample size. Second, the authors explored cultural diversity using multi-source data. Third, the authors used a direct test of equivalence. However, Caza et al.'s (2021) study has several limitations. First, the data are not representative (Kivuna & Kuyini, 2017). The cultural representation of participants is not clear. Generalisability cannot be achieved in terms of cultural representativeness (Kivuna & Kuyini, 2017). Second, each organisation chose the feedback platform, and each leader selected which direct reports provided feedback, causing self-selection bias (Sundell & Olsson, 2017). The third limitation is the intercultural universality of leadership behaviour (Quiñones et al. 2017). The results showed that leaders and followers were alike when interacting with members of their ethnicity. However, leaders and followers may be from different cultures in most organisations. Therefore, examining leadership behaviour in multicultural organisations will be necessary.

Szydło and Grześ-Bukłaho's (2020) study found significant cultural differences between Polish and Ukrainian employees in organisational contexts. Three methods were used: first, literature analyses were done to examine Poland and Ukraine's cultures. Second, pilot studies were conducted. Third, the concept of Hofstede's cultural dimensions was used to examine the organisational cultures of organisations in Poland and Ukraine. Five hundred and ninety people were interviewed and surveyed.

Polish employees demonstrated a lower acceptance of power distance, in categories such as "supervision", and "legitimacy of power, while Ukrainian employees acknowledged a higher power distance, indicating greater compliance with hierarchical structures.

Moreover, Polish employees placed higher value, than the Ukrainians, on individualism in areas such as “identity” and “link with the organisation” emphasizing personal traits and loyalty, and collectivism in “pursuit of a goal”, emphasizing collective goals.

The study also found differences in attitudes towards masculinity and avoiding uncertainty. Ukrainian employees appreciated masculinity in categories such as “attitude to work”, “social roles”, “pace of action”, and “success”. Additionally, Ukrainian employees placed greater importance on avoiding uncertainty than the Polish employees.

Szydło and Grześ-Bukłaho (2020) found that the employees of the Polish company were more likely to value “intrapersonal orientation”. On the other hand, the employees of the Ukrainian company were more likely to value “interpersonal orientation”.

Furthermore, the research found that the Polish employees assessed competence orientation higher than the Ukrainian employees. On the other hand, the employees of the Ukrainian company assessed moral orientation higher than the Polish employees.

Contiu’s (2020) findings suggest that people from Romania appreciated uncertainty avoidance and a hierarchical distance attracting an autocratic and paternalistic management style. The study suggest that a hierarchical distance, uncertainty avoidance, and a collectivist and feminine orientation caused Romanian managers to prefer employees who appreciate hierarchical levels. Uncertainty avoidance made Romanian managers depend on regulations, but a high hierarchical distance caused them not to observe rules. Romania managers did not encourage a teamwork spirit with employees who respected authority likely to be promoted. A feminine culture that regarded group affiliation was a vital cause for Romanian managers to hire employees based on family relationships.

Kollen et al. (2020) also examined the relationship between the interaction of manager ethnic identity and employee ethnic identity. Consistent with other studies, the authors found a significant relationship between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identity. The authors surveyed and analysed Switzerland managers and German employees. The authors performed a one-factor confirmatory factor analysis. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients were from .80 to .81, indicating good reliability (Sundell & Olsson, 2017).

Berger et al. (2017), Caza et al. (2021), Fan and Harzing (2017), Kollen et al. (2020), Newman et al. (2018), Siebers (2017), Tariq and Syed (2017), Tufan and Wendt (2019), and Wong et al. (2017) examined the relationship between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identity. The findings suggest that a significant relationship exists between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identity.

However, Szydło and Grześ-Bukłaho (2020) and Contiu (2020) examined leadership in Ukraine, Poland, and Romania, though their findings of cannot be generalised to other countries (Kivuna & Kuyini, 2017). Therefore, the research thesis filled this gap by suggesting no statistically significant differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, and any possible interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers (H5). The hypothesis presents a unique contribution to the existing literature by focusing on nationality differences, which adds a novel dimension to the discussion.

The research thesis fills a gap in the literature by proposing a hypothesis that directly addresses the potential differences in scores based on the nationality of managers and employees and any interaction effect between these factors. The hypothesis contributes to a more mature debate by acknowledging the influence of nationality on manager-employee

interactions. The hypothesis adds further understanding to the topic by highlighting the significance of considering nationality alongside ethnic identity in studying leadership dynamics within diverse organisational settings.

Therefore, the researcher hypothesises that:

H5: There are statistically significant differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, as well as any possible interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers.

3.9 Research Question 6: Impact of a Manager's Nationality on Leadership Characteristics

Research suggests that a manager's nationality significantly affects some specific leadership characteristics. Khan and Law (2018) conducted a comparative study focusing on the managerial characteristics and organisational practices in Mexico, Pakistan, and the United States. The research highlighted significant differences in leadership styles and cultural influences among the three countries. In Mexican and Pakistani companies, a paternalistic management approach with high power distance cultures where employees valued loyalty to their managers. Decision-making was centralized, with managers retaining final authority and making decisions that employees could not challenge. Nepotism was observed in hiring practices in both countries, as employers tended to favour individuals with personal connections and perceived loyalty. Khan and Law's (2018) findings suggest that minimal rules operated in Mexico and Pakistan, with Mexican employees relying more on social mechanisms for work completion. Mexican employees also placed less emphasis on punctuality compared to their Pakistani counterparts.

In contrast, Khan and Law's (2018) findings suggest that the American culture focused on individual decision making, individual responsibility, time orientation, and equality with shared authority between employers and employees. Organisational effectiveness in the

U.S. was based on individual efficiency, with employers focusing on academic backgrounds, specialization, and experience when hiring employees. Time management was highly valued in the United States, and social class was often determined by salaries and benefits, serving as motivation for employees. Furthermore, Americans tended to separate religious beliefs from their professional lives, in contrast to Mexico and Pakistan, where cultural and religious influences played a more integral role. Despite these variations, Americans, Mexicans, and Pakistanis were likely to show masculine traits in their societies (Khan & Law, 2018).

Enkh-Amgalan (2016) examined the differences in servant leadership between Mongolians and Americans based on indulgence. Enkh-Amgalan (2016) found a significant difference in servant leadership between Mongolians and Americans based on indulgence. These findings significantly contribute to the cross-cultural literature examining indulgence (Enkh-Amgalan, 2016).

Snaebjornsson and Edvardsson (2017) examined the differences in servant leadership between Icelandic and Lithuanian managers. The authors found that Icelanders focused on leisure. In contrast, Lithuanians also had strong work ethics. In addition, Lithuanians emphasised achievement, structure, hierarchy, and regulations.

Nart et al. (2016) examined the relationship between a manager's nationality and servant leadership. The authors found that a manager's nationality was significantly correlated with servant leadership. Employee perceptions regarding managers' nationality and servant leadership were examined.

Similarly, Caza and Posner (2017) also examined the relationship between a manager's nationality and servant leadership. The authors found that there was a significant difference in servant leadership between United States managers and Singapore managers.

For example, United States managers were likelier to enable others to act and challenge processes than Singaporean managers. However, the difference between United States and Singaporean managers decreased as work experience increased. The authors successfully surveyed 466 United States employees and 434 Singaporean employees and analysed them using regression analyses. The authors checked if there was multicollinearity, which is a requisite for conducting regression analyses (Ernst & Albers, 2017). However, the authors did not check the other assumptions of regression analyses (Ernst & Albers, 2017). The authors checked validity using confirmatory factor analysis, showing that the instruments were valid. However, the authors did not check the reliability of the instruments. Caza and Posner's (2017) study has two limitations. First, the authors used employees from only two nations, the United States and Singapore. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalised to other nations (Kivuna & Kuyini, 2017). Future studies can use multiple nations to enhance external validity (Kivuna & Kuyini, 2017). Second, the authors measured national norms instead of each individual's values. Using national norms could be the limitation of the study because each culture's individuals vary in their values.

Novosad and Werker (2019) also examined the relationship between a manager's nationality and leadership characteristics. Consistent with other studies, the authors also found a significant relationship between a manager's nationality and leadership characteristics. The authors found that Western managers (for example, United States managers) were likely to have power in the United Nations. The authors collected data from the Yearbook of the United Nations. The authors successfully conducted a correlation analysis. Novosad and Werker's (2019) study have two limitations. First, the authors did not examine the assumption of normal distribution. Therefore, researchers are recommended to ensure that the assumption of correlation analysis is met in the future. Second, the authors did not test the validity and reliability of their instruments. Therefore,

researchers are encouraged to examine Cronbach's alpha coefficients to test reliability in the future (Sundell & Olsson, 2017). In addition, researchers are advised to construct validity and discriminant validity in the future (Sundell & Olsson, 2017).

Boone et al. (2019) also examined the effect of a manager's nationality on leadership characteristics. Consistent with other studies, the authors found a significant effect of a manager's nationality on leadership characteristics. The authors found a positive effect of management team nationality diversity on corporate entrepreneurship in the management team with low social stratification and in multinational firms in countries with low national power distance. The authors surveyed 3000 employees from 165 multinational manufacturing firms in 20 OECD countries. The authors successfully estimated Poisson models.

Boone et al.'s (2019) study has several limitations. The authors focused on how management teams' nationality affected corporate entrepreneurship. However, management teams' nationality might affect corporate entrepreneurship in multinational forms in different ways. Second, the authors focused on only national power distance, and did not include other cultural dimensions. Finally, the authors' sample of multinational firms only includes the most famous European firms. Therefore, the authors' findings may not be generalisable to small and medium-sized enterprises (Kivuna & Kuyini, 2017).

Boone et al. (2019), Caza and Posner (2017), Enkh-Amgalan (2016), Khan and Law (2018), Nart et al. (2016), Novosad and Werker (2019), and Snaebjornsson and Edvardsson (2017) examined the effect of a manager's nationality on leadership characteristics and found a significant effect. Based on this literature review, the researcher hypothesises that managers' nationality (Emirati, United Kingdom, Indian) mediates the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics (H6). The proposed

hypothesis uniquely contributes to the literature on leadership dynamics and cross-cultural management by recognizing the intricate interplay between servant leadership, cultural dimensions, and the nationality of managers, thereby offering a more nuanced understanding of leadership dynamics in diverse organisational contexts.

The hypothesis bridges the gap between servant leadership theory and cultural frameworks by considering the mediating role of manager nationality. By acknowledging that managers' nationality may shape servant leadership behaviours within cultural contexts, the hypothesis adds depth to the debate on how individual characteristics and cultural norms influence leadership practices. Therefore, the hypothesis offers a novel perspective that enriches understanding of the complex interrelationships between servant leadership, cultural factors, and the nationality of managers within global organisations.

Therefore, the researcher hypothesises that:

H6: Managers' nationality (that is, Emirati, United Kingdom, Indian) mediates the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics.

3.10 Research Question 7: Differences Between Managers' Tenure and Servant Leadership Characteristics

Phungsoonthorn and Charoensukmongkol (2018) examined the difference in leadership based on managers' tenure. The authors found that managers' tenure was significantly associated with their leadership. The authors' findings suggest that the leadership style of tenured managers reduces turnover. The authors examined 736 employees in Thailand and performed the partial least squares regression. The authors tested reliability and validity. Every construct had a factor loading greater than 0.5. The square root of the Average Variance Extracted was higher than that of other correlations, showing adequate discriminant validity (Sundell & Olsson, 2017). Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability coefficients were higher than 0.7, indicating high reliability (Sundell & Olsson,

2017). Phungsoonthorn and Charoensukmongkol's (2018) study has two limitations. First, the authors analysed employees from manufacturing firms in Thailand. Therefore, the results cannot be generalised to other countries (Kivuna & Kuyini, 2017). Second, the results from the self-reported survey may include subjective bias (Sundell & Olsson, 2017). Therefore, researchers are recommended to use employees from various countries in the future (Sundell & Olsson, 2017).

Similarly, Lajoie et al. (2017) also examined the difference in leadership based on managers' tenure. Consistent with Phungsoonthorn and Charoensukmongkol's (2018) study, the authors found a significant difference in leadership based on managers' tenure. Specifically, value congruence enhanced leadership's effectiveness in new managers, but played no role in more tenured managers. The authors surveyed 1934 employees and analysed them by conducting hierarchical regression analyses. Lajoie et al.'s (2017) study has four limitations. First, the authors could not examine the causal relationship between variables because they used a cross-section research design (Goff & Getenet, 2017). Therefore, researchers are encouraged to use the longitudinal study to examine causal links (Goff & Getenet, 2017). Second, the authors surveyed employees from the same organisation. Therefore, the results cannot be generalised (Kivuna & Kuyini, 2017). Third, the authors found small effect sizes for moderation. Therefore, the results may not be relevant practically (Goff & Getenet, 2017). Fourth, the authors did not ensure that the assumptions of hierarchical regression analyses were met (Ernst & Albers, 2017).

Similarly, King and Haar (2017) also examined the difference in leadership based on managers' tenure. Similarly, the authors found a significant difference in leadership based on the manager's tenure. Specifically, the authors found that tenure duration was significantly associated with leadership self-mastery at low tenure duration, whereas there

was no significant association between them at high tenure duration. The authors successfully surveyed 120 managers in Australia and removed incomplete responses, resulting in 84 managers. The authors conducted a structural equation modelling analysis. King and Haar's (2017) study have two limitations. First, the authors used a small sample size of 84 managers. Therefore, researchers are advised to use a large sample size in the future (Sundell & Olsson, 2017). Second, the authors did not examine the assumption of the normal distribution requisite for conducting a structural equation modelling analysis. Therefore, researchers are recommended to ensure that the assumptions of structural equation modelling analysis are met.

Woods et al. (2017) also examined the difference in leadership based on managers' tenure. Consistent with other studies, the authors found that managers with long tenure were less innovative than those with short tenure. The authors surveyed 146 managers and employees in the United Kingdom and analysed them by conducting hierarchical regression analyses. Woods et al.'s (2017) study has three strengths. The authors used a large sample size of 146 managers. The authors used the most popular scale as their instrument. The authors' findings filled the gap in the literature examining the difference in leadership based on managers' tenure. Woods et al.'s (2017) study has three limitations. The authors used a cross-sectional research design, so they could not examine the causal relationship between the variables (Goff & Getenet, 2017). Therefore, researchers are encouraged to use longitudinal designs to examine the causal relationship between the variables (Goff & Getenet, 2017). The authors used young participants, limiting the findings' generalisability (Kivuna & Kuyini, 2017). Therefore, researchers are advised to include other generations to increase the findings' generalisability. The authors did not ensure that the assumptions of hierarchical regression analyses were met (Ernst & Albers,

2017). It is recommended therefore, that researchers ensure that the assumptions of hierarchical regression analyses are satisfied in the future (Ernst & Albers, 2017).

Lee et al. (2020) also examined the difference in servant leadership based on managers' tenure. Similarly, the authors found that servant leadership had a stronger, positive relationship with task performance for shorter-tenured individuals than for longer-tenured individuals. The authors conducted a meta-analysis using 130 studies. Lee et al.'s (2020) study has several strengths. First, the authors tested the incremental predictive validity of the scales. Second, the authors examined the relative effects of pathways by including multiple mediators. Lee et al.'s (2020) study has several limitations. First, the availability of primary studies constrains the authors' study. The authors tested only the relative predictive validity of servant leadership over other types of leadership. Therefore, researchers are encouraged to examine if servant leadership has incremental predictive validity over other leadership constructs in the future (Sundell & Olsson, 2017).. Second, the authors used cross-sectional research designs. Therefore, the authors could not examine the causal effects of servant leadership on the dependent variable (Goff & Getenet, 2017). In the future, researchers are recommended to use a longitudinal design to examine the causal effects of servant leadership (Goff & Getenet, 2017). Third, the authors found only seven studies examining the relationship between servant leadership and the dependent variable. Therefore, any conclusions based on seven studies should be treated carefully (Sundell & Olsson, 2017)..

Similarly, Peerman (2021) also examined the impact of managers' tenure on leadership. Unlike Lee et al.'s (2020) study, the author found that leaders with more experience developed more excellent leadership skills than leaders with less experience. The author surveyed 54 healthcare professionals in the State of Virginia and analysed them by

conducting a correlation analysis. Peerman's (2021) study has limitations caused by using a quantitative research design. First, the author could not unveil data beyond the survey items because he used the limited quantitative method. Leadership styles might be over- or underestimated because the author used the self-report approach (Sundell & Olsson, 2017). Second, the author did not test the reliability and validity of his research instrument, the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* (Goff & Getenet, 2017). Third, the author did not ensure that the assumptions of a correlation analysis were met (Janse et al. 2021).

Consistent with other studies, Choi et al. (2020) also examined the impact of managers' tenure on leadership. Unlike other studies, the authors found that managers' tenure was not associated with their leadership. The authors sent their surveys to 300 employees from 40 Korean companies and received 227 responses. The authors analysed their data using hierarchical regression analysis. However, Choi et al.'s (2020) study has several limitations. First, the authors did not test the validity of their instruments (Goff & Getenet, 2017). Second, the authors examined the impacts of managers' tenure on their leadership at the individual level. Additionally, researchers are encouraged to examine the impacts of managers' tenure on their leadership at the team level (Sundell & Olsson, 2017). Third, Choi et al.'s (2020) used a cross-sectional research design that might bias their findings (Sundell & Olsson, 2017). Fourth, Choi et al (2020) conducted this study in South Korea, therefore, the findings cannot be generalized to other countries (Kivuna & Kuyini, 2017).

Similarly, Raithel et al. (2021) also examined the impact of managers' tenure on leadership. Consistent with Choi et al.'s (2020) study, **the authors** found that managers' tenure was not associated with their leadership. The authors surveyed 336 members of 66 teams from a multinational company in 19 countries. The authors performed linear

regression. However, the authors did not test reliability and validity (Goff & Getenet, 2017).

In addition to other studies, Gabriel et al. (2020) examined millennial managers' leadership. Consistent with other studies, the authors found that millennial managers were more likely to build a good impression and focus on soft skills and respect in leadership than different generations. The authors interviewed four millennial managers in the Philippines and conducted a thematic analysis. Gabriel et al.'s (2020) study has two limitations. First, the authors used a sample size of four managers. Qualitative research benefits from including at least 12 participants to reach data saturation. Therefore, researchers are encouraged to use at least 12 participants in the future. Second, the authors interviewed Filipino Millennials, limiting the findings' generalisability. Therefore, researchers are advised to include multiple generations and countries.

Choi et al. (2020), Dorsett (2017), Franklin (2017), Gabriel et al. (2020), Harding (2016), King and Haar (2017), Knaap (2017), Lajoie et al. (2017), Lam (2017), Lee et al. (2020), Maharaja (2018), Peerman (2021), Phungsoonthorn and Charoensukmongkol (2018), Rawls (2016), Yuan (2017), and Woods et al. (2017) examined the relationship between tenure or time living and working in a different culture and the characteristics of national culture. The literature led up to the dissertation research by examining the relationship between tenure or time living and working in a different culture and the characteristics of national culture. There are diverse perspectives regarding the relationship between tenure or time living and working in a different culture and the characteristics of national culture however most of the findings suggest a significant relationship.

Based on these studies, the researcher hypothesises that there are statistically significant differences between line managers' tenure and cultural or leadership scale scores (H7).

This hypothesis contributes to a deeper understanding of the complex interplay between individual characteristics, organisational dynamics, and cultural influences by considering how managers' tenure may shape their perceptions, behaviours, and interactions within culturally diverse contexts. The hypothesis prompts critical reflection on how managerial tenure impacts cultural adaptation, leadership styles, and organisational outcomes by focusing on potential differences in cultural or leadership scale scores associated with varying tenure levels.

Therefore, the researcher hypothesises that:

H7: There are statistically significant differences between line managers' tenure and cultural or leadership scale scores.

3.11 Research Question 8: Differences Between Managers' Grade Seniority and Servant Leadership Characteristics

Research suggests no significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics. For example, Palta (2019) found no significant difference in perceived servant leadership based on grade seniority. One hundred and forty-nine teachers in Mersin, Turkey, were surveyed using the servant leadership and organisational commitment scales. The author successfully conducted a correlational analysis. Palta's (2019) study has four limitations. The author used a small sample size of 140 teachers. Therefore, researchers are encouraged to use a larger sample size in the future. The author did not check the assumption of normal distribution, which is required for performing correlation analysis (Janse et al. 2021). Researchers are therefore encouraged to ensure that the assumption of correlation analysis is met in the future. The author surveyed teachers in Mersin, Turkey. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalised to other regions (Kivuna & Kuyini, 2017). The author did not check the reliability and validity of their instruments (Goff & Getenet, 2017). Therefore, researchers are advised to

check Cronbach's alpha coefficient to test the reliability of their instruments in the future (Goff & Getenet, 2017). In addition, researchers are recommended to test construct and discriminant validity in the future (Goff & Getenet, 2017).

Similarly, Caponigro (2020) also found no significant difference in servant leadership based on experience levels. However, there was a significant difference in servant leadership based on the experience levels of Asians. In addition, there was a significant difference in servant leadership based on the experience levels of middle managers. The author surveyed 82 managers in Iowa and conducted a correlation analysis. Cronbach's alpha coefficients of most scales were higher than 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). The author checked the assumption of the normal distribution, which is a prerequisite for performing correlation analysis (Janse et al. 2021).

Trapero et al. (2017) also examined the difference in leadership based on grade seniority. The authors found that participants with less seniority and those with more seniority have the same organisational loyalty and pride level. The authors successfully surveyed 432 employees in Mexico and analysed them using an analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Trapero et al.'s (2017) study has several limitations. First, the authors did not test the assumption of normality requisite for performing ANOVA. In addition, the authors did not test the assumption of homogeneity of variance that is requisite for conducting ANOVA (Emerson, 2022). Therefore, researchers are encouraged to ensure that the assumptions of ANOVA are met in the future (Emerson, 2022).

Heyns et al.'s (2020) study does not align with other studies. Unlike other studies, Heyns et al. (2020) found a statistically significant difference in servant leadership based on experience levels. Seven hundred and seventy-one participants in South Africa were surveyed and analysed using ANOVA. Similarly, Sallemi et al. (2021) also examined the

difference in leadership based on grade seniority. Consistent with Heyns et al.'s (2020) study, the authors found that grade seniority was significantly correlated with their leadership. The authors surveyed managers from 30 companies in the South East Asian countries and the Gulf Cooperation Council countries. The authors successfully conducted a correlation analysis and a *t*-test. The authors tested the assumption of normality, which is a requisite for performing a correlation analysis and a *t*-test (Janse et al. 2021). However, the authors did not test the assumption of homogeneity of variance, which is a requisite for conducting a *t*-test (Kim & Park, 2019).

Similarly, Daly (2020) examined if grade seniority moderated the relationship between perceived servant leadership and employee outcomes. Daly (2020) found that grade seniority moderated the relationship between perceived servant leadership and employee outcomes. Four hundred and seventy-one employees in the United States were surveyed and analysed.

Consistent with other studies, Goeinawan et al. (2021) examined whether seniority of the chief financial officers (CFOs) can affect servant leadership. The authors found that the leadership was weaker with a high CFO grade seniority level than those with low CFO grade seniority levels. The authors surveyed and analysed 351 agencies in all sectors. The authors used purposive sampling and panel records regression using Gretl software.

Caponigro (2020), Das et al. (2014), Diehl (2015), Goeinawan et al. (2021), Harris (2021), Palta (2019), and Trapero et al. (2017) examined the differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics. The literature led to the dissertation research examining the differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics. There are diverse perspectives regarding the differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics however,

most findings suggest no differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics.

Based on these studies, the researcher hypothesises that there are no statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics (H8). This hypothesis contributes to the ongoing debate on the relationship between grade seniority and servant leadership by synthesizing the contrasting findings and encouraging further examination of the nuanced relationship between seniority and leadership behaviours.

Compared to other research hypotheses, this hypothesis stands out for its direct focus on the relationship between seniority and servant leadership characteristics. This specificity adds granularity to the discussion and fosters a deeper understanding of the factors shaping leadership behaviours within organisational contexts. Overall, this hypothesis contributes to a more mature debate by integrating conflicting findings from previous studies and encouraging researchers to evaluate existing evidence critically.

Therefore, the researcher hypothesises that:

H8: There are no statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics. There are statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics.

3.12 Qualitative Case Study Questions

In addition to the quantitative research questions, the researcher utilised a qualitative case study to further explore the three sections of the quantitative inquiry. The following case study questions were employed:

Question 1. How different is servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian Leaders?

This case study question further explores the Servant Leadership and Cultural Characteristics of 'Section 1' in the qualitative study.

Question 2. How different is leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure?

This qualitative question further examines the Servant Leadership and Manager Tenure of 'Section 2' in the qualitative study.

Question 3. How different is leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority?

This third case study question addresses the Servant Leadership and Manager Grade Seniority of 'Section 3' in the qualitative study.

3.13 Conclusion

Despite the existing body of research, several gaps persist in the servant leadership literature. Specifically, the mediating effect of managers' nationality, differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, and the interaction effect between the nationality of employees and managers warrant further investigation. Additionally, exploring the differences between line managers' tenures and grade seniority and their impact on cultural or leadership scale scores, as well as employees' perceptions in a UAE-based multinational organisation, are areas of research requiring attention. Finally, this study adopts a comprehensive mixed-methods approach to further examine the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics, particularly within Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leadership contexts which is currently absent.

Chapter 4 Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This mixed-methods study determines the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics and employees' perceptions related to the difference in the level of servant leadership across three different cultures (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) and the differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure and seniority in a UAE-based multinational organisation. The three cultures were selected as they are the nationalities most highly represented in the company's leadership roles. In the quantitative phase, the independent variable is cultural characteristics, and the dependent variable is servant leadership. The mediating variable is the manager's nationality. The research questions and hypotheses are reiterated below.

Section 1 – Servant Leadership and Cultural Characteristics

RQ1: What is the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders?

H1: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders.

RQ2: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Emirati leaders?

H2: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Emirati leaders.

RQ3: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among United Kingdom leaders?

H3: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among United Kingdom leaders.

RQ4: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Indian leaders?

H4: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Indian leaders.

RQ5: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, as well as any possible interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers?

H5: There are statistically significant differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, as well as any possible interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers.

RQ6: Does the manager's nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) mediate the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics?

H6: The manager's nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) mediates the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics.

Section 2 – Servant Leadership and Manager Tenure

RQ7: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' tenure and cultural or leadership scale scores?

H7: There are statistically significant differences between line managers' tenure and servant leadership characteristics.

Section 3 – Servant Leadership and Manager Grade Seniority

RQ8: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and cultural or leadership scale scores?

H8: There are no statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics.

4.2 Qualitative Case Study

Additionally, the researcher used a qualitative case study to explore the following questions:

Question 1. How different is servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian Leaders?

Question 2. How different is leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure?

Question 3. How different is leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority?

This chapter provides a detailed explanation of the methodology to be used within the proposed study. This chapter includes a description of the research design, rationale, and information regarding the population of interest. This chapter also describes the data collection instruments, the operationalisation of constructs, a description of the data analysis plan, and a discussion of threats to validity. Finally, this chapter concludes with ethical considerations and a summary of essential information.

4.3 Research Design and Rationale

The researcher selected the mixed-methods approach due to its relation to the research topic, which is both qualitative and quantitative. Gerrish and Lacey (2013) and Alasuutari et al. (2008) explain that quantitative research makes it possible for researchers to quantify human behaviour using specific variables. Quantitative studies answer the “what” questions and are deductive (Creswell, 2012; 2013; Leedy & Omrod, 2015). This study determines whether servant leadership relates to cultural characteristics across three different cultures (the Emirates, the United Kingdom, and India) in a UAE-based multinational organisation. A quantitative methodology was used to determine if differences and relationships are statistically significant. Finally, the survey instruments contained quantitative closed-ended Likert-scale survey questions that began with a series of questions to ensure the survey obtained the correct audience. The demographic and multiple-choice questions with a Likert scale associated with the study's constructs followed. Quantitative research collects quantifiable, numeric data and explores relationships between independent and dependent variables (Goertz & Mahoney, 2012;

Watson, 2015). The primary objective of the quantitative, correlational research design is to measure the behaviour and strength of any relationship between two variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2013). Quantitative researchers examine the impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable. The quantitative method can be examined by using context-specific knowledge.

Qualitative studies address the “how” and “why” questions and are inductive (Patton, 2015). A qualitative approach is appropriate for establishing a theory, a model, a definition, or understanding a phenomenon (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). A qualitative approach is appropriate for examining a particular perception (Yin, 2018). A qualitative method is most suitable for describing the perceptions of employees from a (single) multinational company with offices in the United Arab Emirates regarding the individual’s leadership style and those of their managers (Yin, 2018). A qualitative method is necessary to explore the nuances of participant responses to interview questions. A quantitative method is necessary for analysing quantitative data. Therefore, the mixed-methods approach, including quantitative and qualitative methods, is appropriate for examining the research questions.

Due to the objective nature of this study, the researcher used a quantitative correlational and causal-comparative design to determine the relationships between the variables and the difference in a given variable between the three groups. With a correlational design, researchers identified the significance, behaviour, and magnitude of relationships between and among variables (Christensen et al., 2011). A causal-comparative design is appropriate for comparing three groups (that is, the Emirates, the United Kingdom, and India) defined by categorical variables in terms of one or more quantified dependent variables (that is, servant leadership) to assess causation (Cohen et al., 2013).

The researcher considered other quantitative research designs for this study but deemed them inappropriate. With an experimental design, researchers use a controlled environment where variables can be controlled; however, this study did not warrant using an artificial environment or controlling variables. As such, the researcher adhered to correlational and causal-comparative research designs in this study, and used a validated survey for data collection and SPSS for data analysis. The researcher used correlational and causal-comparative research designs to test the following research questions:

RQ1: What is the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders?

RQ2: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Emirati leaders?

RQ3: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among United Kingdom leaders?

RQ4: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Indian leaders?

RQ5: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, as well as any possible interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers?

RQ6: Does the manager's nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, India) mediate the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics?

RQ7: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' tenure and cultural or leadership scale scores?

RQ8: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and cultural or leadership scale scores?

A qualitative case study is most appropriate for examining participants' perceptions (Bryman, 2016; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). In contrast, a phenomenological design is most

suitable for exploring participants' lived experiences (Patton, 2015). In this study, the researcher examined the perceptions of employees from a (single) multinational company with offices in the United Arab Emirates. Therefore, a case study is more suitable for examining the research question than a phenomenological design. The researcher used a qualitative case study to explore the following questions:

Question 1. How different is servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian Leaders?

Question 2. How different is leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure?

Question 3. How different is leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority?

A qualitative case study is appropriate for addressing the purpose, research questions 4, 7, and 8, and the study problem, because they are suitable for exploring the perceptions of employees from a (single) multinational company with offices in the United Arab Emirates regarding the individual's leadership style and those of their managers.

4.4 Mixed Methods Approach

In selecting the mixed-method approach the researcher considered how such studies offer a versatile approach to investigating complex research questions and phenomena. By integrating qualitative and quantitative methods within a single study, researchers can gain a more comprehensive understanding of the topic, especially in exploratory research contexts where the aim is to generate hypotheses or understand underlying mechanisms. This approach enables researchers to triangulate findings by collecting rich qualitative data to explore nuanced meanings and experiences alongside quantitative data for statistical analysis, enhancing the credibility and validity of the research outcomes.

Mixed-method studies are also valuable in applied research settings, such organisational contexts, where researchers need to understand the intricate interactions between variables,

stakeholders, and contextual factors. For example, in evaluation research, mixed-method studies can assess the effectiveness of interventions by measuring outcomes quantitatively and exploring participants' experiences qualitatively. This comprehensive evaluation approach provides insights into quantitative and qualitative outcomes, such as participants' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviours, contributing to a deeper understanding of the intervention's impact in real-world settings.

Overall, mixed-method studies offer researchers a flexible and robust methodology to address multifaceted research questions and make meaningful contributions to knowledge development in various fields. This study's confluence of leadership styles and cultural dimensions in organisational behaviour presents a multifaceted tapestry that requires a sophisticated methodological approach. To unpack the variations in servant leadership among leaders from diverse cultural backgrounds, specifically from the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and India within a multinational company, the research design needed to traverse both the quantitative landscapes of empirical data and the qualitative depths of human experience.

Adopting a mixed-methods approach was instrumental in addressing this complexity (Dawson, 2019; Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Jenkins-Smith et al., 2017). Leadership and culture are constructs with many layers, like geological strata that require different tools to uncover (Dawson, 2019; Hirose & Creswell, 2023). Quantitative methods, akin to surveying equipment, offer a bird's-eye view, enabling researchers to chart patterns and establish the statistical terrain of relationships between variables, such as how cultural characteristics affect leadership styles or the presence of leadership variances across nationalities (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Jenkins-Smith et al., 2017). This phase is crucial for its breadth and for providing a structured, generalizable framework for testing

hypotheses, quantifying the strength of associations, and measuring the impact of various cultural traits on leadership behaviours (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Jenkins-Smith et al., 2017).

However, the very essence of culture and leadership transcends numerical values and frequencies. Qualitative research methodologies fill the gaps left by quantitative approaches, much like an archaeologist's careful excavation reveals the human stories behind artifacts (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Jenkins-Smith et al., 2017). The qualitative aspect of this study allowed for an intimate exploration of the subjective perceptions and lived realities that underlie statistical patterns, providing a narrative that breathes life into the numbers (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Fetterman, 2020; Yin, 2018). The study delved into the meanings, interpretations, and subtle nuances of leadership as practiced and perceived within the dynamic context of a multinational organisation (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Neubauer et al., 2019; Yin, 2018).

The mixed-methods approach facilitated a dialogue between numbers and narratives (Hirose & Creswell, 2023). The research began with the quantitative phase and laid a foundation of statistical relationships, which then acted as a roadmap for the following qualitative inquiry (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Jenkins-Smith et al., 2017). This sequential explanatory strategy ensured that the qualitative phase was not wandering blind but was informed by and responsive to the patterns unearthed in the quantitative data (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Jenkins-Smith et al., 2017). This strategy is a tiered approach to comprehension, where each method contributes a layer of understanding, eventually building a complete picture that is analytically sound and richly detailed (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Jenkins-Smith et al., 2017).

In line with the recommendations of Hirose and Creswell (2023), integrating quantitative and qualitative strands enabled a holistic analysis more significant than the sum of its parts. The quantitative component provided a solid base of empirical evidence, while the qualitative data added dimensionality, offering insights that helped to interpret and make sense of the statistical findings (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Jenkins-Smith et al., 2017). This methodological triangulation not only increased the validity of the findings by incorporating multiple perspectives but also ensured a more nuanced and comprehensive understanding of the leadership phenomenon (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Jenkins-Smith et al., 2017).

The mixed-methods approach was particularly advantageous in the context of cross-cultural research (Dawson, 2019; Hirose & Creswell, 2023). Cultural interpretations can quickly become skewed through a single methodological lens, but by employing quantitative and qualitative methods, the study achieved a balanced and accurate depiction of leadership across cultures (Dawson, 2019; Hirose & Creswell, 2023). Quantitative results established the presence or absence of statistical relationships, while qualitative findings explored the reasons behind these relationships, the contradictions, and the unexpected nuances that often accompany cross-cultural interactions (Dawson, 2019; Hirose & Creswell, 2023).

In crafting the study, the researcher meticulously deliberated design choices to construct a methodological edifice robust enough to handle the complexities of the research questions. Variables such as nationality, tenure, and seniority were carefully selected based on theoretical relevance and their potential to illuminate the multifaceted nature of leadership styles. The empirical model was meticulously specified, aiming to capture the intricate web of direct and mediated relationships, thus providing a thorough understanding of the

dynamics at play. Concepts like 'servant leadership' and 'cultural characteristics' were anchored in well-established theoretical frameworks, ensuring that the study's constructs had roots in a rich academic tradition while also being sensitive to the study's multicultural and organisational context. This deliberate operationalization of variables allowed the empirical models to reflect theoretical soundness and resonate with the contextual realities of the subjects involved.

Therefore, the consecutive mixed-methods design was not just a methodological choice but a strategic one, echoing the layered approach espoused by Hirose and Creswell (2023). The consecutive mixed-methods design was an approach that allowed the research to unfold progressively, with each phase building on the insights of the previous one (Dawson, 2019; Hirose & Creswell, 2023). The quantitative data laid the groundwork, providing a structured overview and identifying key patterns and relationships (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Jenkins-Smith et al., 2017). The qualitative data then weaved these patterns into a cohesive narrative, exploring the cultural terrain that shaped leadership practices (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Yin, 2018).

In sum, this mixed-methods study serves as a testament to the power of methodological integration (Dawson, 2019; Hirose & Creswell, 2023). This mixed-methods study demonstrates how quantitative and qualitative research, when combined thoughtfully and strategically, can illuminate the intricate interplay between culture and leadership (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Jenkins-Smith et al., 2017). The study emerged as a rich, multidimensional analysis, capturing both the measurable and the immeasurable aspects of leadership within a globalized organisational setting (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Jenkins-Smith et al., 2017). The study stands as a comprehensive examination of how cultural contexts frame leadership styles and how leaders, in turn, navigate and shape these

contexts. The study's thousand-word narrative underscores the value of combining diverse research methodologies to capture the full spectrum of human perceptions (Hirose & Creswell, 2023).

4.5 Quantitative Methodology

This section describes the quantitative methodology to be used in the proposed study. This section includes a description of the population of interest and data collection. It also discusses the operationalisation of variables, measurement, and data analysis.

4.6 Population and Sample

The study's target population was employees from multinational companies with offices in the United Arab Emirates. The sample of the study involved three groups. The three groups were chosen because they constitute the nationalities with the highest demographic representation in the company's leadership positions. The first group consisted of Emirati leaders working for the multinational company, the second group was comprised of United Kingdom leaders from the same company, and the third group included Indian leaders working for the same company. The eligibility criteria for this research sample included: (1) being between the ages of 18 to 65, (2) being a United Kingdom citizen, and (3) working at a multinational company situated in the United Arab Emirates.

This context of a single UAE-based multinational is a unique environment for testing the research questions. The opportunity of examining three distinct nationalities operating within the confines of the same multinational corporation, situated in the United Arab Emirates, presents a possibility to mitigate the influence of localized corporate subcultures stemming from geographic factors. Notably, to the best of the researcher's awareness, no empirical investigations have explored the interplay between servant leadership and national cultural characteristics within a singular case study organisation.

4.7 Sampling and Sampling Procedures

In the proposed study, the researcher used convenience sampling to recruit participants.

Convenience sampling is a method by which researchers recruit participants who are most available to respond to a survey but are not necessarily known to the researcher (Creswell, 2012).

The researcher conducted a power analysis to determine the minimum required sample size for the study and, in doing so, considered four factors: (1) the level of significance, (2) the effect size, (3) the power of test, and (4) the statistical technique (Faul et al., 2013).

The level of significance refers to the probability of rejecting a null hypothesis given that it is true, which researchers commonly refer to as the Type I error (Haas, 2012). The level of significance is usually denoted with an alpha and, in most quantitative studies, is set at 95% (0.05) (Creswell, 2012). The effect size is an approximated measurement of the magnitude of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables (Cohen, 1988). Berger et al. (2013) asserted that effect sizes in quantitative studies could be categorised according to small, medium, and large, where medium is usually used to denote a balance between being too strict (small) and too lenient (large).

The power of the test refers to the probability that the test correctly rejects a false null hypothesis, thus accepting the alternative hypothesis (Haas, 2012). In most quantitative studies, researchers usually use an 80% power of the test. Last, the researcher also considered a statistical technique for the sample size computation. The intended statistical technique to address the research questions is correlation analysis and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Using an alpha level of 0.05, a medium effect size, an 80% power of the test, and correlation analysis, the minimum sample size should be 64. For one-way ANOVA, the

minimum sample size should be 159. However, the researcher targeted at least 170 participants to provide a buffer when missing data and incomplete responses were achieved. The researcher used the methods in Figure 3 to calculate the minimum sample size.

<i>G*Power Minimum Sample Size Calculation for One-way ANOVA to Detect a Medium Effect Size of .25, at 5% Level of Significance with 80% Power</i>	
F tests – ANOVA:	Fixed effects, omnibus, one-way
Analysis:	A priori: Compute the required sample size
Input:	Effect size $f = 0.25$ α err prob = 0.05 Power (1- β err prob) = .8 Number of groups = 3
Output:	Non-centrality parameter $\lambda = 9.938$ Critical F = 3.054 Numerator df = 2 Denominator df = 156 Total sample size = 159 Actual power = 0.805

Figure 4 Minimum Sample Size Calculation (One-Way ANOVA)

In order to answer research question 5, the intended statistical technique to address the research question is a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). Using an alpha level of 0.05, a medium effect size, and an 80% power of the test, with two factors (three levels each), the minimum sample size should be 158. The researcher used G*power as shown in Figure 4 to calculate the minimum sample size.

<i>G*Power Minimum Sample Size Calculation for Two-way ANOVA to Detect a Medium Effect Size of .25, at 5% Level of Significance with 80% Power</i>	
F tests – ANOVA:	Fixed effects, special, main effects, and interactions
Analysis:	A priori: Compute the required sample size
Input:	Effect size $f = 0.25$ α err prob = 0.05 Power (1- β err prob) = .80 Numerator df = 2

	Number of groups = 9
Output:	Non-centrality parameter $\lambda = 9.875$
	Critical F = 3.057
	Denominator df = 149
	Total sample size = 158
	Actual power = 0.802

Figure 5 Minimum Sample Size Calculation (Two-Way ANOVA)

Research questions 6 and 7 were answered by calculating Spearman's rho correlation. Spearman's rank-order correlation calculates a coefficient that measures the strength and direction of the association/relationship between two continuous or ordinal variables. In this case, correlations between tenure and service leadership and tenure and culture dimensions by nationality were measured. Research question 8 was answered by conducting independent *t*-tests. This way, the scores' differences between males and females were assessed for statistical significance.

Where the observed power for the analysis was below 80%, then sensitivity analysis was conducted to validate these findings by performing bootstrapping. Bootstrapping is used when the observed power for the analysis is below 80% because it is a resampling technique used to estimate the statistical power of a study, even if the observed power is low. The bootstrapping process involves randomly resampling the data and calculating the sample statistic, such as the mean or median, for each sample. This process is repeated several times, and the results are used to calculate the power of the test. Bootstrapping is a helpful way to estimate the statistical power of a study when the observed power is low and can help determine if the sample size needs to be increased. Bootstrapping was employed to address research questions 4, 5, and 8. Bootstrap allows an analyst to use statistics to conclude a population from a small sample (Mooney & Duval, 1993).

Bootstrapping is a resampling technique validated in nonparametric studies in the 1930s

(Chernick, 2011). The most common resampling techniques introduced during eras of limited computing power include the jack-knife, permutation methods, and cross-validation. Their use for nonparametric studies is validated by statistical studies and research projects numbering in the thousands (Chernick, 2011). The resampling technique for this study is called the bootstrap.

The bootstrap became prominent during the 1970s and was considered computation intensive, limiting its use in research studies (Chernick, 2011). Ultimately, as computer power increased and computations by hand became less necessary, the use of the bootstrap as a resampling tool in nonparametric studies increased. According to Chernick (2011), the bootstrap operates under the assumption that a sample is random from a population. Therefore, the sample size is the sampling distribution under assumptions running a bootstrap (Chernick, 2011). The sample size of the bootstrap does not need to represent the population, but only essential properties of the population.

4.8 Procedures for Recruitment, Participation and Data Collection

The researcher asked permission from the human resources department of the chosen organisation to gain access to the participants. The researcher justified the study's need, significance, and potential benefit to the human resources department. After acquiring permission, the researcher contacted the potential participants via email. The email contained a brief background about the study and a link to the main survey.

An informed consent form was included on the first page of the survey (see Appendix 2). All potential participants should confirm the informed consent form to progress to the main survey. All potential participants who did not affirmatively approve the informed consent form were directed to another page indicating the conclusion of their intention to participate.

The main survey was divided into three parts. The first part contained demographical questions about gender, age, and educational background (see Appendix 3). The second part was Liden et al.'s (2008) Servant Leadership Scale to measure servant leadership dimensions. The scale identified and measured seven dimensions of servant leadership, including: (1) emotional healing, (2) creating value for the community, (3) conceptual skills, (4) empowering, (5) helping subordinates grow and succeed, (6) putting subordinates first, and (7) behaving ethically (see Appendix 3).

Emotional healing refers to showing sensitivity to others' concerns. Creating value for the community refers to a conscious and genuine concern for helping the community.

Conceptual skills refer to knowledge of the organisation and tasks to be accomplished and effectively supporting and assisting others, especially immediate followers. Empowering refers to encouraging and facilitating others, especially immediate followers, in identifying and solving problems and determining when and how to complete work tasks. Helping subordinates grow and succeed means demonstrating genuine concern for others' career growth and development by providing support and mentoring. Putting subordinates first refers to using actions and words to clarify to others, especially immediate followers, that satisfying their work needs is a priority. Last, behaving ethically refers to interacting openly, fairly, and honestly with others.

The Servant Leadership Scale consists of 28 questions, with four questions for each of the seven dimensions. Each question is rated using a seven-point Likert-type scale. Cultural characteristics were measured using Hofstede's VSM 94, which includes 20 items. All items on Hofstede's VSM 94 employ a five-point Likert scale that includes anchored points.

Uncertainty avoidance refers to a society's methods to handle anxiety by minimising uncertainty. Changes in cultures with a high uncertainty avoidance index tend to emphasise implementing rules, laws, and regulations. The concept of power distance helps determine whether an organisation is autocratic or democratic. Power distance refers to the perception of differences in power or the extent to which the less powerful members (that is, rank and file employees) accept unequal power distributions. Low power distance organisations are considered democratic, while organisations with higher power distance indices tend to be more autocratic.

Once the required sample size was reached, the researcher extracted the information from the survey site and then imported it to a Microsoft Excel worksheet for data pre-processing. An open-source survey site called SurveyMonkey was used for the survey.

4.8.1 Instrumentation and Operationalisation of Constructs

Data on servant leadership and national cultural characteristics were collected. Liden et al.'s (2008) Servant Leadership Scale were used to measure servant leadership. The Servant Leadership Scale (Liden et al., 2008) is the most reliable tool that can be used to measure servant leadership. Hofstede VSM 94 measured national cultural characteristics. Hofstede VSM 94 is the most reliable tool that can be used to measure national cultural characteristics.

In this research, the strategic selection of Liden et al.'s (2008) Servant Leadership Scale alongside Hofstede's Values Survey Module 1994 (VSM 94) forms a solid methodological bedrock adeptly suited for probing the nuanced interplay between servant leadership and national cultural characteristics. The researcher adopted Liden et al.'s (2008) Servant Leadership Scale and Hofstede's Values Survey Module 1994 (VSM 94) due to their reliability, comprehensive validity, and direct applicability to the research questions. These

scales offer an in-depth exploration of the manifestation of servant leadership within varied cultural frameworks.

4.8.2 Servant Leadership Scale

The Servant Leadership Scale (Liden et al., 2008), is a 28-item scale to assess seven dimensions of servant leadership which include: (1) emotional healing, (2) creating value for the community, (3) conceptual skills, (4) empowering, (5) helping subordinates grow and succeed, (6) putting subordinates first, and (7) behaving ethically. The seven-point Likert scale operates with 1 “strongly disagree” to 7 “strongly agree”. The alpha reliabilities for the scale are as follows: conceptual skills ($\alpha = 0.86$), empowering ($\alpha = 0.90$), helping subordinates grow and succeed ($\alpha = 0.90$), putting subordinates first ($\alpha = 0.91$), behaving ethically ($\alpha = 0.90$), emotional healing ($\alpha = 0.89$) and creating value for the community ($\alpha = 0.89$).

Liden et al. (2008) began with a conceptual model that included nine characteristics of servant leadership: emotional healing, empowering, creating value for the community, helping subordinates grow and succeed, relationships, conceptual skills, behaving ethically, putting subordinates first, and servanthood. The authors sought to establish three types of validity: face, convergent and predictive. To show face validity, they reviewed extant servant leadership instruments by Barbuto and Wheeler (2006), Ehrhart (2004) and Page and Wong (2000). Next, they created 85 potential questions to measure the nine characteristics from their conceptual model.

From a sample of 283 undergraduate students, an exploratory factor analysis was run on responses to the 85 questions. Seven distinguishable factors were found. Relationships and servanthood failed to load on a single factor and were eliminated from the instrument.

Liden et al. (2008) kept four questions from each of the seven factors that had the highest factor loadings in order to create a 28-item version of their instrument.

Following the EFA, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using data from 182 followers who rated their superiors. Liden et al. (2008) tested multiple models using confirmatory factor analyses and concluded that a seven-factor model was most appropriate ($X = 549$, $df = 329$, $CFI = 0.98$, $SRMR = 0.05$, $RMSEA = 0.06$). To establish convergent validity, the authors found that all seven servant leadership dimensions were moderately to strongly correlated with transformational leadership (0.43 to 0.79) and high-quality leader–member exchange (0.48 to 0.75). Finally, as a means of establishing predictive validity, Liden et al. (2008) found that the seven dimensions of their instrument were weakly to moderately correlated with the affective commitment scale of the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (0.18 to 0.45)

The rationale for Liden et al.'s (2008) Servant Leadership Scale

The Servant Leadership Scale by Liden et al. (2008) has its methodological rigor and ability to measure the multifaceted nature of servant leadership. This scale, crafted through a meticulous research process, scrutinizes seven pivotal dimensions of servant leadership, including emotional healing, community value creation, conceptual skills, empowerment, subordinate development, prioritization of subordinates, and ethical conduct (Liden et al., 2008). The scale has high alpha reliabilities across these dimensions, indicating its efficacy in consistently capturing the essence of servant leadership (Liden et al., 2008).

The development trajectory of this scale involved a comprehensive review of extant servant leadership instruments and the generation of a substantial pool of potential questions (Liden et al., 2008). Through exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, Liden et al. (2008) refined and validated the instrument, culminating in a robust 28-item

scale that embodies a seven-factor model intricately aligned with the theoretical underpinnings of servant leadership. The instrument's validated face, convergent, and predictive validity, through empirical comparisons with transformational leadership models and correlations with organisational commitment measures, underscores the scale's capacity to offer nuanced insights into servant leadership practices (Liden et al., 2008).

4.8.3 Hofstede Values Survey Module 1994 (VSM 94)

Hofstede's five cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1993) identifies power distance; individualism; masculinity; uncertainty avoidance, and short-term and long-term orientation as the dimensions of national culture.

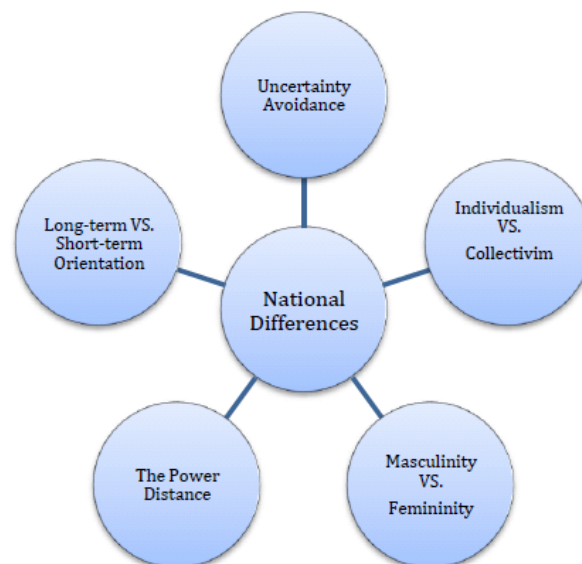


Figure 6 Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions

(Hofstede, 1993.)

The first dimension is the power distance index, which deals with the extent to which the people of a country are acceptable to various inequalities present in the organisational culture (Dorfman & Howell, 1988; Hofstede, 1980). The second dimension is the individualism versus collectivism dimension, which measures the degree of independence,

a society entails among its members. It measures the self-image of people by the terms of “I” or “we” (Brodbeck et al., 2000; Hofstede, 1980).

The third dimension is masculinity versus femininity, which measures the extent to which achievements, success, and competition drive the people of society without any discrimination based on gender (Gerstner & Day, 1994; Hofstede, 1980). The fourth dimension is the uncertainty avoidance index, which considers the extent to which the members of a society are threatened by various unknown or ambiguous situations (Hofstede, 1980; Leung & Bond, 1989). The final dimension is long-term orientation, which describes how every society maintains some links with past incidents to deal with present and future challenges. Societies with high scores in this dimension take a pragmatic approach, while societies with low scores prefer to maintain time-honoured traditions (van Dierendonck et al., 2017).

This research was adapted to formulate the VSM 94 culture dimension questionnaire.

Hofstede's VSM 94 was used to measure national cultural characteristics. Hofstede's VSM 94 includes 20 items and six demographic questions. All items on Hofstede's VSM 94 employ a five-point Likert scale that provides for anchored points. Teresa and Roodt (2013) employed Hofstede's VSM 94, validating its 20 items by conducting anti-image inter-correlations on their scores. The authors eliminated items that did not meet the required measures of sampling adequacy. The remaining eight items underwent both factor analysis and anti-image intercorrelation.

Rationale for Using Hofstede's VSM 94

Hofstede's VSM 94 is the cornerstone for gauging national cultural dimensions, providing an authoritative framework for the comparative analysis of cultural values across countries. The tool's merit lies in its widespread acceptance and utilization in cross-cultural

studies, offering a standardized approach to delineating cultural values. With its detailed structure, including a spectrum of items and demographic questions set against a five-point Likert scale, the VSM 94 facilitates a thorough examination of cultural characteristics, rendering it an essential instrument for research into organisational behaviour's cultural determinants.

The instrument's validation through rigorous procedures, including anti-image inter-correlations and factor analyses by researchers like Teresa and Roodt (2013), attests to its robustness and precision. The careful selection and refinement of items based on their sampling adequacy ensure that the cultural dimensions assessed are relevant and accurately measured.

Synergistic Value in Research

The concurrent application of Liden et al.'s (2008) Servant Leadership Scale with Hofstede's VSM 94 in this study enables a thorough investigation into how servant leadership is influenced by and interacts with underlying cultural values. While the Servant Leadership Scale offers a granular analysis of leadership behaviours indicative of servant leadership, Hofstede's VSM 94 provides a macroscopic view of the cultural landscape. This dual-faceted approach allows for a rich, nuanced understanding of the interdependencies between leadership styles and cultural norms, facilitating a detailed examination of how cultural characteristics shape leadership across various national settings. In essence, using Liden et al.'s (2008) Servant Leadership Scale and Hofstede's VSM 94 is meticulously justified based on their established track records of reliability and validity, making them exceptionally suited for this study's exploration of the complex relationship between servant leadership and cultural dimensions. This methodological

combination deepens the insights from the research and significantly contributes to the broader theoretical and empirical discourse on servant leadership in a global context.

4.8.4 Data Analysis Plan

The statistical software SPSS and AMOS 25 were used to analyse the resulting quantitative data. First, descriptive statistics of the data for the independent and dependent variables were reported (for example, SD, mean). Frequency and percentages summary were obtained for categorical variables, while the central tendencies of means and standard deviations and minimum and maximum values were measured for continuous variables. This study analysed the correlations between servant leadership and cultural characteristics and the mediating effect of managers' nationality on them.

RQ1: What is the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders?

H1: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders.

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to address the hypothesis associated with research question 1. One-way ANOVA is most appropriate for measuring the difference between two or more groups. The dependent variable was the servant leadership domains, and the independent variable was the groupings of the United Kingdom, United Arab Emirates, and Indian leaders.

RQ2: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Emirati leaders?

H2: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Emirati leaders.

RQ3: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among United Kingdom leaders?

H3: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among United Kingdom leaders.

RQ4: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Indian leaders?

H4: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Indian leaders.

Pearson product-moment correlations, multiple regression analysis, and mediation analysis were used to examine research questions 2–4. Pearson product-moment correlations were used to determine the strength and direction of the linear relationships between the dimensions of servant leadership and cultural characteristics. The Pearson correlation coefficient, denoted as r , was used to measure the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two continuous variables. Its value can range from -1 for a perfect negative linear relationship to $+1$ for a perfect positive linear relationship. A value of 0 (zero) indicates no relationship between two variables. Statistical significance was determined by p -values equal to or less than 0.05.

Certain assumptions must be considered to run a Pearson's correlation. There needs to be a linear relationship between the two variables; there should be no significant outliers; there should be bivariate normality. The linearity assumption was assessed through scatter plots generated by SPSS. These scatter plots were used to detect unusual values (outliers).

Pearson product-moment correlations can be negatively affected by these outliers.

The normality assumption was assessed through kurtosis and skewness statistics and visual inspection of histograms. The skewness and kurtosis statistics of the data of the study variables were obtained and investigated to test whether the data were normally distributed. Skewness statistics greater than 3 indicated strong non-normality. Kurtosis statistics between 10 and 20 also indicate non-normality (Kline, 2005).

Multiple regression was performed to assess the impact of the cultural characteristics dimensions (independent variables) on each dimension of servant leadership (dependent variables). Multiple regression is most appropriate for measuring the effect of two or more independent variables on a dependent variable. In this study, the *p*-value, along with the F value, was presented.

There should be homoscedasticity, where the variances around the regression line are similar to conducting multiple regression. Additionally, there should be no significant outliers, and the normality assumption should be met. Finally, there should not be multicollinearity, which occurs when two or more independent variables are significantly correlated.

RQ5: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, as well as any possible interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers?

H5: There are statistically significant differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores and any possible interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers.

Research question 5 was investigated using two-way ANOVA. The two-way ANOVA is most appropriate for determining if there is an interaction effect between two independent variables on a continuous dependent variable. In this case, the researcher wishes to test for an interaction effect between the leaders' nationality and the subordinates' nationality on scores. Additionally, two-way ANOVA was used to test whether any independent variables were significant.

RQ6: Does managers' nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) mediate the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics?

H6: Managers' nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, India) mediates the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics.

Mediation analysis was performed to assess the mediating effect of managers' nationality (mediator) on the relationship between servant leadership and national cultural characteristic (Figure 5). Mediation analysis is most appropriate for measuring the mediating effect of a mediator on the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable. The assumption of normality should be met to conduct mediation analysis.

Several indices were used to assess model fit: the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), and the comparative fit index (CFI). The root mean square residual (RMR), the Akaike information criterion (AIC), and the Bayesian information criterion (BIC). CFIs, GFIs, and AGFIs should be greater than .95 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). RMRs should be closer to zero (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The model that results in the lowest value of the AIC and the BIC should be chosen. The hypothesised mediation model was earlier stated in Figure 3.

Research questions 7 and 8 were answered by calculating Spearman's rho correlation. Spearman's rank-order correlation is used to measure the strength and direction of the relationship between two continuous or ordinal variables through the calculation of a coefficient. In this case, correlations between tenure and service leadership and tenure and culture dimensions by nationality were measured.

RQ7: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' tenure and cultural or leadership scale scores?

H7: There are statistically significant differences between line managers' tenure and servant leadership characteristics?

RQ8: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and cultural or leadership scale scores?

H8: There are no statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics.

4.9 Assumptions

There were several assumptions required to conduct statistical analyses. First, the assumption of normal distribution should be met to conduct correlation and regression analyses, ANOVA, and structural equation modelling. The researcher examined the assumption of normal distribution using skewness and kurtosis statistics. The researcher examined the kurtosis and skewness values for the seven dimensions of servant leadership (that is, emotional healing, creating value for the community, conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates grow, putting subordinates first, and behaving ethically) and the five dimensions of cultural characteristics (that is, power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation). Skewness and kurtosis statistics should be from -3 to $+3$.

Second, there should be no outliers to conduct correlation and regression analyses, ANOVA, and structural equation modelling. The researcher examined if there were any outliers by converting each dimension into standardised values. Any values outside three standard deviations were deemed an outlier.

Third, the assumption of independence of observation should be met to conduct ANOVA. There should be no relationship between the observations in each independent variable or between the groups. Fourth, the assumption of homogeneity of variance should be met to conduct ANOVA. Specifically, the variances of the groups must be equal. The researcher used Levene's test for the equality of variances to examine the assumption of homogeneity of variances.

Fifth, there must be no multicollinearity (that is, high correlations between the independent variables) to conduct multiple regression. The researcher examined variance inflation factors (VIFs) for each variable. Any VIFs greater than 10 indicate multicollinearity issues.

Sixth, the assumption of homoscedasticity should be met to conduct multiple regression. The researcher examined the assumption of homoscedasticity by inspecting a scatter plot of the unstandardised predicted values versus the unstandardised residuals. There should be no apparent pattern in the scatter plot.

4.10 Threats to Validity

Internal validity refers to the experiment's ability to identify causal relationships correctly. This study did not attempt to explore causal relationships, so threats to internal validity are generally not applicable. There are, however, threats to statistical conclusion validity. Threats to statistical validity have three components: instrument reliability, data assumptions, and sample size.

The reliability and validity of each survey instrument used in this analysis have been presented, and the instruments are considered appropriate for this analysis. Data assumptions were checked during the data analysis stage. Finally, appropriate sample size was calculated using power analysis to ensure no statistical concerns regarding small samples. Therefore, there are no anticipated risks to statistical validity.

External validity refers to the extent that study findings can be generalisable to the larger population and applied to different settings. Because participants were recruited from inside the Middle East, findings from this analysis may not be generalisable to different countries.

4.11 Qualitative Methodology

This section describes the qualitative methodology used in the study. This section includes a description of the population of interest and data collection. This section also discusses data analysis.

Following the completion of the quantitative research phase, and the initial findings, the researcher determined that qualitative research was required to ensure a comprehensive understanding of the hypotheses under investigation. While the quantitative research did offer statistical findings related to these research questions, it also drew attention to the nuanced complexities and contextual intricacies inherent in human, cultural experiences. With the addition of qualitative research, through interviews, the researcher was able to further explore the themes that emerged during the quantitative analysis through the perspectives and lived experiences of employees within the UAE-based multinational.

The qualitative research directly addressed the three sections of the quantitative enquiry and provided an opportunity to uncover rich, context-specific insights that the quantitative data alone may have overlooked. Therefore, the incorporation of qualitative analysis was able to enhance the overall robustness and validity of the research and provide a more holistic and nuanced understanding of the research questions while contributing depth and context to the numerical findings.

4.12 Participants

The study's target population consisted of employees from a single multinational company with offices in the United Arab Emirates. Three groups of employees were from United Arab Emirates, India, and the United Kingdom. The participants were employees aged 18–65 working at the target company in the United Arab Emirates or had worked there recently or within the last three years. The eligibility criteria for this research sample were

as follows. The inclusion criteria were professionals: (1) who were employed by, or recently employed by, the company in the United Arab Emirates, (2) who were of United Kingdom, Indian, or Emirati nationality, (3) who came from a range of professional disciplines, (4) who were in leadership roles within the target company, and (5) who were English speaking. The exclusion criteria were professionals: (1) who exited the company more than four years ago, (2) who were not of United Kingdom, Indian, or Emirati nationality, (3) who were not in managerial roles, and (4) who did not speak English.

4.12.1 Selection of Participants

In the study, the researcher used convenience sampling to recruit participants for interviews. Convenience sampling is a method by which researchers recruit participants who are most available to respond to a survey but were not necessarily known to the researcher (Creswell, 2012). The researcher used semi-structured interviewing to interview participants. Semi-structured interviewing involves open-ended questions to explore a particular topic. This semi-structured interviewing included structured and unstructured interviews, combining predetermined questions with the flexibility to explore new topics. Semi-structured interviewing allows for a nuanced understanding of the interviewee's experiences and perspectives, because the interviewer can follow up on interesting or unexpected responses. Additionally, semi-structured interviewing enables researchers to compare and contrast the perspectives of different interviewees.

A qualitative study group of 25–30 individuals was targeted. This target gave a broad perspective across the three key nationalities. This sample size is based on Charmaz's (2006) suggestion that 25 participants are adequate for smaller projects. While 25–30 is the targeted number of participants, this allows some room for flexibility if the numbers still need to be achieved. At the lower end, 15 is the smallest acceptable sample size (Bertaux,

1981, p. 35, adapted from Guest et al., 2006). Combining the qualitative and quantitative data in this mixed-methods study also ensured that smaller interview participants were sufficient to allow for acceptable data quality.

4.12.2 Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

The researcher identified potential participants via LinkedIn – based on employment with the company, role title or managerial position, and stated nationality. The researcher did not actively seek to include, or exclude, individuals who had previously participated in the quantitative survey. Snowballing (Creswell, 2012), requesting recommended participants from those who have already participated, was used to identify other potential participants. The researcher sent the participants an email/LinkedIn message inviting them to an interview as part of the research requirements. Once the participants contacted the researcher, he provided a participant information sheet and an informed consent form. Once the participants were happy to proceed, they scanned and sent a signed copy of, or e-signed, the informed consent form. The participants retained the original, and the researcher kept the scan for records. The researcher then scheduled the participants for an interview. Before the interview, the researcher and the participants discussed the participation information sheet. In addition, the researcher gave the participants an opportunity for questions. The researcher then proceeded with the interview.

The researcher took each participant through the details of the research approach, particularly concerning the collation of data, including the 30–45-minute one-to-one interviews and case studies. This process was undertaken to ensure that participants had clarity and thereby bought into the data collation approach, which involved their active participation. All participants were adults, and the researcher did not anticipate that another was required to consent on their behalf. The researcher recorded all returned

consent forms and stored them securely on a drive. The participants retained the original copy of the consent form. The informed consent form confirmed that the researcher did not provide information to a third party unless required by law. All information retained on the individual participants was stored in Australia. The researcher took all steps to protect against the risk of personal identification, including removing company, department, and individual names from transcripts on any retained data. The researcher saved the transcripts under depersonalised file names. The researcher provided the participant with a transcript of the interview to confirm the accuracy. The participant had two weeks to provide any requested edits or corrections to the transcript.

The researcher used participant pseudonyms to provide anonymity and to protect their identity, including assigned numbers. The company was not named, and no content referencing the workplace or identifying any staff members was included in the thesis. After the researcher had finalised the transcription, he deleted the interview recording. When published, the researcher did not identify participants, line managers, other employees, or the organisation's name in the reporting and analysis of this research. The researcher used pseudonyms (for example, "a manager", "an employee") where opinions and views about a factor were attributed to in the report and analysis.

The researcher sent the participants the informed consent form, and they signed it. The informed consent form included the right to privacy and confidentiality and to drop out of the study. The researcher stored the participants' information on the data for seven years on a password-protected drive in the researcher's university Microsoft OneDrive. The researcher used participant pseudonyms to provide anonymity and to protect their identity, including assigned numbers. The researcher connected with the participants. After the participants signed the informed consent form, the researcher interviewed them.

4.13 Interviews

The researcher designed the interviews to understand employees from a multinational company with offices in the United Arab Emirates. The interview was about the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders and the differences between line managers' tenure and seniority and cultural or leadership approaches. An interview is most appropriate for understanding employees' perceptions of a multinational company with offices in the United Arab Emirates regarding the individual's leadership style and those of their managers. The interviews allowed participants to speak freely and enabled the researcher to ask questions (Bryman, 2016).

The researcher selected 29 participants for an interview by using convenience sampling.

Interviews were conducted in the English language. This is the business language of the multinational company and all participants required fluency for their job roles. There remained the possibility of misinterpretation and to mitigate this the researcher both asked clarifying questions and repeated understanding back to the participant where there was any degree of doubt in the interview. Additionally, a transcript was provided for the participant to review and correct to ensure accuracy.

The researcher developed open-ended interview questions as a prompt during the semi-structured interviews. The open-ended interview questions included the introduction questions, the core interview questions, and the extension question. The researcher used the introduction and core questions in all interviews. In addition, the researcher used extension questions in some interviews. The open-ended interview questions were as follows:

Introduction questions (all interviews)

What is your nationality? Confirm

Tell me about your cultural background.

What is your tenure?

What nationality is your manager?

Core Interview Questions (all interviews)

Q1. How do you describe your leadership style?

What do you think your team value most in your leadership approach?

What do you think your team values least in your leadership approach?

Q2. How do you describe your manager's leadership style?

Q3. Based on your experience with Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders, what differences in leadership traits would you expect to see with each?

Q4. Do you see any differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure?

Q5. Do you see any differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority?

Extension questions (EQ) used in some interviews:

EQ1. How do your nationality and cultural upbringing affect how you lead?

EQ2. What do you value most in your current manager's leadership approach? What do you value least?

EQ3. How do you think your current manager's nationality and cultural upbringing affect how they lead?

EQ4. Please describe your familiarity with servant leadership.

EQ5. Please describe the practices of servant leaders.

The interview questions enabled the participants to keep away from hearsay. The interview questions aligned with the participant's background and motivation. The researcher set up

the interview and introduced the study and its purpose. The researcher collected the data using the interview questions.

Before the researcher interviewed the participants, he answered any questions that they had regarding the research study. The researcher used Microsoft Teams to interview the participants. The participants participated in a 30–45-minute semi-structured interview on a scheduled date. Each interview included the participants' narration and probing questions used for reflection. The participants had time to reflect on their experiences (Patton, 2015). The researcher tried to be an active listener by limiting the number of interviews and kept the interview questions. The researcher asked the participants to be comfortable. The researcher thanked the participants and backed up the interview. The researcher explored why he conducted the research and selected the topic. The researcher removed his biases and preconceived notions.

The researcher recorded the Microsoft Teams interview and transcribed it. The transcription was member checked. Member checking occurred so the participant could check that the information was accurate. The researcher also invited participants to make amendments if they saw fit. This process allowed the participant to verify the accuracy of the transcription and check for validity. Once the participant had agreed that it could be used or had not responded to the contrary, the qualitative analysis commenced.

Participants could withdraw up to this point. If the participant did not contact the researcher after two weeks of receiving their transcript, the researcher assumed permission had been given and proceeded with the analysis. This approach was outlined to each interviewee at the start of the interview and only required additional input or action from the interviewee where they deemed necessary.

The researcher recorded using Microsoft Teams to keep in a password-protected computer. The researcher will secure the data for seven years on a password-protected drive in the researcher's university OneDrive. The researcher will eliminate the data after seven years. The project was approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of University of Notre Dame (Australia).

4.14 Data Analysis

The researcher used the software Nvivo10 to analyse the resulting qualitative data. The researcher recorded the interviews and then transcribed them. The researcher performed a thematic analysis to examine the research question using Braun and Clarke's (2020) six-step framework. After completing the interviews and member checking, the data were coded, characterise, and developed into themes and subthemes.

The qualitative study included 29 Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian participants. Constraints here were the demographics of the company and the United Arab Emirates. A gender mix was intended, but no specific ratio was targeted. A seniority mix was intended, but no specific ratio was targeted. A mix of high, medium, or low/no prior interaction with the researcher was intended, but no specific ratio was targeted.

The researcher performed a thematic analysis using Braun and Clarke's (2020) six-step framework to examine the research question. Braun and Clarke (2020) provide a six-phase thematic analysis guide. This six-phase guide includes step 1 (become familiar with the data), step 2 (generate initial codes), step 3 (search for themes), step 4 (review themes), step 5 (define themes), and step 6 (write-up).

Step 1: Become familiar with the data

The researcher became familiar with the transcripts. The researcher became acquainted with the data before he went further. In addition, the researcher made notes and wrote down initial impressions.

Step 2: Generate initial codes

The researcher organised the data systematically. In addition, the researcher coded the data regarding the research question. Additionally, the researcher used open coding by creating and modifying the codes.

Step 3: Search for themes

The researcher examined the codes and organised them into themes indicating something particular about the research question. A theme captures the data's importance (Braun & Clarke, 2020). Therefore, the theme's significance characterises it.

Step 4: Review themes

The researcher reviewed, modified, and created the identified themes. The researcher gathered data regarding each theme. The researcher read the data associated with each theme and considered if they supported it. Finally, the researcher ensured that the themes were coherent and distinct.

Step 5: Define themes

The researcher defined each theme (Braun & Clarke, 2020). Specifically, the researcher examined what the theme was saying. In addition, the researcher examined how subthemes interacted and related to the theme. Additionally, the researcher examined how the themes related to each other.

Step 6: Write-up

The researcher wrote the results using the NVivo output. In addition, the researcher interpreted and explained the results, including tables. The following presents an illustration of how an interview statement can become a code and a theme using an example interview statement:

Interview statement: “One could say that you know that typically UK leadership style would be more collaborative and more open with, you know, with an allocation of responsibilities but less hierarchical whereas you know Subcontinent leaders will be more hierarchical.”

Code: collaborative versus hierarchical. The interview statement can be condensed into a phrase that captures its essence. The code “collaborative versus hierarchical” represents the interviewee’s perception of UK leaders’ leadership style and subcontinent leaders.

Theme: the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. The code “collaborative versus hierarchical” can be further analysed in the context of the interviewee’s perceptions. In this case, it relates to the theme of “the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders,” which captures the broader idea of how individuals perceive the difference in the leadership style of UK leaders and subcontinent leaders.

4.14.1 Trustworthiness

Lincoln and Guba (1985) developed credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability to define trustworthiness. The researcher achieved credibility, dependability, transferability, and confirmability. First, the researcher used prolonged contact, saturation, member checks, reflexivity, and peer review to achieve credibility (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In addition, the researcher achieved credibility by making interview transcripts for analysis, feedback, and approvals available. Making interview transcripts available allowed the participants to be engaged in the process, allowing the researcher to review the participants strongly and clearly (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

Second, the researcher achieved dependability using audit trails (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In addition, the researcher ensured consistency when he conducted interviews and collected and analysed data to achieve dependability. Third, the researcher achieved transferability by using a thick description and variation in participant selection (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). In addition, the researcher achieved transferability by executing the research design to ensure that the participants' demographics could be repeated similarly. Finally, the researcher achieved conformability using reflexivity (Denzin & Lincoln, 2012). In addition, the researcher achieved conformability by disclosing his biases.

The researcher ensured trustworthiness by building relationships with the participants before he collected the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The researcher developed trust by communicating with the participants clearly before he started interviewing them. In addition, the researcher developed trust by ensuring that the participants knew how and why he conducted the study. Additionally, the researcher developed trust by ensuring that the participants knew they could drop out of the study if they were uncomfortable. The researcher continued developing trust throughout the interview by listening to the participants carefully. The researcher conducted fact-checking with the participants to maintain trust (Denzin & Lincoln, 2012).

4.15 Participants' Demographics

4.15.1 Participants' Nationality

Twelve participants were from the United Kingdom (41%), five participants were from the United Arab Emirates (17%), and 12 participants were from India (41%).

Table 3 Interviewee Nationality

Interviewee Nationality	Totals	Percent	UAE Demographic Percentage
United Kingdom	12	41	Not recorded
Emirati	5	17	11.48
Indian	12	41	27.49

The participants were managed by the following number of leaders from the three nationalities. Twenty-one managers were from the United Kingdom (45%), 15 managers were from the Emirates (32%), and 11 managers were from India (23%). The levels of engagement/agreement to interview were most positive among Indian leaders. Lower Emirati leaders accepted the interview, which aligned with the lower national demographic. Indian participants were most open to accepting the interview for academic support; almost all contacted agreed to participate. Indian participants were most open to “snowballing” and suggesting other names. Openness during the discussion was similar across the nationalities. The openness of the interview dialogue was also similar.

Table 4 Manager Nationality Covered

Manager Nationality Covered	Totals	Percentage
United Kingdom managers	21	45
Emirati managers	15	32
Indian managers	11	23

4.15.2 Participants’ Gender

In 2018, female leaders held 20% of managerial and supervisory roles in the company. Eight participants were female (28%), and 21 were male (72%). The levels of engagement/agreement were not significantly different across gender. The openness of the interview dialogue was similar.

Table 5 Interviewee Gender

Interviewee Gender	Totals	Percentage
Male	21	72
Female	8	28

4.15.3 Participants' Leadership Levels

The leadership level was established via job titles on email or LinkedIn and the known grades associated with these titles. The company had a standard titling nomenclature, which was therefore redacted. The executive was an enterprise leader or the top 1% of leadership roles. The senior manager was a departmental or functional leader. The manager was a department or functional sub-team leader.

Fourteen participants were executives (48%). Nine participants were senior managers (31%), and five were managers (17%). The interview numbers were inverted relative to the respective numbers of the leader by level. However, the more senior executive leaders had greater visibility across the company, and this level of insight was helpful. Managers and senior managers were cautious in participating in the research. Managers and senior managers often sought additional internal approvals before agreeing. The openness of the interview dialogue was similar.

Table 6 Interviewee Leadership Level

Interviewee Leadership Level	Totals	Percent
Executive	14	48
Senior Manager	9	31
Manager	5	17

4.15.4 Known to the Interviewer

The researcher had a prior working relationship with the company in the United Arab Emirates even though he left the company in 2018. The distance in time and working location has enabled a more external and critical eye for leadership challenges and cultural traits. This distance allowed for an insider understanding coupled with an outsider lens (source). The prior working connection enabled access to the interviewees and data respondents. The interviewees with a high level of prior interaction with the interviewer had previously worked closely with the interviewer and had regular interaction more than

once every six months. The interviewees with a medium level of prior interaction with the interviewer had previously worked together and had an interaction pattern of once every six to 12 months. The interviewees with low or no prior interaction with the interviewer were department or functional sub-team leaders with less than once per year to no interaction.

Nine participants had a high prior interaction with the interviewer (31%). Eight participants had a medium prior interaction with the interviewer (28%). Twelve participants had low or no prior interaction with the interviewer (41%). The levels of engagement from more known to less known were not significantly different. The openness of the interview dialogue was similar. However, formality was initially higher with low or no prior interaction. The researcher spent more time on the preamble and rapport-building with the interviewees with the low or no prior interaction.

Table 7 Level of Prior Interaction with the Interviewer

Level of Prior Interaction with Interviewer	Totals	Percentage
High	9	31
Medium	8	28
Low/No	12	41

Table 8 provides the interviewees' nationality, gender, seniority, relationship to the interviewer, and their manager nationalities. Twelve participants were from the United Kingdom (41%), five participants were from the Emirates (17%) and 12 participants were from India (41%). Twenty-one managers were from the United Kingdom (45%), 15 managers were from the Emirates (32%), and 11 managers were from India (23%). Eight participants were female (28%), and 21 were male (72%). Fourteen participants were executives (48%), nine participants were senior managers (31%), and five were managers (17%).

Table 8 Demographics of the Interviewees

Interview	Nationality	Gender	Seniority	Known to Interviewer	Manager Nationalities
1	United Kingdom	M	Executive	Medium	Indian
2	UK	F	Senior Manager	High	UK, Emirati
3	UK	M	Executive	Low/No	UK, Emirati
4	Indian	M	Senior Manager	Low/No	UK, Emirati
5	UK	M	Executive	High	UK, Indian
6	Indian	M	Manager	Low/No	UK, Emirati, Indian
7	UK	M	Executive	High	UK, Emirati
8	UK	M	Senior Manager	High	Emirati
9	Emirati	M	Senior Manager	Low/No	UK, Emirati, Indian
10	Indian	M	Senior Manager	High	UK, Emirati, Indian
11	UK	M	Executive	Medium	UK, Indian
12	Indian	F	Executive	Medium	UK, Emirati
13	UK	M	Executive	Low/No	UK, Emirati, Indian
14	Emirati	M	Senior Manager	Medium	UK
15	Indian	F	Manager	Medium	UK, Emirati, Indian
16	UK	F	Senior Manager	Medium	UK
17	UK	M	Executive	High	Emirati
18	Indian	M	Executive	Low/No	UK Emirati
19	Indian	M	Executive	Low/No	UK, Indian
20	Emirati	M	Executive	High	Emirati
21	Indian	M	Manager	High	UK, Indian
22	Indian	M	Senior Manager	Low/No	UK, Indian
23	Indian	F	Executive	High	UK
24	Indian	M	Manager	Low/No	Indian
25	Emirati	M	Executive	Medium	UK
26	UK	F	Manager	Low/No	UK, Indian
27	Indian	M	Executive	Low/No	UK, Indian
28	Emirati	M	Manager	Low/No	Emirati, UK, Indian
29	UK	F	Senior Manager	Medium	UK

4.16 Ethical Procedures

Drummond (2009) notes that voluntary participation demands that people be willing to participate in research studies and not be coerced. This involved describing to participants what the study entails, how the findings would be used, and the participant's role in the research process. Participants were allowed to decide whether or not to participate in the process.

The concept of informed consent is also essential in ethical considerations to ensure that all participants should be advised on all risks that could be encountered in the study process. Only those participants who gave consent by agreeing to sign the designed Informed Consent form were allowed to take part in the study. Moreover, it was emphasised that participants could withdraw from the study at any point and that withdrawal would not result in negative repercussions (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2012). The project was subject to Human Research Ethics Committee clearance from the university.

The aspect of confidentiality and anonymity is especially critical in the process for the benefit of the participants. This research study assured all participants that the information gathered from the surveys would be highly confidential and used only for this study. This confidentiality allowed the participants to answer honestly and freely without disclosing their identification or identifying information in the study.

All data were confidential and safeguarded according to the university policy on Research Data Management which reflects the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research 2018 and protects the confidentiality and privacy of data by complying with privacy laws including the Australian Privacy Principles (APPs) contained in the *Privacy Act 1988* (Commonwealth). The challenges that are likely to be faced by the researcher, in this case, are the difficulty in knowing the boundaries of anonymity practice.

This difficulty arises because the findings of this study will be disseminated to various targeted audiences, some of whom will be from the same community as the participants. The respondents may also have diverse opinions on how they want their identities to be concealed for any reason. To counter this, the researcher developed uniform measures to control levels of confidentiality and anonymity for all participants who participated in this research process (Whitley & Kite, 2013).

Participants were assured that the data was stored in accordance with the university policy, on the university servers with password protection. Participant pseudonyms were used to provide anonymity and to protect their identity, including assigned numbers. They were assured that the company will not be named and no content identifying any staff members will be included in the thesis. Participants were further informed that after transcription the interview recordings would be deleted.

The data are stored in this manner until seven years after the completion of the study. After these seven years, all hard copies of the data will be shredded, and all electronic files will be permanently deleted. The same method of disposal will be implemented for the data from participants who choose to withdraw midway through the study.

Last, accurate reporting should be considered. Having accurate data collection and analysis is necessary. This accurate reporting means that all raw data will remain unchanged, and access to the data will only be limited to the researcher. This reporting is to ensure that the data are protected, the ethics of the research study are maintained, and the results are reliable and valid through quality data (Farrimond, 2013).

Lastly, the researcher notes that they previously worked at the target multinational organisation, in United Arab Emirates. They were employed at the time of starting the research project though left the employer in 2018 before the study was completed. This

research study has been approved by the University of Notre Dame Australia Human Research Ethics Committee (EC00418 - Approval Number # 2022-077S).

4.17 Summary

The purpose of this mixed-methods study was to determine if the dimensions of servant leadership relate to the dimensions of cultural characteristics across three different cultures (Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian) in a UAE-based multinational organisation and to what extent. Quantitative data collection in this study was entirely conducted through an online survey hosted by Survey Monkey, which included the administration of the Servant Leadership Scale that measured dimensions of the dependent variable (that is, servant leadership). Hofstede VSM 94 was used to measure the five dimensions of the independent variable (culture). Qualitative data collection in this study was performed through a 30–45-minute semi-structured interview.

One-way ANOVA was used to address the hypothesis associated with RQ1. Statistical significance was determined by *p*-values equal to or less than 0.05. The researcher conducted a thematic analysis to examine research question 1 in the qualitative study. Pearson product-moment correlations and multiple regression were used to examine Research question 2, research question 3, and research question 4. Research question 5 was answered by conducting two-way ANOVA. The two-way ANOVA is most appropriate for determining whether there is an interaction effect between two independent variables on a continuous dependent variable. In this case, the researcher tested for an interaction effect between the leaders' nationality and the subordinates' nationality on scores. Additionally, two-way ANOVA was used to test whether any independent variables were significant.

Research question 6 was examined by conducting a mediation analysis. Research question 7 and research question 8 were answered by calculating Spearman's Rho correlation. Chapter 4 contains the results from this analysis. Chapter 5 includes the findings related to those found in the literature review.

Chapter 5 Results and Findings

5.1 Introduction

The researcher selected the mixed-methods approach due to its relation to the research topic, which is both qualitative and quantitative.

This mixed-methods study with the quantitative correlational design determined if servant leadership relates to cultural characteristics across three different cultures (Emirati, United Kingdom, and India) in a UAE-based multinational organisation. This section presents a single case study analysis.

Leadership and culture are constructs with many layers, like geological strata that require different tools to uncover (Dawson, 2019; Hirose & Creswell, 2023). Adopting a mixed-methods approach enabled the researcher to address the complexity (Dawson, 2019; Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Jenkins-Smith et al., 2017).

This approach is particularly advantageous in cross-cultural research, (Dawson, 2019; Hirose & Creswell, 2023), mitigating biases inherent in a single methodological lens. By utilizing both quantitative and qualitative methods, the study achieved a balanced and accurate depiction of leadership across diverse cultures.

This sequential explanatory strategy ensured that the qualitative phase was not wandering blind but was informed by and responsive to the patterns unearthed in the quantitative data (Hirose & Creswell, 2023; Jenkins-Smith et al., 2017).

Chapter 5 discusses the result and findings of the study. It starts with a discussion of the quantitative results, including the sample and scale reliabilities and then a detailed review of the results for each of the eight quantitative research questions.

The discussion then moves on to the qualitative findings including the three key themes and the sub-themes that were identified through the case study questions. Finally, the key insights are discussed in the summary.

5.2 Quantitative Results

The first phase of the research, the quantitative correlational designed study, is considered in three sections and applies the research questions and hypotheses reiterated below:

Section 1 – Servant Leadership and Cultural Characteristics

RQ1: What is the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders?

H1: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders.

RQ2: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Emirati leaders?

H2: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Emirati leaders.

RQ3: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among United Kingdom leaders?

H3: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among United Kingdom leaders.

RQ4: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Indian leaders?

H4: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Indian leaders.

RQ5: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, as well as any possible interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers?

H5: There are statistically significant differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, as well as any possible interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers.

RQ6: Does the manager's nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) mediate the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics?

H6: The manager's nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) mediates the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics.

Section 2 – Servant Leadership and Manager Tenure

RQ7: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' tenure and cultural or leadership scale scores?

H7: There are statistically significant differences between line managers' tenure and servant leadership characteristics.

Section 3 – Servant Leadership and Manager Grade Seniority

RQ8: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and cultural or leadership scale scores?

H8: There are no statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics.

Data were collected from a multinational company in the United Arab Emirates on the dimensions of servant leadership and cultural characteristics. Assumptions of normality and outlier detection were performed to perform the analysis. Pearson bivariate correlations, multiple regression, one-way analysis of variance, and mediation analysis were conducted to assess the relationships between servant leadership, cultural characteristics, and nationality (Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian).

5.3 Description of Sample

Descriptive statistics of the data collected from this study are shown below in Tables 9–13. Mean and standard deviations were calculated for the continuous variables and frequencies and percentages for categorical data. There were 79 (53.0%) females and 70 (47.0%) males in the sample, for a total of N = 149 participants in the study. Sixty-eight (45.6%) people were in the age range 35–44, followed by 49 (32.9%) in the 24–34 age group, 27 (18.1%) in the 45–54 age group, two (1.3%) in the 18–24 age group and two (1.3%) in the 55+ age group. There were 47 (31.5%) of Indian nationality, 58 (38.9%) from the United Kingdom, and 44 (29.5%) Emiratis. Maximum and minimum values for the dimensions ranged from 4 to 28, means ranged from 12.19 to 21.74, and standard deviations ranged from 2.83 to 6.25.

Table 9 Age

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percentage
18–24	2	1.3	1.3	2.0
24–34	49	32.9	32.9	34.9
35–44	68	45.6	45.6	80.5
45–54	27	18.1	18.1	98.7
55+	2	1.3	1.3	100.0
Total	149	100.0	100.0	

Table 10 Gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percentage
Female	79	53.0	53.0	53.0
Male	70	47.0	47.0	100.0
Total	149	100.0	100.0	

Table 11 Nationality/Region

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Emirati	44	29.5	29.5	29.5
UK	58	38.9	38.9	68.5
Indian	47	31.5	31.5	100.0
Total	205	100.0	100.0	

Table 12 Descriptive Statistics

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev.
Emotional Healing	149	4	28	20.54	5.49
Community Value	149	4	28	19.23	6.20
Conceptual Skills	149	5	28	21.74	5.31
Empowering	149	4	28	20.15	5.82
Helping Subordinates Grow	149	4	28	19.20	6.25
Putting Team First	149	4	28	17.78	6.20
Behaving Ethically	149	4	28	20.88	5.54
Power Distance	126	5.00	20.00	12.19	3.00
Individualism	124	5.00	25.00	17.85	3.26
Masculinity	121	5.00	20.00	12.93	2.83

Table 13 Descriptive Statistics by Nationality

		N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev.
Emirati	Power Distance	38	5.00	20.00	12.37	3.27
	Individualism	38	5.00	25.00	17.00	3.55
	Masculinity	36	5.00	20.00	12.56	2.88
	Uncertainty Avoidance	39	11.00	21.00	16.74	2.27
	Long-term Orientation	38	8.00	21.00	14.18	2.96
UK	Power Distance	50	6.00	19.00	12.10	2.77
	Individualism	49	10.00	25.00	18.71	3.12
	Masculinity	48	7.00	20.00	13.19	2.75
	Uncertainty Avoidance	49	9.00	25.00	16.61	3.04
	Long-term Orientation	50	7.00	25.00	13.80	3.45
India	Power Distance	38	6.00	18.00	12.13	3.09
	Individualism	37	9.00	25.00	17.59	2.92
	Masculinity	37	6.00	19.00	12.95	2.92
	Uncertainty Avoidance	36	12.00	24.00	17.19	2.92
	Long-term Orientation	35	9.00	17.00	13.23	2.04

5.4 Scale Reliabilities

Scale reliabilities for the Servant Leadership Scale (Liden et al., 2008) and Hofstede's VSM 94 are shown as follows. The alpha reliabilities for the Servant Leadership Scale are as follows:

- conceptual skills ($\alpha = 0.86$)
- empowering ($\alpha = 0.90$)
- helping subordinates grow and succeed ($\alpha = 0.90$)
- putting subordinates first ($\alpha = 0.91$)
- behaving ethically ($\alpha = 0.90$)
- emotional healing ($\alpha = 0.89$)
- creating value for the community ($\alpha = 0.89$).

An alpha coefficient for Hofstede VSM 94 is 0.90.

5.4.1 Trustworthiness of Data

Normality

One requirement to perform parametric tests is that the data need to be normally distributed. Skewness and kurtosis statistics were calculated with SPSS, which revealed that all statistics were within acceptable ranges ($-3, 3$). Therefore, the normality assumption was met. Table 14 below, depicts the kurtosis and skewness values for the seven dimensions of servant leadership (that is, emotional healing, creating value for the community, conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates grow, putting subordinates first, and behaving ethically) and the five dimensions of cultural characteristics (that is, power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation).

Outlier Detection

Outliers were assessed by converting each dimension into standardised values. Any values outside three standard deviations were deemed an outlier. There were no extreme outliers because the range of standardised values was from -3.13 to 3.35 .

Table 14 Skewness and Kurtosis Statistics

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Emotional Healing	149	-1.028	.199	.780	.395
Community Value	149	-.662	.199	-.490	.395
Conceptual Skills	149	-1.099	.199	.596	.395
Empowering	149	-.897	.199	-.105	.395
Helping Subordinates Grow	149	-.676	.199	-.666	.395
Putting Team First	149	-.410	.199	-.903	.395
Behaving Ethically	149	-1.038	.199	.661	.395
Power Distance Total	126	.034	.216	-.337	.428
Individualism Total	124	-.170	.217	1.854	.431
Masculinity Total	121	-.136	.220	.110	.437
Uncertainty Avoidance Total	124	.222	.217	.231	.431
Long-term Orientation Total	123	.524	.218	1.112	.433

Table 15 Standardised Values

	Minimum	Maximum
Z score (Emotional Healing)	-3.048	1.543
Z score (Create Values for Community)	-2.523	1.645
Z score (Conceptual Skills)	-3.224	1.265
Z score (Empowering)	-2.913	1.569
Z score (Helping Subordinates Grow)	-2.552	1.603
Z score (Putting Subordinates First)	-2.358	1.873
Z score (Behaving Ethically)	-2.978	1.338
Z score (Power Distance)	-2.200	2.744

	Minimum	Maximum
Z score (Individualism)	-1.874	1.507
Z score (Masculinity)	-1.808	1.824
Z score (Uncertainty Avoidance)	-3.125	3.349
Z score (Long-term Orientation)	-2.169	2.749

Independence of Cases

An assumption of ANOVA that must be met is that of independence of observation. By the nature of the study design, there was no relationship between the observations in each group of the independent variable or between the groups themselves.

Homogeneity of Variance

To perform one-way ANOVA, the variances of the groups must be equal. Levene's test for the equality of variances was performed with SPSS to test for the assumption of homogeneity of variances. These results are depicted within each table in the "results" section. The test was not significant, $F(2,169) = 2.494$, $p = 0.086$, indicating no violation of the homogeneity of variance assumption.

Multicollinearity

Multiple regression requires that there must be no high correlations between the independent variables (that is, multicollinearity). Variance inflation factors (VIFs) were determined for each variable. Any VIF greater than 10 is of concern and may indicate multicollinearity issues. There were no VIFs larger than 1.01, indicating no multicollinearity violations.

Homoscedasticity

The assumption of homoscedasticity is that the variances around the regression line are similar for all values of the predictor variables in a multiple regression model. This

assumption is checked by visually examining a scatter plot of the unstandardised predicted values versus the unstandardised residuals. The resulting scatter plot should exhibit no apparent pattern. As shown in Figure 6, below, the homoscedasticity assumption is not violated.

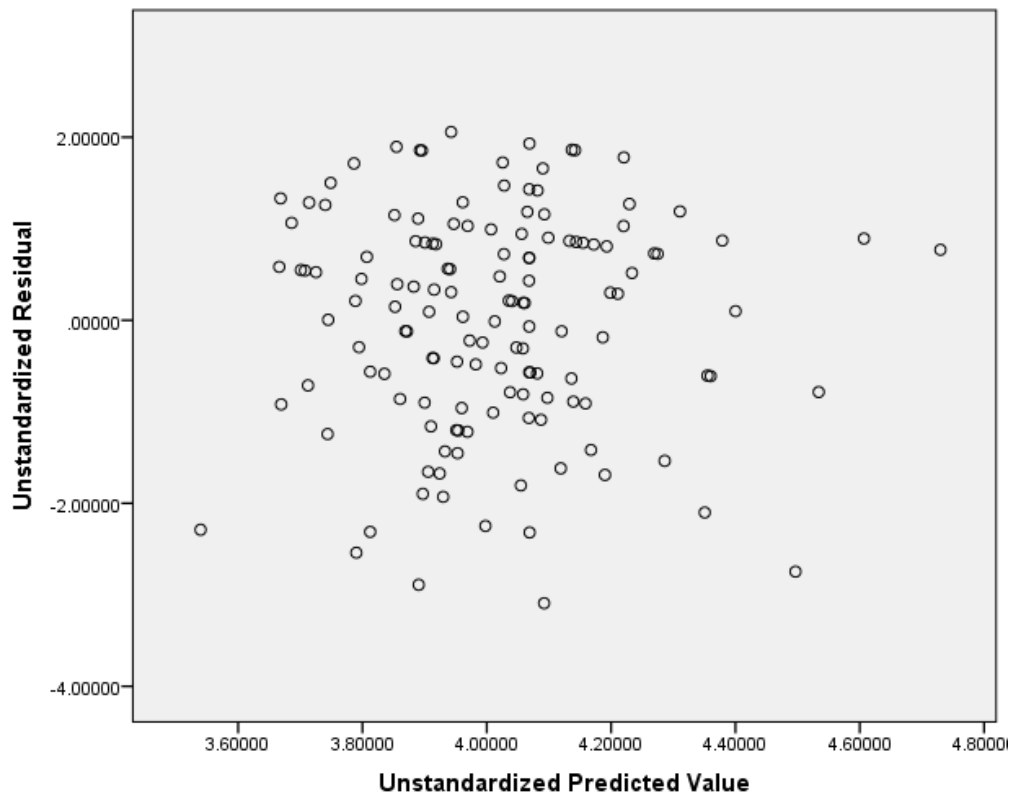


Figure 7 Scatter Plot of the Unstandardised Predicted Values Versus Unstandardised Residuals

5.5 Results for RQ1

The first research question is restated below:

RQ1: What is the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders?

H1: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders.

Due to the sample size of 149 being smaller than the 159 required to achieve > 80% observed power for the analysis, the researcher performed both one-way analysis of variance and bootstrapping to address this first research question. Bootstrapping is used when the observed power for the analysis is below 80% because it is a resampling technique used to estimate the statistical power of a study, even if the observed power is low. The bootstrapping process involves randomly resampling the data and calculating the sample statistic, such as the mean or median, for each sample. This process is repeated several times, and the results are used to calculate the power of the test. Bootstrapping is a helpful way to estimate the statistical power of a study when the observed power is low and can help determine if the sample size needs to be increased.

No violations of the homogeneity of variance assumption were indicated by non-significant Levene's test of homogeneity of variance. The researcher verified the assumption of normality by inspecting kurtosis and skewness statistics.

Table 16 shows no statistically significant differences in mean servant leadership among Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian groups. This finding contradicts previous studies that found a relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among leaders, including Beugelsdijk and Welzel (2018), Cabela (2018), Carroll and Patterson (2016), Hannay (2016), Khazma et al. (2016), Kim et al. (2018), Seto and Sarros (2016), Sylaj (2019), and van Dierendonck et al. (2017). As a result, this study's findings do not align with the theoretical framework. (Table 16, below).

Table 16 presents the significance level resulting from the ANOVA for each dimension of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian groups. For Emotional Healing, Community Value, Conceptual Skills, Empowering, Helping Subordinates Grow,

Putting the Team First, and Behaving Ethically, the p-values are above 0.05, indicating no significant differences between the groups for these dimensions.

Table 16 Results of ANOVA for Servant Leadership Between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian Groups

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Emotional Healing	Between Groups	2.389	2	1.194	.039	.962
	Within Groups	4454.658	146	30.511		
	Total	4457.047	148			
Community Value	Between Groups	4.547	2	2.274	.058	.943
	Within Groups	5683.694	146	38.929		
	Total	5688.242	148			
Conceptual Skills	Between Groups	57.164	2	28.582	1.016	.365
	Within Groups	4107.628	146	28.134		
	Total	4164.792	148			
Empowering	Between Groups	30.917	2	15.458	.453	.637
	Within Groups	4984.533	146	34.141		
	Total	5015.450	148			
Helping Subordinates Grow	Between Groups	108.234	2	54.117	1.393	.252
	Within Groups	5671.726	146	38.847		
	Total	5779.960	148			
Putting Team First	Between Groups	93.618	2	46.809	1.223	.297
	Within Groups	5586.073	146	38.261		
	Total	5679.691	148			
Behaving Ethically	Between Groups	90.507	2	45.254	1.486	.230
	Within Groups	4445.318	146	30.447		
	Total	4535.826	148			

Table 17 displays the mean and standard deviation across different dimensions of servant leadership within Emirati, United Kingdom (UK), and Indian groups. The "Mean" column shows the average scores participants in each group achieved for each dimension of servant leadership. The "Std. Deviation" column reflects the degree of variability or dispersion of scores around the mean within each group for each dimension. A lower

standard deviation indicates less variability, whereas a higher standard deviation implies more variability.

Table 17 Mean and Standard Deviation

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Emotional Healing	Emirati	44	20.45	5.538
	UK	58	20.45	6.099
	India	47	20.72	4.698
	Total	149	20.54	5.488
Community Value	Emirati	44	19.48	6.845
	UK	58	19.05	6.108
	India	47	19.21	5.790
	Total	149	19.23	6.200
Conceptual Skills	Emirati	44	20.84	5.926
	UK	58	22.34	4.890
	India	47	21.83	5.181
	Total	149	21.74	5.305
Empowering	Emirati	44	20.55	5.580
	UK	58	20.40	6.090
	India	47	19.49	5.771
	Total	149	20.15	5.821
Helping Subordinates Grow	Emirati	44	19.61	6.277
	UK	58	19.90	6.098
	India	47	17.96	6.355
	Total	149	19.20	6.249
Putting Team First	Emirati	44	17.91	6.246
	UK	58	18.57	6.283
	India	47	16.68	6.004
	Total	149	17.78	6.195

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Behaving Ethically	Emirati	44	20.66	5.795
	UK	58	21.79	5.379
	India	47	19.96	5.421
	Total	149	20.88	5.536

5.5.1 Bootstrap Results for RQ1

The researcher performed a sensitivity analysis to validate these findings by performing bootstrapping. Bootstrapping is used when the observed power for the analysis is below 80% because it is a resampling technique used to estimate the statistical power of a study, even if the observed power is low. The bootstrapping process involves randomly resampling the data and calculating the sample statistic, such as the mean or median, for each sample. This process is repeated several times, and the results are used to calculate the power of the test. Bootstrapping is a helpful way to estimate the statistical power of a study when the observed power is low and can help determine if the sample size needs to be increased.

For this analysis, 2000 samples were resampled from the sample, and 95% confidence intervals for mean differences were constructed. These bootstrap estimates are shown in Table 19 below. Comparisons of the two tables reveal no statistically significant differences in mean servant leadership scores between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. Each confidence interval (original and bootstrapped) contains the number zero, indicating no statistically significant differences.

Table 18 shows the 95% Confidence Intervals of Mean Differences for Research Question 1 (RQ1) across various dimensions of servant leadership among Emirati, United Kingdom

(UK), and Indian groups. The "95% Confidence Interval" provides a range within which the true population mean difference is likely to fall with 95% confidence.

Table 18 95% Confidence Intervals of Mean Differences for RQ1

	Country	Country	Mean Difference	P-value	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Emotional healing	Emirati	UK	.006	1.000	-2.61	2.62
		India	-.269	.971	-3.01	2.47
	UK	Emirati	-.006	1.000	-2.62	2.61
		India	-.275	.965	-2.84	2.29
	India	Emirati	.269	.971	-2.47	3.01
		UK	.275	.965	-2.29	2.84
Community Value	Emirati	UK	.426	.938	-2.53	3.38
		India	.265	.978	-2.83	3.36
	UK	Emirati	-.426	.938	-3.38	2.53
		India	-.161	.991	-3.06	2.74
	India	Emirati	-.265	.978	-3.36	2.83
		UK	.161	.991	-2.74	3.06
Conceptual Skills	Emirati	UK	-1.504	.334	-4.01	1.01
		India	-.989	.648	-3.62	1.65
	UK	Emirati	1.504	.334	-1.01	4.01
		India	.515	.874	-1.95	2.98
	India	Emirati	.989	.648	-1.65	3.62
		UK	-.515	.874	-2.98	1.95
Empowering	Emirati	UK	.149	.991	-2.62	2.91
		India	1.056	.665	-1.85	3.96
	UK	Emirati	-.149	.991	-2.91	2.62
		India	.907	.709	-1.81	3.62
	India	Emirati	-1.056	.665	-3.96	1.85
		UK	-.907	.709	-3.62	1.81
Helping Subordinates Grow	Emirati	UK	-.283	.972	-3.23	2.67
		India	1.656	.416	-1.44	4.75
	UK	Emirati	.283	.972	-2.67	3.23
		India	1.939	.255	-.96	4.84
	India	Emirati	-1.656	.416	-4.75	1.44
		UK	-1.939	.255	-4.84	.96

	Country	Country	Mean Difference	P-value	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Putting Team First	Emirati	UK	-.660	.855	-3.59	2.27
		India	1.228	.612	-1.84	4.30
	UK	Emirati	.660	.855	-2.27	3.59
		India	1.888	.268	-.99	4.76
	India	Emirati	-1.228	.612	-4.30	1.84
		UK	-1.888	.268	-4.76	.99
Behaving Ethically	Emirati	UK	-1.134	.560	-3.75	1.48
		India	.702	.817	-2.04	3.44
	UK	Emirati	1.134	.560	-1.48	3.75
		India	1.836	.211	-.73	4.40
	India	Emirati	-.702	.817	-3.44	2.04
		UK	-1.836	.211	-4.40	.73

Table 19 provides a 95% Confidence interval bootstrap for Multiple Comparisons, showing mean differences in various servant leadership dimensions between Emirati, United Kingdom (UK), and Indian groups. Based on bootstrap sampling, the table indicates the likely range of the true population mean difference with 95% confidence.

Table 19 95% Confidence Intervals Bootstrap for Multiple Comparisons

			Mean Difference	Bootstrap ^a 95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
Emotional Healing	Emirati	UK	.006	-2.255	2.268
		India	-.269	-2.335	1.868
	UK	Emirati	-.006	-2.268	2.255
		India	-.275	-2.339	1.788
	India	Emirati	.269	-1.868	2.335
		UK	.275	-1.788	2.339
Community Value	Emirati	UK	.426	-2.030	2.949
		India	.265	-2.189	2.973
	UK	Emirati	-.426	-2.949	2.030
		India	-.161	-2.447	2.136
	India	Emirati	-.265	-2.973	2.189

			Mean Difference	Bootstrap^a 95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower	Upper
		UK	.161	-2.136	2.447
Conceptual Skills	Emirati	UK	-1.504	-3.571	.644
		India	-.989	-3.263	1.344
	UK	Emirati	1.504	-.644	3.571
		India	.515	-1.510	2.482
	India	Emirati	.989	-1.344	3.263
		UK	-.515	-2.482	1.510
Empowering	Emirati	UK	.149	-1.979	2.357
		India	1.056	-1.200	3.274
	UK	Emirati	-.149	-2.357	1.979
		India	.907	-1.273	3.214
	India	Emirati	-1.056	-3.274	1.200
		UK	-.907	-3.214	1.273
Helping Subordinates Grow	Emirati	UK	-.283	-2.605	2.152
		India	1.656	-.959	4.242
	UK	Emirati	.283	-2.152	2.605
		India	1.939	-.404	4.191
	India	Emirati	-1.656	-4.242	.959
		UK	-1.939	-4.191	.404
Putting Team First	Emirati	UK	-.660	-2.952	1.729
		India	1.228	-1.190	3.672
	UK	Emirati	.660	-1.729	2.952
		India	1.888	-.447	4.230
	India	Emirati	-1.228	-3.672	1.190
		UK	-1.888	-4.230	.447
Behaving Ethically	Emirati	UK	-1.134	-3.289	.985
		India	.702	-1.615	3.016
	UK	Emirati	1.134	-.985	3.289
		India	1.836	-.323	3.927
	India	Emirati	-.702	-3.016	1.615
		UK	-1.836	-3.927	.323

a. Unless otherwise noted, bootstrap results are based on 2000 bootstrap samples.

5.6 Results for RQ2

The second research question is restated below:

RQ2: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Emirati leaders?

H2: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Emirati leaders.

Pearson's bivariate correlations were performed to address research question 2. The assumptions of normality and no outliers were met by inspection of kurtosis and skewness statistics and the examination of standardised values.

Among Emirati leaders, there was a statistically significant medium positive linear correlation between empowering and individualism ($r = 0.47, p = 0.003$) and a statistically significant medium positive correlation between behaving ethically and individualism ($r = 0.48, p = 0.002$). There was a statistically significant medium positive linear correlation between conceptual skills and individualism ($r = 0.34, p = 0.032$). All other correlations were not statistically significant ($p > 0.05$).

Multiple regression was also performed to collectively assess the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership (dependent variables) and the cultural characteristics dimensions (independent variables). None of the models are statistically significant ($p > 0.05$). The findings can be shown in Tables 20–25 below.

The ANOVA outputs for various dependent variables are in Tables 20 to 25. Table 20 focuses on "Creating value for the community," and its F-value of 0.482 and p-value of 0.786 suggest that the model's predictors are not statistically significant in explaining the variance in the dependent variable.

Table 20 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Creating value for the community

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	106.753	5	21.351	.482	.786b
	Residual	1018.074	23	44.264		
	Total	1124.828	28			

a. Dependent Variable: Community Value

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Masculinity Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Individualism Total

Moving on to Table 21, which examines the relationship between predictors and "Conceptual Skills," the researcher sees an F-value of 1.039 and a p-value of 0.419, indicating that the model's predictors are insignificant in predicting the dependent variable.

Table 21 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Conceptual Skills

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	154.768	5	30.954	1.039	.419b
	Residual	685.025	23	29.784		
	Total	839.793	28			

a. Dependent Variable: Conceptual Skills

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Masculinity Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Individualism Total

In Table 22, the ANOVA output for "Empowering" suggests that the F-value is 1.109, and the corresponding p-value is 0.383, indicating that the model's predictors are not statistically significant in predicting "Empowering."

Table 22 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Empowering

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	175.365	5	35.073	1.109	.383b
	Residual	727.393	23	31.626		
	Total	902.759	28			

a. Dependent Variable: Empowering

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Masculinity Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Individualism Total

Similarly, Table 23 and Table 24 present the ANOVA results for "Helping Subordinates Grow" and "Putting Team First," respectively, and the F-values and p-values indicate that the predictors do not significantly affect these dependent variables.

Table 23 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Helping Subordinates Grow

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	20.643	5	4.129	.094	.992b
	Residual	1010.115	23	43.918		
	Total	1030.759	28			

a. Dependent Variable: Helping Subordinates Grow

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Masculinity Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Individualism Total

Table 24 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Putting Team First

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	185.145	5	37.029	.957	.464b
	Residual	889.890	23	38.691		
	Total	1075.034	28			

a. Dependent Variable: Putting Team First

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Masculinity Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Individualism Total

Finally, Table 25 examines the relationship between predictors and "Behaving Ethically." The F-statistic is 2.252, and the p-value is 0.083. The p-value is insignificant enough to

reject the null hypothesis that the predictors do not significantly influence "Behaving Ethically."

Table 25 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Behaving Ethically

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	281.048	5	56.210	2.252	.083b
	Residual	574.194	23	24.965		
	Total	855.241	28			

a. Dependent Variable: Behaving Ethically

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Masculinity Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Individualism Total

Tables 20–25 provide detailed ANOVA outputs for each servant leadership dimension as a dependent variable, with the cultural characteristics as independent variables. Across these tables, the significance levels (Sig.) consistently exceed the 0.05 threshold, reinforcing the conclusion that the collective influence of these cultural dimensions on various aspects of servant leadership—ranging from creating value for the community to behaving ethically—does not reach statistical significance in this sample of Emirati leaders.

This outcome suggests a complex interplay between cultural characteristics and servant leadership dimensions, where individual traits may significantly correlate with specific leadership behaviours. Still, the holistic view of culture's impact on leadership is more nuanced. The results imply that other variables, possibly organisational culture or individual leader attributes, play a more critical role in shaping leadership behaviours than the broader national cultural characteristics measured by Hofstede's (1984) dimensions.

For practitioners and scholars, these findings highlight the importance of considering cultural nuances and individual leader attributes when applying servant leadership theories in diverse cultural settings. While individualism within the Emirati context appears to

enhance certain servant leadership behaviours, the broader constellation of cultural traits requires a more nuanced interpretation. Future research might explore additional variables that could mediate or moderate the relationship between cultural characteristics and servant leadership, offering a more detailed understanding of how to cultivate effective leadership within diverse cultural environments.

5.7 Results for RQ3

The third research question is restated below:

RQ3: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among United Kingdom leaders?

H3: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among United Kingdom leaders.

Pearson's bivariate correlations were performed to address research question 3. The assumptions of normality and no outliers were met by inspection of kurtosis and skewness statistics and the examination of standardised values. Among United Kingdom leaders, there was a statistically significant small positive linear correlation between putting the team first and power distance ($r = 0.29, p = .03$). There were no other statistically significant correlations between the dimensions of servant leadership and cultural characteristics for United Kingdom leaders.

Multiple regression was also performed to collectively assess the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership (dependent variables) and the cultural characteristics dimensions (independent variables). None of the models were statistically significant ($p > 0.05$). The findings can be shown in Tables 26–32 below.

Tables 26 to 32 contain ANOVA outputs for various dependent variables, including "Emotional Healing," "Community Value," "Conceptual Skills," "Empowering," "Helping

Subordinates Grow," "Putting Team First," and "Behaving Ethically." Each table assesses the relationship between the dependent variable and predictors such as Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, and Masculinity Total.

Table 26 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Emotional Healing

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	118.665	5	23.733	.564	.727b
	Residual	1388.310	33	42.070		
	Total	1506.974	38			

a. Dependent Variable: Emotional Healing

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Masculinity Total

Table 27 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Community Value

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	135.693	5	27.139	.742	.598b
	Residual	1207.538	33	36.592		
	Total	1343.231	38			

a. Dependent Variable: Community Value

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Masculinity Total

Table 28 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Conceptual Skills

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	78.690	5	15.738	.638	.672b
	Residual	813.618	33	24.655		
	Total	892.308	38			

a. Dependent Variable: Conceptual Skills

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Masculinity Total

Table 29 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Empowering

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	137.357	5	27.471	.808	.553b
	Residual	1122.387	33	34.012		
	Total	1259.744	38			

a. Dependent Variable: Empowering

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Masculinity Total

Table 30 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Helping Subordinates Grow

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	90.052	5	18.010	.422	.830b
	Residual	1407.025	33	42.637		
	Total	1497.077	38			

a. Dependent Variable: Helping Subordinates Grow

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Masculinity Total

Table 31 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Putting Team First

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	154.424	5	30.885	.745	.595b
	Residual	1367.319	33	41.434		
	Total	1521.744	38			

a. Dependent Variable: Putting Team First

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Masculinity Total

Table 32 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Behaving Ethically

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	133.329	5	26.666	.886	.502b
	Residual	993.748	33	30.114		
	Total	1127.077	38			

a. Dependent Variable: Behaving Ethically

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Masculinity Total

Table 26 shows that the predictors collectively do not explain significant variance in "Emotional Healing." Similarly, Tables 27 to 31 indicate that the predictors do not significantly affect their dependent variables. Table 32 also suggests that the effect is not statistically significant at the conventional significance level of 0.05.

5.8 Results for RQ4

The fourth research question is restated below:

RQ4: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Indian leaders?

H4: There is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Indian leaders.

The researcher performed Pearson's bivariate correlations to address research question 4.

The assumptions of normality and no outliers were met by inspection of kurtosis and skewness statistics and the examination of standardised values. Among Indian leaders, there was a statistically significant moderate negative linear correlation between putting team first and masculinity ($r = -0.32, p = 0.04$). No other correlations were statistically significant ($p > 0.05$). Multiple regression was also performed to collectively assess the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership (dependent variables) and the cultural characteristics dimensions (independent variables). None of the models were statistically significant ($p > 0.05$). The findings can be shown in Tables 33–39 below.

Tables 33 to 39 present the ANOVA output for different dependent variables, including "Emotional Healing," "Community Value," "Conceptual Skills," "Empowering," "Helping Subordinates Grow," "Putting Team First," and "Behaving Ethically," assessing the relationship between the dependent variable and predictors such as Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, and Masculinity Total.

Table 33 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Emotional Healing

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	34.952	5	6.990	.240	.940b
	Residual	639.763	22	29.080		
	Total	674.714	27			

a. Dependent Variable: Emotional Healing

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Masculinity Total

Table 34 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Community Value

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	113.842	5	22.768	.561	.729b
	Residual	892.836	22	40.583		
	Total	1006.679	27			

a. Dependent Variable: Community Value

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Masculinity Total

Table 35 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Conceptual Skills

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	111.194	5	22.239	.683	.641b
	Residual	716.663	22	32.576		
	Total	827.857	27			

a. Dependent Variable: Conceptual Skills

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Masculinity Total

Table 36 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Empowering

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	53.577	5	10.715	.246	.937b
	Residual	957.851	22	43.539		
	Total	1011.429	27			

a. Dependent Variable: Empowering

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Masculinity Total

Table 37 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Helping Subordinates Grow

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	250.582	5	50.116	1.239	.325b
	Residual	890.096	22	40.459		
	Total	1140.679	27			

a. Dependent Variable: Helping Subordinates Grow

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Masculinity Total

Table 38 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Putting Team First

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	102.555	5	20.511	.470	.795b
	Residual	960.302	22	43.650		
	Total	1062.857	27			

a. Dependent Variable: Putting Team First

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Masculinity Total

Table 39 ANOVA Output: Dependent Variable: Behaving Ethically

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	73.108	5	14.622	.352	.875b
	Residual	912.999	22	41.500		
	Total	986.107	27			

a. Dependent Variable: Behaving Ethically

b. Predictors: (Constant), Long-term Orientation Total, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, Masculinity Total

Table 33 reveals that the predictors collectively do not explain significant variance in the dependent variable "Emotional Healing." Similarly, Table 34 shows that the predictors do not significantly affect "Community Value." Table 35 suggests that the model's predictors are not statistically significant in predicting "Conceptual Skills." Table 35 indicates that the predictors are not statistically significant in predicting "Empowering." Table 37 and Table 38 also show that the predictors do not significantly affect "Helping Subordinates

Grow" and "Putting Team First," respectively. Table 39 also reveals the effect is not statistically significant at the conventional significance level of 0.05. Therefore, the predictors do not have a statistically significant effect on the respective dependent variables across all tables. However, further investigation may be necessary to explore potential associations or trends.

5.9 Results for RQ5

The fifth research question is restated below:

RQ5: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, and any possible interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers?

H5: There are statistically significant differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, and any possible interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers.

Due to the sample size of 149 being smaller than the 158 required to achieve > 80% observed power for the analysis, the researcher performed both a two-way ANOVA and bootstrapping to test for an interaction effect between two independent variables with a dependent variable. Bootstrapping is used when the observed power for the analysis is below 80% because it is a resampling technique used to estimate the statistical power of a study, even if the observed power is low. The bootstrapping process involves randomly resampling the data and calculating the sample statistic, such as the mean or median, for each sample. This process is repeated several times, and the results are used to calculate the power of the test. Bootstrapping is a helpful way to estimate the statistical power of a study when the observed power is low and can help determine if the sample size needs to be increased.

In this case, the two independent variables are the employee’s nationality and the manager’s nationality, and the dependent variables are each of the employees. Tables 40 through 46, below, depict the results of two-way ANOVA for each dependent variables (that is, emotional healing, creating value for the community, conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates grow, putting subordinates first, and behaving ethically). In each case, the interaction term nationality region * nationality line manager was not significant ($p > 0.05$). This finding indicates that the relationship between the seven dependent variables and the employees’ nationality does not depend on the manager’s nationality. No significant difference exists in how employees rated their manager depending on nationality.

Table 40 Two-Way ANOVA – Dependent Variable: Emotional Healing

Source	df	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	11	.703	.734
Intercept	1	1765.038	.000
Nationality Region	2	.399	.672
Nationality Line Manager	3	.248	.863
Nationality Region * Nationality Line Manager	6	1.010	.421
Error	156		
Total	168		
Corrected Total	167		

Notes. Nationality Region * Nationality Line Manager indicates the interaction term of nationality region and nationality line manager.

Table 41 Two-Way ANOVA – Dependent Variable: Creating value for the community

Source	df	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	11	.892	.550
Intercept	1	1225.116	.000
Nationality Region	2	.876	.418
Nationality Line Manager	3	.762	.517
Nationality Region * Nationality Line Manager	6	.868	.520
Error	156		
Total	168		
Corrected Total	167		

Notes. Nationality Region * Nationality Line Manager indicates the interaction term of nationality region and nationality line manager.

Table 42 Two-Way ANOVA – Dependent Variable: Conceptual Skills

Source	Df	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	11	1.215	.281
Intercept	1	2335.832	.000
Nationality Region	2	.594	.554
Nationality Line Manager	3	.515	.673
Nationality Region * Nationality Line Manager	6	1.597	.151
Error	158		
Total	170		
Corrected Total	169		

Notes. Nationality Region * Nationality Line Manager indicates the interaction term of nationality region and nationality line manager.

Table 43 Two-Way ANOVA – Dependent Variable: Empowering

Source	Df	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	11	.854	.587
Intercept	1	1456.693	.000
Nationality Region	2	.131	.878
Nationality Line Manager	3	1.493	.219
Nationality Region * Nationality Line Manager	6	.426	.860
Error	153		
Total	165		
Corrected Total	164		

Notes. Nationality Region * Nationality Line Manager indicates the interaction term of nationality region and nationality line manager.

Table 44 Two-Way ANOVA – Dependent Variable: Helping Subordinates Grow

Source	Df	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	11	.944	.500
Intercept	1	1300.396	.000
Nationality Region	2	1.793	.170
Nationality Line Manager	3	1.640	.182
Nationality Region * Nationality Line Manager	6	.566	.757
Error	158		
Total	170		
Corrected Total	169		

Notes. Nationality Region * Nationality Line Manager indicates the interaction term of nationality region and nationality line manager.

Table 45 Two-Way ANOVA – Dependent Variable: Putting Subordinates First

Source	df	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	11	1.039	.415
Intercept	1	1142.983	.000
Nationality Region	2	.803	.450
Nationality Line Manager	3	1.354	.259
Nationality Region * Nationality Line Manager	6	.793	.577
Error	157		
Total	169		
Corrected Total	168		

Notes. Nationality Region * Nationality Line Manager indicates the interaction term of nationality region and nationality line manager.

Table 46 Two-Way ANOVA – Dependent Variable: Behaving Ethically

Source	Df	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	11	.842	.599
Intercept	1	1517.230	.000
Nationality Region	2	.256	.774
Nationality Line Manager	3	1.002	.393
Nationality Region * Nationality Line Manager	6	.650	.690
Error	157		
Total	169		
Corrected Total	168		

Notes. Nationality Region * Nationality Line Manager indicates the interaction term of nationality region and nationality line manager.

The results of two-way ANOVA analyses for different dependent variables, including "Emotional Healing," "Creating value for the community," "Conceptual Skills," "Empowering," "Helping Subordinates Grow," "Putting Subordinates First," and "Behaving Ethically" are presented in Tables 40 to 46. These analyses explore the influence of two categorical independent variables, "Nationality Region" and "Nationality Line Manager," on each dependent variable.

However, the results indicate that neither the main effects of "Nationality Region" and "Nationality Line Manager" nor their interaction significantly explain the variance in the dependent variables, as indicated by the non-significant F-values and p-values above the conventional alpha level of 0.05. This result validates all the dependent variables analysed in Tables 40 to 46. Therefore, the categorical variables of "Nationality Region" and "Nationality Line Manager" do not significantly influence the dependent variables across the different dimensions of leadership assessed in this study.

5.9.1 Bootstrap Results for RQ5

The researcher performed bootstrapping to verify these conclusions. For the seven dependent variables, the results of the bootstrap two-way ANOVA provided similar results. Tables 47–53 below report no significant interaction effect ($p > 0.05$).

Table 47 ANOVA for Emotional Healing

Source	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.888	.676
Intercept	676.791	.000
Manager Country	.282	.755
Employee Country	.864	.692
Manager * Employee Country	1.133	.346

Table 48 ANOVA for Community Value

Source	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.863	.716
Intercept	513.721	.000
Manager Country	.281	.756
Employee Country	.874	.677
Manager * Employee Country	.616	.797

Table 49 ANOVA for Conceptual Skills

Source	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.786	.827
Intercept	813.995	.000
Manager Country	.010	.990
Employee Country	.527	.987
Manager * Employee Country	1.410	.187

Table 50 ANOVA for Empowering

Source	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.678	.936
Intercept	608.721	.000
Manager Country	3.404	.037
Employee Country	.752	.841
Manager * Employee Country	.985	.462

Table 51 ANOVA for Helping Subordinates Grow

Source	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.758	.861
Intercept	477.428	.000
Manager Country	.559	.573
Employee Country	.658	.929
Manager * Employee Country	.828	.603

Table 52 ANOVA for Putting Team First

Source	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.911	.638
Intercept	436.492	.000
Manager Country	.518	.597
Employee Country	.938	.578
Manager * Employee Country	.795	.634

Table 53 ANOVA for Behaving Ethically

Source	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.495	.997
Intercept	627.059	.000
Manager Country	.462	.631
Employee Country	.396	.999
Manager * Employee Country	.763	.664

Tables 47 to 53 present the results of ANOVA analyses for different dimensions of leadership, including "Emotional Healing," "Community Value," "Conceptual Skills," "Empowering," "Helping Subordinates Grow," "Putting Team First," and "Behaving Ethically." The ANOVA results indicate non-significant findings for all dimensions of leadership assessed. This result means that the combined effects of Manager Country, Employee Country, and their interaction do not significantly explain the variance in the respective dependent variables. Similarly, the non-significant results for the "Manager Country," "Employee Country," and "Manager * Employee Country" rows indicate that these factors, individually and in interaction, do not significantly impact the dependent variables. In summary, based on the ANOVA results presented in Tables 47 to 53, there is no significant influence of Manager Country, Employee Country, or their interaction on any of the dimensions of leadership assessed in this study.

5.10 Results for RQ6

The sixth research question is restated below:

RQ6: Does the manager's nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) mediate the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics?

H6: The manager's nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) mediates the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics.

In this study, mediation analysis was performed. Good fit was obtained in the hypothesised model (the chi-square = 37.26, df = 35; CFI > 0.99; TLI > .99; RMSEA < 0.08; SRMR < 0.08) (Table 54).

In this study, support is not obtained for Hypothesis 6. Managers' nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) does not mediate the relationship between long-term orientation ($\beta = 0.00, p > 0.05$) and emotional healing ($\beta = 0.13, p > 0.05$), creating value for the community ($\beta = 0.09, p > 0.05$), conceptual skills ($\beta = -0.29, p > 0.05$), empowering ($\beta = -0.43, p > 0.05$), helping subordinates grow ($\beta = -0.984, p > 0.05$), putting the team first ($\beta = -0.93, p > 0.05$), and behaving ethically ($\beta = -0.92, p > 0.05$). Managers' nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) does not mediate the relationship between power distance ($\beta = 0.10, p > 0.05$) and emotional healing ($\beta = 0.13, p > 0.05$), creating value for the community ($\beta = 0.09, p > 0.05$), conceptual skills ($\beta = -0.29, p > 0.05$), empowering ($\beta = -0.43, p > 0.05$), helping subordinates grow ($\beta = -0.984, p > 0.05$), putting the team first ($\beta = -0.93, p > 0.05$), and behaving ethically ($\beta = -0.92, p > 0.05$). Managers' nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) does not mediate the relationship between uncertainty avoidance ($\beta = 0.02, p > 0.05$) and emotional healing ($\beta = 0.13, p > 0.05$), creating value for the community ($\beta = 0.09, p > 0.05$), conceptual skills ($\beta = -0.29, p > 0.05$), empowering ($\beta = -0.43, p > 0.05$), helping subordinates grow ($\beta = -0.984, p > 0.05$), putting the team first ($\beta = -0.93, p > 0.05$), and behaving ethically ($\beta = -0.92, p > 0.05$). Managers' nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) does not mediate the relationship between individualism ($\beta = -0.03, p > 0.05$) and emotional healing ($\beta = 0.13, p > 0.05$), creating value for the community ($\beta = 0.09, p > 0.05$), conceptual skills ($\beta = -0.29, p$

> 0.05), empowering ($beta = -0.43, p > 0.05$), helping subordinates grow ($beta = -0.984, p > 0.05$), putting the team first ($beta = -0.93, p > 0.05$), and behaving ethically ($beta = -0.92, p > 0.05$). Managers' nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) does not mediate the relationship between masculinity ($beta = -0.01, p > 0.05$) and emotional healing ($beta = 0.13, p > 0.05$), creating value for the community ($beta = 0.09, p > 0.05$), conceptual skills ($beta = -0.29, p > 0.05$), empowering ($beta = -0.43, p > 0.05$), helping subordinates grow ($beta = -0.984, p > 0.05$), putting the team first ($beta = -0.93, p > 0.05$), and behaving ethically ($beta = -0.92, p > 0.05$).

The statistical assessment of the hypothesised model's fit employs several critical SEM metrics to evaluate how accurately the proposed model reflects the collected data. Here is a streamlined interpretation of the mentioned components. First, the chi-square test measures the difference between the observed and expected data under the model, with a lower value indicating a better fit. The given chi-square value relative to the degrees of freedom suggests a close fit, as the ratio (approximately 1.06) falls within the acceptable range, indicating the model's predictions are consistent with the observed data.

Secondly, both the CFI and TLI compare the fit of the hypothesised model against a baseline model with no relationships among variables. Values close to 1 signify an excellent fit. In this case, values greater than 0.99 for both indices indicate an exceptional match between the model and the data, affirming that the hypothesised relationships among variables highly represent the empirical observations.

Finally, the RMSEA evaluates the model fit per degree of freedom, considering model complexity, where values less than 0.08 suggest a reasonable approximation error.

Similarly, the SRMR measures the average discrepancy between the observed correlations and those predicted by the model, with values below 0.08 denoting a good fit. Both

measures indicate that the model's inaccuracies are minimal and within acceptable limits, suggesting the theoretical framework adequately captures the underlying data structure. These statistical indicators confirm that the hypothesised model exhibits an excellent fit with the observed data, bolstering the validity of the proposed theoretical framework. The model's alignment with empirical data supports its relevance and applicability in explaining the dynamics under investigation, highlighting the robustness of the theoretical underpinnings and the accuracy of the model's predictions.

Table 54 Fit Indices for Each of the Mediation Models

SEM	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA	AIC	BIC
Full Model	0.83	0.71	0.17	0.16	6298.521	6430.695
Trimmed Model	0.99	0.99	0.03	0.02	6153.640	6300.833

Notes. To obtain a trimmed model, the path between “emotional healing” and “creating value for the community” was fixed to zero in the full model. According to Hu and Bentler (1999), the model that results in the lowest value of the AIC and the BIC is preferred. Thus, the trimmed model was chosen in the study.

Table 54 presents fit indices for two mediation models: the Full and Trimmed models. These indices evaluate how well each model fits the observed data. In terms of the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), which compare the hypothesised model to a baseline model, the Trimmed Model outperforms the Full Model, with CFI and TLI values of 0.99 and 0.99, respectively, approaching 1. Additionally, the Trimmed Model demonstrates substantially lower Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) values compared to the Full Model, with SRMR of 0.03 and RMSEA of 0.02 for the Trimmed Model. Moreover, the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) values are notably lower for the Trimmed Model, with AIC at 6153.640 and BIC at 6300.833, compared to the Full Model. These values suggest that the Trimmed Model strikes a better balance between model fit and complexity. Overall, these findings

underscore the superiority of the Trimmed Model in explaining the relationships within the mediation framework, emphasizing its stronger fit to the observed data compared to the Full Model.

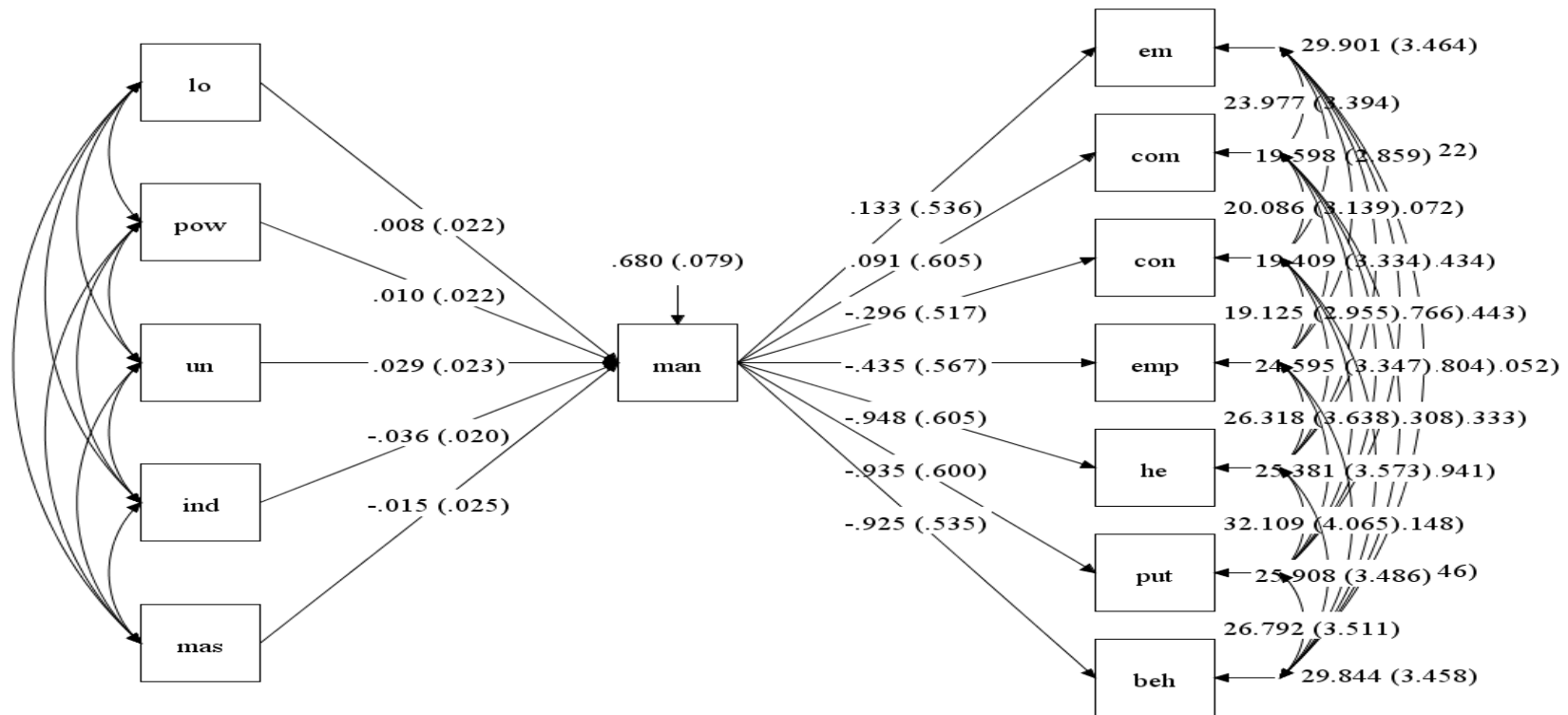


Figure 8 Path Diagram

Notes: lo = long-term orientation, pow = power distance, un = uncertainty avoidance, ind = individualism, mas = masculinity, man = manager's nationality, em = emotional healing, com = creating value for the community, con = conceptual skills, emp = empowering, he = helping subordinates grow, put = putting team first, beh = behaving ethically

5.11 Results for RQ7

The seventh research question is restated below:

RQ7: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' tenure and cultural or leadership scale scores?

The researcher performed an analysis to measure the correlation between the length of service in the company and the scores on servant leadership dimensions (by each nationality):

1. Each tenure group versus each SLS dimension (Emirati)
2. Each tenure group versus each SLS dimension (United Kingdom)
3. Each tenure group versus each SLS dimension (India).

In addition, the researcher tested the correlation between the length of service in the company and the culture dimensions (by each nationality):

1. Each tenure group versus each Hofstede dimension (Emirati)
2. Each tenure group versus each Hofstede dimension (United Kingdom)
3. Each tenure group versus each Hofstede dimension (India).

Correlations between tenure and service leadership and tenure and culture dimensions by nationality were calculated using Spearman's rho. The Spearman's rank-order correlation (often abbreviated to Spearman's correlation) calculates a coefficient measuring the strength and direction of the association/relationship between two ordinal variables (Tables 55-60).

For United Kingdom respondents, there was a significant medium positive correlation between tenure and community values ($p = 0.021$, $r = 0.31$). There were no other significant correlations ($p > 0.05$).

For the Indian group, there was a medium positive significant correlation between tenure and uncertainty avoidance ($p = 0.013$, $r = 0.422$). There were no other significant correlations in other nationalities ($p > 0.05$, Tables 59 - 60).

Table 55 Correlations Between Tenure and Servant Leadership: Emirati

Servant Leadership Dimensions		Tenure
Emotional Healing	Correlation Coefficient	-.203
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.191
	N	43
Community Value	Correlation Coefficient	-.059
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.706
	N	43
Conceptual Skills	Correlation Coefficient	-.244
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.114
	N	43
Empowering	Correlation Coefficient	-.154
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.325
	N	43
Helping Subordinates Grow	Correlation Coefficient	-.303
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.048
	N	43
Putting Team First	Correlation Coefficient	-.171
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.274
	N	43
Behaving Ethically	Correlation Coefficient	-.164
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.292
	N	43
Tenure	Correlation Coefficient	1.000
	N	43

Spearman's rho

Table 56 Correlations Between Tenure and Servant Leadership: United Kingdom

Servant Leadership Dimensions		Tenure
Spearman's rho	Emotional Healing	.223
		Correlation Coefficient
		Sig. (2-tailed)
		.105
		N
		54
	Community Value	.312
		Correlation Coefficient
		Sig. (2-tailed)
		.021
	N	
	54	
Conceptual Skills	.070	
	Correlation Coefficient	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	.613	
	N	
	54	
Empowering	-.009	
	Correlation Coefficient	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	.947	
	N	
	54	
Helping Subordinates Grow	.096	
	Correlation Coefficient	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	.490	
	N	
	54	
Putting Team First	.103	
	Correlation Coefficient	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	.457	
	N	
	54	
Behaving Ethically	.004	
	Correlation Coefficient	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	.978	
	N	
	54	
Tenure	1.000	
	Correlation Coefficient	
	N	
	54	

Table 57 Correlations Between Tenure and Servant Leadership: India

Servant Leadership Dimensions		Tenure
Spearman's rho	Emotional Healing	.081
		Correlation Coefficient
		Sig. (2-tailed)
		.600
		N
		44
	Community Value	.092
		Correlation Coefficient
		Sig. (2-tailed)
		.552
	N	
	44	
Conceptual Skills	.029	
	Correlation Coefficient	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	.852	
	N	
	44	
Empowering	.140	
	Correlation Coefficient	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	.366	
	N	
	44	
Helping Subordinates Grow	-.048	
	Correlation Coefficient	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	.756	
	N	
	44	
Putting Team First	.028	
	Correlation Coefficient	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	.856	
	N	
	44	
Behaving Ethically	.176	
	Correlation Coefficient	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	.253	
	N	
	44	
Tenure	1.000	
	Correlation Coefficient	
	N	
	44	

Table 58 Correlations Between Tenure and Culture Dimension: Emirati

Culture Dimension		Tenure
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	-.275
	Power Distance Total	.099
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	37
	Correlation Coefficient	.153
	Individualism Total	.359
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	38
	Correlation Coefficient	.014
	Masculinity Total	.935
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	35
	Correlation Coefficient	-.075
	Uncertainty Avoidance Total	.654
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	38
	Correlation Coefficient	-.059
	Long-term Orientation Total	.731
Sig. (2-tailed)		
N	37	
Correlation Coefficient	1.000	
Tenure		
N	43	

Table 59 Correlations Between Tenure and Culture Dimension: United Kingdom

Service Leadership Dimension		Tenure
Spearman's rho	Correlation Coefficient	-.111
	Power Distance Total	.464
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	46
	Correlation Coefficient	-.084
	Individualism Total	.585
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	45
	Correlation Coefficient	.107
	Masculinity Total	.487
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	44
	Correlation Coefficient	-.081
	Uncertainty Avoidance Total	.595
	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	N	45
	Correlation Coefficient	.041
	Long-term Orientation Total	.783
Sig. (2-tailed)		
N	47	
Correlation Coefficient	1.000	
Tenure		
N	54	

Table 60 Correlations Between Tenure Culture Dimension: India

Culture Dimension		Tenure
Spearman's rho	Power Distance Total	.131
	Correlation Coefficient	.445
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.36
	N	
	Individualism Total	-.237
	Correlation Coefficient	.170
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.35
	N	
	Masculinity Total	.189
	Correlation Coefficient	.276
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.35
	N	
	Uncertainty Avoidance Total	.422
	Correlation Coefficient	.013
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.34
	N	
	Long-term Orientation Total	-.096
	Correlation Coefficient	.597
Sig. (2-tailed)	.33	
N		
Tenure	1.000	
Correlation Coefficient	.44	
N		

Tables 55-60 showcase correlations between tenure and servant leadership and cultural dimensions across different regions - Emirati, United Kingdom, and India. Table 55 shows the Emirati region's correlations, indicating weak negative correlations between tenure and servant leadership dimensions like Emotional Healing, Conceptual Skills, Empowering, Helping Subordinates Grow, Putting Team First, and Behaving Ethically. However, none of these correlations show statistical significance at the 0.05 level. Similar patterns were observed in Tables 56 and 57 for the United Kingdom and India, respectively—tables 58, 59, and 60 present correlations between tenure and cultural dimensions. Weak negative correlations between tenure and Power Distance Total were seen for the Emirati and United Kingdom regions, but none were statistically significant. In contrast, India showed a statistically significant positive correlation between tenure and Uncertainty Avoidance Total, indicating that as tenure increases, so does Uncertainty Avoidance. These findings

offer insights into the relationships between tenure, servant leadership, and cultural dimensions across different regions.

5.11.1 Bootstrap Results for RQ7

Bootstrapping verified that power distance was statistically significant ($p \leq 0.05$) (Table 61). In addition, bootstrapping revealed that conceptual skills and empowering were significant. For conceptual skills, senior executive leaders score significantly higher than front-line managers. This difference was a statistically significant: 5.51-point difference ($p = 0.009$). For empowering, senior executive leaders score significantly higher than front-line managers. This difference was a statistically significant: 6.51-point difference ($p = 0.005$).

Multiple comparisons revealed no significant differences in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. The observed power for the analysis was 78%. The researcher performed a sensitivity analysis to validate these findings by performing bootstrapping. Bootstrapping is used when the observed power for the analysis is below 80% because it is a resampling technique used to estimate the statistical power of a study, even if the observed power is low. The bootstrapping process involves randomly resampling the data and calculating the sample statistic, such as the mean or median, for each sample. This process is repeated several times, and the results are used to calculate the power of the test. Bootstrapping is a helpful way to estimate the statistical power of a study when the observed power is low and can help determine if the sample size needs to be increased. For this analysis, 2000 samples were resampled from the sample, and 95% confidence intervals for mean differences were constructed.

Comparisons of the two tables reveal no statistically significant differences in mean servant leadership scores between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. Note that

each confidence interval (original and bootstrapped) contains the number zero, indicating no statistically significant differences.

Table 61 Bootstrap for RQ7

	F	Sig.
Emotional Healing	1.909	.154
Community Value	.794	.455
Conceptual Skills	4.616	.012
Empowering	5.558	.005
Helping Subordinates Grow	2.418	.095
Putting Team First	2.419	.095
Behaving Ethically	1.986	.143
Power Distance	3.097	.050
Individualism Total	1.023	.364
Masculinity	1.121	.330
Uncertainty Avoidance	.871	.422
Long-term Orientation	.038	.963

Table 61 shows the results of the bootstrap analysis for Research Question 7 (RQ7), presenting the relationship between various factors and different dimensions. Conceptual Skills and Empowering exhibit statistically significant relationships with the examined factors, as evidenced by their low p-values ($p < 0.05$) and F-values of 4.616 and 5.558, respectively, indicating stronger relationships than other factors. Conversely, some factors such as Community Value, Helping Subordinates Grow, Behaving Ethically, Power Distance, Individualism Total, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Long-term Orientation show higher p-values ($p > 0.05$), suggesting non-significant relationships with the dimensions under investigation. These results provide insights into the associations between the examined factors and various dimensions, highlighting the importance of Conceptual Skills, Empowering, and Putting the Team First in the study context.

5.12 Results for RQ8

The eighth research question was tested:

RQ8: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and cultural or leadership scale scores?

H8: There are no statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics. There are statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and servant leadership characteristics.

The researcher performed one-way ANOVA and bootstrapping to test RQ8. Table 62 provides descriptive statistics for the dimensions of cultural and leadership scores by line managers' grade seniority. There was an overall significant result for power distance: $F(2|122) = 3.768, p = 0.026$. No other dimensions were statistically significant. However, multiple comparisons did not reveal statistically significant results at the 0.05 level for power distance.

For power distance multiple comparisons, the smallest p -value was $p = 0.052$ between front-line managers and senior/executive leaders. Front-line managers had a larger mean power distance than senior managers/executives. Although this difference is not significant, it is worth mentioning because the overall ANOVA was found to be statistically significant. Tables 63-64 provide detailed information regarding the multiple comparisons and ANOVA results.

Table 62 Descriptive Statistics for Dimensions of Cultural and Leadership Scores

		N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Emotional Healing	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	20	20.90	5.119	9	28
	Middle/Department Manager	72	19.93	6.096	4	28
	Senior/Executive Leader	53	20.92	4.835	5	28
	Total	145	20.43	5.520	4	28
Front-line Manager/Team Leader		20	19.40	7.163	5	28

		N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Community Value	Middle/Department Manager	72	18.57	6.023	4	27
	Senior/Executive Leader	53	19.77	6.176	6	28
	Total	145	19.12	6.225	4	28
Conceptual Skills	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	20	20.45	6.517	7	28
	Middle/Department Manager	72	21.44	5.243	5	28
	Senior/Executive Leader	53	22.51	4.968	7	28
	Total	145	21.70	5.344	5	28
Empowering	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	20	19.05	6.245	6	27
	Middle/Department Manager	72	19.44	5.995	4	28
	Senior/Executive Leader	53	21.36	5.410	7	28
	Total	145	20.09	5.864	4	28
Helping Subordinates Grow	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	20	18.70	6.122	8	28
	Middle/Department Manager	72	18.63	6.549	4	27
	Senior/Executive Leader	53	20.02	5.966	4	28
	Total	145	19.14	6.276	4	28
Putting Team First	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	20	17.05	5.898	4	28
	Middle/Department Manager	72	17.14	6.396	4	27
	Senior/Executive Leader	53	18.60	6.096	6	28
	Total	145	17.66	6.221	4	28
Behaving Ethically	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	20	20.00	5.554	8	28
	Middle/Department Manager	72	20.47	5.920	4	28
	Senior/Executive Leader	53	21.55	5.139	7	28
	Total	145	20.80	5.588	4	28
Power Distance Total	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	16	13.25	2.206	9	16
	Middle/Department Manager	60	12.52	3.138	6	20
	Senior/Executive Leader	47	11.23	2.772	5	17
	Total	123	12.14	2.962	5	20
Individualism Total	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	13	17.15	2.035	14	20
	Middle/Department Manager	63	17.89	3.751	5	25
	Senior/Executive Leader	45	18.13	2.873	13	25
	Total	121	17.90	3.285	5	25

		N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Masculinity Total	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	15	13.00	3.359	5	17
	Middle/Department Manager	58	13.09	2.861	7	19
	Senior/Executive Leader	45	12.49	2.418	6	20
	Total	118	12.85	2.760	5	20
Uncertainty Avoidance Total	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	16	17.44	3.162	14	24
	Middle/Department Manager	60	16.52	2.600	9	22
	Senior/Executive Leader	45	16.87	2.768	11	25
	Total	121	16.77	2.735	9	25
Long-term Orientation Total	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	15	13.73	2.738	9	21
	Middle/Department Manager	62	13.71	2.888	7	21
	Senior/Executive Leader	44	13.55	2.732	9	20
	Total	121	13.65	2.792	7	21

Table 62 provides descriptive statistics for cultural and leadership scores across different managerial positions. The table presents the number of respondents (N), mean, standard deviation (SD), minimum (Min), and maximum (Max) scores for each dimension, including Emotional Healing, Community Value, Conceptual Skills, Empowering, Helping Subordinates Grow, Putting Team First, Behaving Ethically, Power Distance Total, Individualism Total, Masculinity Total, Uncertainty Avoidance Total, and Long-term Orientation Total. The scores are segmented based on the managerial positions: Front-line Manager/Team Leader, Middle/Department Manager, Senior/Executive Leader, and Total. Senior/Executive Leaders have the highest mean score (20.92) in Emotional Healing, while Middle/Department Managers have the lowest mean score (19.93). In Power Distance Total, Senior/Executive Leaders have the lowest mean score (11.2766), indicating lower perceptions of power distance than other managerial positions.

Table 63 ANOVA Results of Research Question 8

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Emotional Healing	Between Groups	35.339	2	17.669	.577	.563
	Within Groups	4352.151	142	30.649		
	Total	4387.490	144			
Community Value	Between Groups	46.030	2	23.015	.591	.555
	Within Groups	5533.736	142	38.970		
	Total	5579.766	144			
Conceptual Skills	Between Groups	70.675	2	35.338	1.241	.292
	Within Groups	4041.973	142	28.465		
	Total	4112.648	144			
Empowering	Between Groups	136.918	2	68.459	2.019	.137
	Within Groups	4814.916	142	33.908		
	Total	4951.834	144			
Helping Subordinates Grow	Between Groups	63.902	2	31.951	.809	.447
	Within Groups	5608.056	142	39.493		
	Total	5671.959	144			
Putting Team First	Between Groups	74.201	2	37.101	.958	.386
	Within Groups	5498.240	142	38.720		
	Total	5572.441	144			
Behaving Ethically	Between Groups	50.123	2	25.062	.800	.451
	Within Groups	4447.077	142	31.317		
	Total	4497.200	144			
Power Distance Total	Between Groups	63.263	2	31.631	3.768	.026
	Within Groups	1007.388	120	8.395		
	Total	1070.650	122			
Individualism Total	Between Groups	9.695	2	4.848	.445	.642
	Within Groups	1285.115	118	10.891		
	Total	1294.810	120			
Masculinity Total	Between Groups	9.441	2	4.720	.616	.542
	Within Groups	881.813	115	7.668		
	Total	891.254	117			

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Uncertainty Avoidance Total	Between Groups	11.400	2	5.700	.759	.470
	Within Groups	886.121	118	7.509		
	Total	897.521	120			
Long-term Orientation Total	Between Groups	.805	2	.402	.051	.950
	Within Groups	934.617	118	7.920		
	Total	935.421	120			

Table 63 displays the results of ANOVA for Research Question 8 (RQ8) on the relationship between dimensions and leadership roles. In Power Distance Total, the F-value of 3.768 with a significance level of 0.026 suggests a statistically significant relationship between power distance and leadership roles.

Table 64 Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable	(9) Line Manager's Position	(10) Line Manager's Position	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
Emotional Healing	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	Middle/Department Manager	.969	.768
		Senior/Executive Leader	-.025	1.000
	Middle/Department Manager	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	-.969	.768
		Senior/Executive Leader	-.994	.583
	Senior/Executive Leader	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	.025	1.000
		Middle/Department Manager	.994	.583
Community Value	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	Middle/Department Manager	.831	.859
		Senior/Executive Leader	-.374	.972
	Middle/Department Manager	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	-.831	.859
		Senior/Executive Leader	-1.204	.537
	Senior/Executive Leader	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	.374	.972
		Middle/Department Manager	1.204	.537
Conceptual Skills	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	Middle/Department Manager	-.994	.742
		Senior/Executive Leader	-2.059	.308
	Middle/Department Manager	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	.994	.742
		Senior/Executive Leader	-1.065	.514
	Senior/Executive Leader	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	2.059	.308

Dependent Variable	(9) Line Manager's Position	(10) Line Manager's Position	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
		Middle/Department Manager	1.065	.514
Empowering	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	Middle/Department Manager	-.394	.961
		Senior/Executive Leader	-2.308	.289
	Middle/Department Manager	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	.394	.961
		Senior/Executive Leader	-1.914	.168
	Senior/Executive Leader	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	2.308	.289
		Middle/Department Manager	1.914	.168
Helping Subordinates Grow	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	Middle/Department Manager	.075	.999
		Senior/Executive Leader	-1.319	.704
	Middle/Department Manager	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	-.075	.999
		Senior/Executive Leader	-1.394	.440
	Senior/Executive Leader	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	1.319	.704
		Middle/Department Manager	1.394	.440
Putting Team First	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	Middle/Department Manager	-.089	.998
		Senior/Executive Leader	-1.554	.609
	Middle/Department Manager	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	.089	.998
		Senior/Executive Leader	-1.465	.397
	Senior/Executive Leader	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	1.554	.609
		Middle/Department Manager	1.465	.397
Behaving Ethically	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	Middle/Department Manager	-.472	.940
		Senior/Executive Leader	-1.547	.545
	Middle/Department Manager	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	.472	.940
		Senior/Executive Leader	-1.075	.540
	Senior/Executive Leader	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	1.547	.545
		Middle/Department Manager	1.075	.540
Power Distance Total	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	Middle/Department Manager	.73333	.642
		Senior/Executive Leader	1.97340	.052
	Middle/Department Manager	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	-.73333	.642
		Senior/Executive Leader	1.24007	.076
	Senior/Executive Leader	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	-1.97340	.052
		Middle/Department Manager	-1.24007	.076
Individualism Total	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	Middle/Department Manager	-.73504	.746
		Senior/Executive Leader	-.97949	.615
	Middle/Department Manager	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	.73504	.746
		Senior/Executive Leader	-.24444	.924

Dependent Variable	(9) Line Manager's Position	(10) Line Manager's Position	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.	
	Senior/Executive Leader	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	.97949	.615	
		Middle/Department Manager	.24444	.924	
	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	Middle/Department Manager	-.08621	.994	
		Senior/Executive Leader	.51111	.810	
	Masculinity Total	Middle/Department Manager	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	.08621	.994
			Senior/Executive Leader	.59732	.525
	Senior/Executive Leader	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	-.51111	.810	
		Middle/Department Manager	-.59732	.525	
	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	Middle/Department Manager	.92083	.459	
		Senior/Executive Leader	.57083	.755	
	Uncertainty Avoidance Total	Middle/Department Manager	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	-.92083	.459
			Senior/Executive Leader	-.35000	.794
Senior/Executive Leader	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	-.57083	.755		
	Middle/Department Manager	.35000	.794		
	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	Middle/Department Manager	.02366	1.000	
		Senior/Executive Leader	.18788	.973	
	Long-term Orientation Total	Middle/Department Manager	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	-.02366	1.000
			Senior/Executive Leader	.16422	.953
	Senior/Executive Leader	Front-line Manager/Team Leader	-.18788	.973	
		Middle/Department Manager	-.16422	.953	

Table 64 presents the results of multiple comparisons between different managerial positions for each dependent variable. It shows the mean difference between two managerial positions (I-J) and the significance level (Sig.) for each comparison. For example, in Emotional Healing, the mean difference between Front-line Manager/Team Leader and Senior/Executive Leader is -0.025. However, this difference is not statistically significant (Sig. = 1.000). These tables provide valuable insights into the relationships between cultural and leadership dimensions across different managerial positions.

5.12.1 Bootstrap Results for RQ8

Bootstrapping verified that power distance was statistically significant ($p \leq 0.05$). In addition, bootstrapping revealed that conceptual skills and empowering were significant. For conceptual skills, senior executive leaders score significantly higher than front-line managers. This difference was a statistically significant 5.51-point difference ($p = 0.009$). For empowering, senior executive leaders score significantly higher than front-line managers. This difference was a statistically significant 6.51-point difference ($p = 0.005$).

5.13 Qualitative Findings

5.13.1 Description of the Study Sample

The study's target population consisted of employees from a single multinational company with offices in the United Arab Emirates. The researcher recruited and interviewed 29 employees aged 18–65 from the Emirates, India, and the United Kingdom. The levels of engagement from more known to less known were not significantly different. The openness of the interview dialogue was similar. However, formality was initially higher with low or no prior interaction. The researcher spent a little more time on the preamble and rapport building with the interviewees with low or no previous interaction.

Table 65 Participant Demographics

Interviewee Nationality	Totals	Percentage
UK	12	41
Emirati	5	17
Indian	12	41
Manager Nationality Covered		
UK Managers	21	45
Emirati Managers	15	32
Indian Managers	11	23
Interviewee Gender		
Male	21	72
Female	8	28

Interviewee Leadership Level		
Executive	14	48
Senior Manager	9	31
Manager	5	17
Level of Prior Interaction with Interviewer		
High	9	31
Medium	8	28
Low/No	12	41

Table 65 presents participant demographics for the study, providing insights into the composition of participants in terms of nationality, gender, leadership level, and prior interaction. The first section shows the percentage distribution of interviewees based on their nationality, with 41% being from the UK, 17% being Emirati, and another 41% being Indian. The second section indicates the nationality coverage of managers involved in the study, with 45% being from the UK, 32% being Emirati, and 23% being Indian. The third section breaks down the participants by gender, with 72% male and 28% female. The fourth section categorizes the interviewees based on their leadership level, showing that 48% were executives, 31% were senior managers, and 17% were managers. Lastly, the table outlines the level of prior interaction between interviewees and interviewers, indicating that 31% had high interaction, 28% had medium interaction, and 41% had low to no previous interaction. These demographics are crucial for understanding the study's context and potential biases.

5.14 Findings

The previous section describes the study sample. This section presents a major theme and sub-themes related to the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. In addition, this section presents a major theme and sub-themes regarding the differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure.

In addition, this section presents a major theme and sub-themes concerning the differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority.

The first major theme is the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. Nine subthemes appeared from the analysis: (1) collaborative versus hierarchical, (2) long-term orientation, (3) putting the team first or valuing the team, (4) confrontation and respect, (5) relaxed versus driven, (6) structure and timeline, (7) security, (8) community service and social purpose, and (9) no differences.

The second major theme is differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure. Three subthemes appeared from the analysis: (1) differences, (2) no differences, and (3) strong organisational culture. The third major theme is differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority. Two subthemes appeared from the analysis: (1) differences and (2) no differences.

5.15 Theme 1. Difference in the Level of Servant Leadership Between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian Leaders

The first major theme is the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. Aggregated data for Theme 1 yielded 10 sub-themes: (1) collaborative versus hierarchical, (2) long-term orientation, (3) putting the team first or valuing the team, (4) confrontation and respect, (5) relaxed versus driven, (6) structure and timeline, (7) security, (8) community service and social purpose, and (9) no differences.

Table 66 presents the nine sub-themes for Theme 1.

5.15.1 Sub-theme 1: Collaborative versus Hierarchical

Based on nine participants' thoughts, for Sub-theme 1 of Theme 1, United Kingdom leaders were collaborative and open with an allocation of responsibilities, whereas Emirati and Indian leaders were hierarchical.

For example, participant #1 said:

the UK leadership style would typically be more collaborative and more open with, you know, an allocation of responsibilities but less hierarchical. In contrast, you know [Indian] leaders will be more hierarchical.... They're more command and control rather than being consensual, collaborative... you could argue that it is more efficient, but it is more efficient only if the right decision is made in the first place.

Participant #12 agreed with participant 1, and said:

So, the command-and-control style of leadership, I think, is something we are all, amongst the Indians particularly, something that we've all been brought up with. And having come to the UAE, it was pretty much the same style... So, I think it is a natural style to work with.

Participant #14, an Emirati, reflected on their leadership:

I have started moving into a more top-down approach in the sense that it is important to communicate to your reports what is going on. But the visions must be set at the top and trickle down, but collaboration and idea driving and being able to revise your vision through that input. But essentially, leadership is the top-down approach, in my opinion.

5.15.2 Sub-theme 2: Long-term Orientation

Four participants mentioned long-term orientation. For Sub-theme 2 of Theme 1, Emirati leaders talked less about time and more about vision because they needed to be the greatest to reflect the country's vision and strategy. Therefore, whether it was six months or 10 years, they felt they must reach a state. Participant #14 said:

Emirati leaders talk less about time and more about vision because we need to be the greatest. So, the timeline to be able to do that is discussed less than it needs to be done. Whether it is six months or 10 years, this is a state we need to reach... At least from the UK leaders that I have worked with, it is very much about this is where we want to reach, and here, say, for example, through your timeline, we need to reach it at a broad level. So, they do tend to put a timeline in place. Whether or not that comes to fruition is another point entirely, but certainly, that homework is done that way.

Participant #22 said:

I was lucky to have both the UK and Indian leaders, who are very seasoned, and they always knew both the long-term and short-term implications of whatever had to be done. I did not feel they were trying to seek only short term.

5.15.3 Sub-theme 3: Putting the Team First or Valuing the Team

Based on nine participants' thoughts, for Sub-theme 3 of Theme 1, Indian and Emirati managers put the team first or valued the team. Participant #13 said:

Emiratis have been very honest with me, and you know, show me they want to empower me. They want to, you know, give me the autonomy to run my business. They will push me... It is the only way to get you ready for a successful future.

Participant #3 agreed with participant #13, and said that the Emirati managers cared for their wellbeing, whereas the United Kingdom managers focused on the business agenda. Participant #3 said that they had been lucky to have very caring Emirati leaders. "There was that mantra of faith and family, and then everything else is below." The participant said:

That mantra follows through when I think about Emiratis leaders. Generally, you know that that kind of care for your wellbeing and care for your family is there. It may be more evident in an Emirati manager than in a manager of a British origin because we tend to go straight into the business agenda. We [UK] get to the job, and we do not necessarily have those kinds of casual conversations around welfare.

Participant # 6 agreed with participant #3. They said:

When the Indian essence is that we are very much by heart only and go emotionally. You talk about family, and when you come and talk about your family, I get very emotional. If I have a problem, the UK leaders ask me to solve it. But on the Indian side, we care about the issue, too.

Participant #25 said that the Indian leaders had empathy. They said:

With the Indian leaders, you will feel it warmer. It is more like Middle Eastern culture. Thus, there will be more sympathy and empathy in certain situations. But with the UK leaders, I had to adjust to understand and see the different reactions. Thus, with the UK leaders, I found it a challenge initially. You need to understand the differences.

5.15.4 Sub-theme 4: *Confronting and Respect*

Based on four participants' thoughts, for Sub-theme 4 of Theme 1, Emirati leaders tended to avoid confrontation in public, whereas United Kingdom managers did not avoid confrontation. Participant # 4 had seen a lot of Emirati leaders driven by relationships and face-saving factors. Emirati leaders said that they preferred to avoid getting into difficult discussions in public and wanted to stay easy-going. If there was any awkwardness, they wanted to stay away from it.

On the other hand, the British leaders they had worked with had been quite upfront. Therefore, if there was something that they had to say, they would say it. Participant #4 said:

There is a flip side to the English managers. Sometimes they end up saying things that could be misinterpreted. English is a slightly funny language that way. In addition, sometimes statements could basically be misread. Additionally, a message that is acceptable in a particular culture sometimes is not as acceptable in the other.

The participant had seen the British not being overly conscious of cultural differences. The Indian participants tended to draw that line in this case. Indian managers drew the line between the two (United Kingdom and Emirati). The participant could be biased on this view. Participant #28, an Emirati leader, described the value of respect for that person:

Every month, I gather about 20 staff who will come and sit with me, for about an hour or more, for a business update and casual chat. They ask me anything. Every month I keep answering the same question. What is the most important value? So, we have got different values in the company, and in my view, the values are not something to keep on a wall.

Values are something you practice, preach, and believe in. And I always keep saying the most important value for me is respect because that drives the rest of the [company] values.

5.15.5 Sub-theme 5: Relaxed versus Driven

Based on four participants' thoughts, for Sub-theme 5 of Theme 1, United Kingdom leaders appeared more relaxed, whereas Emirati and Indian leaders were driven. When participant #27 first came in, their first leader was from the United Kingdom. The United Kingdom leader was a very assimilative, relaxed leader. The participant thought that the people from the United Kingdom made them feel very comfortable. The flip side of that was one of their earliest managers. The participant said

The people take them as very relaxed, not driven. I am not sure that is true, but that is how the world perceives them. And I have not seen them go places [in their career]. Thus, that is the risk.

However, Indian managers wanted to be seen to be very committed. The participant had seen one pattern. Participant #27 said:

I think that Indian managers want to be very committed. I have seen one pattern: they tend to be very busy and give academics a lot of importance. And they want to be seen, to be busy. I am working 14 hours. 12 hours.... Whereas people from the United Kingdom were very relaxed. I can go off at a time and play golf. And it is beautiful that these differences exist.

The participant thought the styles of Western and Indian managers were different, even though their mission was the same.

5.15.6 Sub-theme 6: Structure and Timeline

Based on four participants' thoughts, United Kingdom managers focused on structure and timelines for Sub-theme 6 of Theme 1. Participant #3 said

I would be conscious of timelines if I returned to work in the West. For example, a timeline for a project in the West is generally like cement. It does not move, and you must manage it to that timeline. Timelines tend to be more fluid and more flexible.

Participant #6 agreed with participant #3 on the United Kingdom managers' focus on structure, and reflected on the different experiences with Emirati leaders:

Having worked for an Emirati, I quite enjoyed it... Often there is a very broad statement of direction... The Emirati culture, to its credit, actually works well with ambiguity, to the point where they can succeed where say, the UK might not, in terms of sheer innovation.

Participant #14 agreed and said:

From the UK leaders that I have worked with, it is very much about this is where we want to reach. For example, they say, "we must reach our timeline at a broad level." Thus, they put a timeline in place, but that homework is done that way.

5.15.7 Sub-theme 7: Security

For Sub-theme 7 of Theme 1, based on two participants' thoughts, Emirati managers said that they felt secure. Participant #8 said

There is a degree of security afforded to Emiratis, which is not afforded to anyone else who does not have a UAE passport. And I think that drives a different type of behaviour.

5.15.8 Sub-theme 8: Community Service and Social Purpose

Five participants mentioned community service and social purpose. Participant #28 said:

As UAE nationals, we live in a country where our leaders are examples not only for us UAE nationals, they set examples for everyone in the country... If you follow their leadership principles, I think you will succeed... How they connect with people, listen to their people, have a vision for the future, and care about the country.

Participant #2 agreed, stating, "Definitely, the Emiratis are very charitable. It is really important. It is a community."

An expatriate manager, participant #13, reflected on their role in contributing to United Arab Emirates Society, said:

75% of what I do is me developing myself to go up. 25% of me is sort of giving back to the organisation in the country to say, you know what, I am invited to work here. I am not a resident. I am not national. I am not protected forever. So, 25% of what I do should develop future talent.

5.15.9 Sub-theme 9: No Differences

For Sub-theme 9 of Theme 1, based on two participants' thoughts, there was no difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders.

For example, participant #10 said:

There is no difference between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. It depends on the individual. Based on my experience, it depends on that individual and their prior management background. For example, I had worked with both [UK] bosses who were control freaks. Indian bosses were also controlling monsters. I had also worked with [UAE] leaders who were hands-off.

Participant #12 agreed with participant #10. The participant had two direct Emirati bosses in [unnamed department]. "One was incredibly trusting and empowering. The other one was micromanaging, controlling, and distrusting."

Participant #12 also had two United Kingdom managers who had contrasting leadership styles.

Table 66 Sub-themes for Theme 1

Interviews	Sub-theme	Aggregate Sub-theme
<p><u>Interviewee 1</u></p> <p>The UK leadership style would typically be more collaborative and more open with, you know, an allocation of responsibilities but less hierarchical. In contrast, you know [Indian] leaders will be more hierarchical... They are more command and control rather than being consensual and collaborative. You could argue that it's more efficient, but it is more efficient only if the right decision is made in the first place.</p> <p><u>Interviewee 12</u></p> <p>So, the command-and-control style of leadership is something we are all, amongst the Indians particularly, something that we've all been brought up with. And having come to the UAE, it was pretty much the same style... So, I think it is a natural style to kind of work with.</p> <p><u>Interviewee 14</u></p> <p>I have started moving into a more top-down approach because it is important to communicate to your reports what is happening. But the visions must be set at the top and trickle down, but collaboration and idea driving and being able to revise your vision through that input. But essentially, leadership is the top-down approach.</p>	<p>UK versus Indian leaders</p> <p>Indian and Emirati Hierarchical Culture</p> <p>Emirati Hierarchy</p>	<p>Collaborative versus Hierarchical</p>
<p><u>Interviewee 14</u></p> <p>Emirati leaders talk less about time and more about vision because we need to be the greatest. So, the timeline to be able to do that is discussed less than it needs to be done. Whether it's six months or 10 years, this is a state we need to reach. How that translates into leadership or objectives or achieving things that are fuzzier because I have not had that direct experience? This style is typically the style I also adopt because it is more actionable.</p>	<p>Emirati Vision</p>	<p>Long-term Orientation</p>

Interviews	Sub-theme	Aggregate Sub-theme
<p>And as I said, I would not know this based on how other UAE leaders work in the organisation. Still, from the UK leaders I've worked with, this is where we want to reach, and here, say, for example, through your timeline, we need to reach it at a broad level. So, they do tend to put a timeline in place. Whether or not that comes to fruition is another point entirely, but certainly, that homework is done that way.</p> <p><u>Interviewee 22</u></p> <p>Uh, so again, I was lucky to have both the UK and Indian leaders, who are very seasoned, and they always knew the long-term and short-term implications of whatever had to be done. They were not trying to seek only short term.</p>	UK and Indian Long-term Planning	
<p><u>Interviewee 3</u></p> <p>Umm. I have been quite lucky because the Emirati leaders I have had have been very caring. And then there is that mantra of faith and family, and then everything else is below. And that follows through when I think about the Emiratis managers. Then generally, you know that that kind of care for your wellbeing and care for your family is generally there. It is more obvious in an Emirati manager than a manager of British origin because we tend to go straight into the business agenda. We [UK] get to the job, and if we do not necessarily have that kind of casual conversations around welfare.</p> <p><u>Interviewee 6</u></p> <p>When the Indian essence is that we are very much by heart only, we go emotionally, you know, as you talk about family. I get very emotional when you tell me about your family. Is it like that?</p> <p>The [UK leaders], if you are having a problem. What should I do with this thing? Yeah, it is your problem. You go and get it solved. But on the Indian side, we care about the problem too – I can share this incident with you.</p>	<p>UK structured care</p> <p>Indian and Emirati Similarities</p>	Putting team first

Interviews	Sub-theme	Aggregate Sub-theme
<p><u>Interviewee 13</u></p> <p>Emiratis have been very honest with me and shown me they want to empower me. They want to give me the autonomy to run my business. They will push me. It is the only way to get you ready for a successful future.</p> <p><u>Interviewee 25</u></p> <p>With the Indian leaders, you will feel it warmer. It is more like Middle Eastern culture. Thus, there will be more sympathy and empathy in certain situations. But with the UK leaders, I had to adjust to understand and see the different reactions. Thus, with the UK leaders, I found it a challenge initially. You need to understand the differences.</p>	<p>Emirati Care</p> <p>Indian and Emirati Warmth</p>	
<p><u>Interviewee 4</u></p> <p>I wonder if this is controversial, but then I will say it. So, I have seen a lot of Emirati leaders here driven more by relationships. Confronting is a big issue, which could be the one I have dealt with, based on the few I have dealt with. Yeah. On the other hand, the [UK]... leaders I have worked with have been quite upfront. Thus, if there is something that they have to say, they will say it. There is a flip side to the [UK] managers I've worked with. Sometimes they end up saying things that could be misinterpreted. You know English is a slightly funny language that way, you know. Yeah. And sometimes statements could basically be misread. And a statement that is acceptable in a particular culture sometimes is not as acceptable in the other. I've seen especially the [UK] not being overly conscious about it. Yeah. And this is where I think the Indians tend to draw that line. Indian managers draw that line between the two quite nicely. Yeah. And I could be biased over there, you know, I being an Indian, I could be a little biased here, but, when I look from the sidelines, you know, the Indian managers, there are. OK, you know, this is where he stopped because he understood the locals. This would cross the line. But he did the Indian manager I'm talking about now. Yeah, but he did not mind being upfront and straight and attacking the issue.</p>	<p>Indians Find the Balance</p>	<p>Confronting and Respect</p>

Interviews	Sub-theme	Aggregate Sub-theme
<p><u>Interviewee 28</u></p> <p>I gather about 20 staff to sit with me for about an hour or more for a business update and casual chat. They ask me anything. I keep answering the same question every month. What is the most important value? So, we have different values in the company, which are not something to keep on a wall. Values I something that you practice, you preach. And you believe in. And I always keep saying the most important value for me is respect, which drives the rest of the values.</p>	<p>Emirati Respect as a Value</p>	
<p><u>Interviewee 27</u></p> <p>My first leader was actually from the UK, and as they say, your leadership habits are set very early in your career. And he was a beautiful assimilative relaxed leader. So, yeah, if I take that forward. I think the folks from the UK made me feel very comfortable, and if I look across 2–3 folks from the UK, I was very comfortable. You didn't feel uncomfortable in their presence here, which for me is important as I was then quite an introvert. So, it was very important because if somebody suddenly becomes very aggressive, my brain stops working. Yeah. So, in my initial years and I've seen that pattern across some of the senior UK. They were very assimilative and very relaxed. Yeah. Now the flip side of that is, and I know, one of my earliest managers. The people take them as very relaxed, not driven. That is how the world perceives them. And I still need to go places. Yeah, so that is the risk. But yeah, I think that Indian managers want to be very committed. I have seen one pattern: they tend to be very busy and give academics a lot of importance. And they want to be seen, to be busy. I'm working 14 hours. 12 hours. Whereas people from the UK were very relaxed. It's OK. I can go off on time and play golf. And it's beautiful, right, that these differences exist. And it was so visible right when I saw Western world and Indian world, the differences, their mission is the same with quite different styles.</p>	<p>Indian Drive and UK Relaxed</p>	<p>Relaxed versus Driven</p>

Interviews	Sub-theme	Aggregate Sub-theme
<p><u>Interviewee 29</u></p> <p>[Indian leaders] in the company they worked hard... They were very driven and dedicated. Get on and do it. So, work ethic. Results driven.</p>	Indian Driven	
<p><u>Interviewee 3</u></p> <p>Yeah. This is something I would be conscious of timelines if I ever went back to work in the [UK]. Let's use a project, for example. A timeline for a project in the [UK] is generally like cement. It doesn't move, and you have got to manage it to that timeline. Timelines here are more fluid and more flexible.</p> <p><u>Interviewee 7</u></p> <p>Having worked for an Emirati, I quite enjoyed it. Often there's kind of a very broad statement of direction. The Emirati culture, to its credit, actually works well with ambiguity, to the point where they can succeed where say, the UK might not, in terms of sheer innovation.</p>	<p>UK Structured Approach</p> <p>Emirati Comfort with Ambiguity</p>	Structure and Timeline
<p><u>Interviewee 8</u></p> <p>The non-Emiratis felt there was much more on the line for them. You know, there was a degree of security afforded to Emiratis, which is not afforded to anyone else without a UAE passport. And that drove a different type of behaviour.</p>	Non-Emirati Lack of Job Security	Security
<p><u>Interviewee 2</u></p> <p>Definitely, the Emiratis are very charitable. It is really important. It is a community.</p>	Emirati Charity	Community Service

Interviews	Sub-theme	Aggregate Sub-theme
<p><u>Interviewee 13</u></p> <p>75% of what I do is me developing myself to go up. 25% of me is giving back to the organisation in the country to say, you know what? I am invited to work here. I'm not a resident. I'm not national. I'm not protected forever. So, 25% of what I do should be developing future talent.</p> <p><u>Interviewee 28</u></p> <p>As UAE nationals, we live in a country where our leaders are examples not only for us UAE nationals, they set examples for everyone in the country. If you follow their leadership principles, you will succeed. How they connect with people, listen to their people, have a vision for the future, and care about the country.</p>	<p>Non-Emirati Community Service</p> <p>Emirati Country Leadership as Role Model</p>	
<p><u>Interviewee 10</u></p> <p>No, it depends on the individual. It depends on that individual and their prior management background or origin. So, I've worked with both [UK] bosses who were control freaks. And Indian bosses were control freaks, and I've also worked with [UAE] leaders who were hands-off.</p> <p><u>Interviewee 12</u></p> <p>I've had two direct Emirati bosses in [unnamed department] and one extremely trusting and empowering. The other one was the other extreme, micromanaging, controlling, and distrusting. I have had [another nationality] and two British bosses. They were things in their style that I liked and that I disliked.</p>	<p>Individual Leaders Not Nationality</p> <p>Different Styles from Same Nationality</p>	<p>No Differences</p>

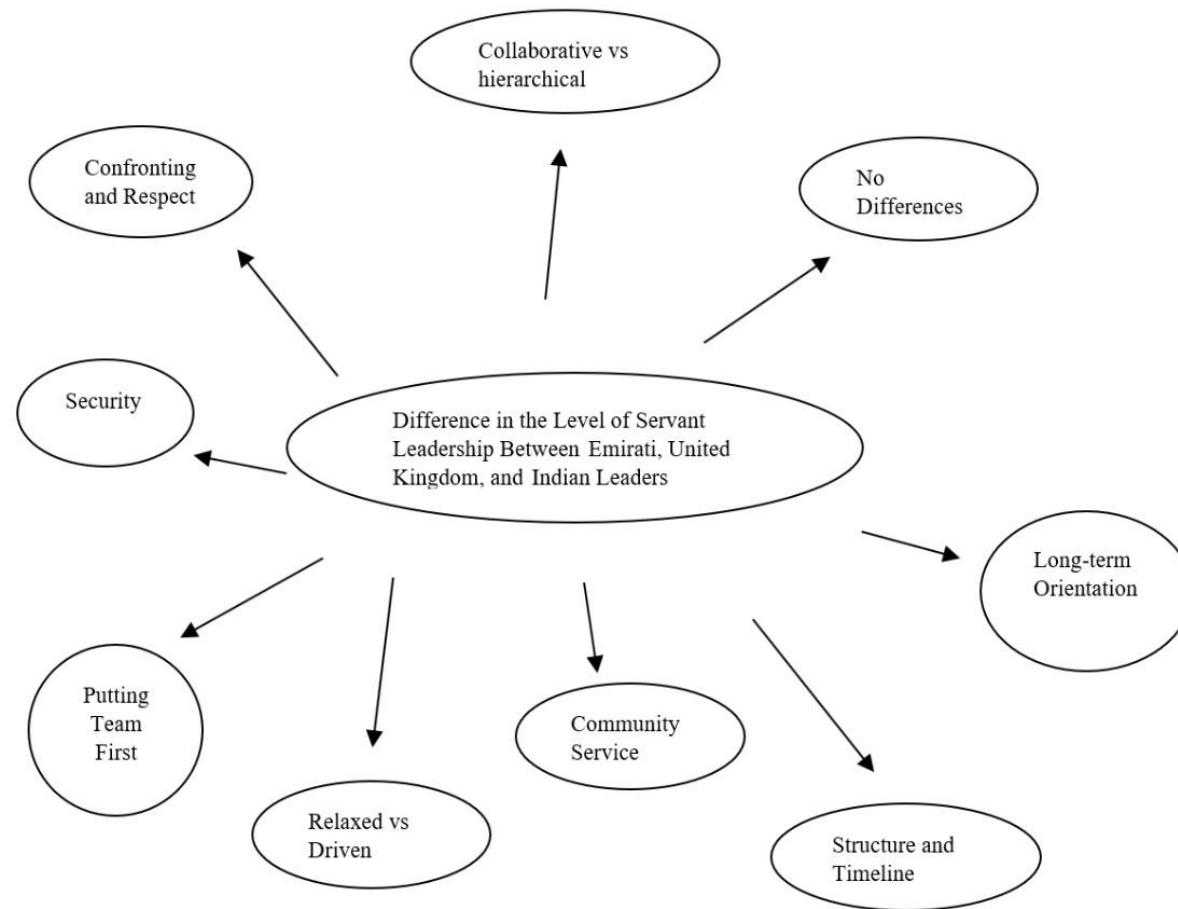


Figure 9 Map: Sub-themes for Theme 1

5.16 Theme 2. Differences in Leadership Approaches Relative to a Leader's Tenure

The second major theme was differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure. Aggregated data for Theme 2 yielded three sub-themes that appeared as follows: (1) differences, (2) no differences, and (3) strong organisational culture. Table 67 presents the two sub-themes for Theme 2.

5.16.1 Sub-theme 1: Differences

For Sub-theme 1 of Theme 2, based on 15 participants' thoughts, there were differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure. For example, participant #10 said:

I agree that people from outside the organisations are more of the servant leadership. They bring in more of the newer concepts of leadership into the game. In contrast, some older leaders who held leadership positions might be slower to change than the new leaders.

Participant #12 agreed with participant #10 and said, "People who came in afresh and new are more trusting than the older leaders. They are more open to new ways of working than older leaders."

Participant #14 agreed with the other participants, and said:

Two types of leaders emerge or characters that appear from someone staying a long time in the group. The first type is the one that becomes much harder over time. I have been grandfathered into this company. I treat it like my company, so I will be tough. That is one type. The other type is as follows: I am comfortable where I am. I want to rock the boat sparingly. I am in an amiable environment, and let's keep that steady pace. You have those two very distinct types over, and that happens. And those two types become much clearer over a more extended period. Those are the two different types that get affected over time.

Participant #7 agreed with the other participants, and said, "It mellows with time if someone comes in with a burning desire to do something to change something. They are going to change the world."

Participant #21 agreed with the other participants. The participant said that the senior Indian leader they knew in the early part of their career was a completely different person when they moved into the leader's team again. The Indian leader had also learned to adapt. The second phase of their leadership was excellent. It was pleasant and similar to what they had experienced with the Westerners. But in the case of relative comparison, the mindset matured into a better leader. The participant had colleagues and peers who had other managers who had seen the transformation that happened.

Participant #22 agreed with participant #21 and said that the tenured people understood how to get that consensus working. The participant said:

They would approach it independently outside of the meeting before everyone gets into the meeting together and when you get to the meeting. Everybody is already aligned, and they can work towards that understanding. How they work with you would be different than a newcomer who will have that visibility and understanding later. It is just too much of a cultural shock for anybody to jump into and say okay. I can drive this the way I was going in my country.

5.16.2 Sub-theme 2: No Differences

For Sub-theme 2 of Theme 2, based on six participants' thoughts, there were no differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure. For example, participant #15 said, "I think leaders' tenure with the company has no impact." The participant said this "because some of the managers I initially worked with as part of the company were quite experienced. They had experiences of 15–20 years in the company. The participant said, "You will easily have people with 20 years of experience in the company."

Participant #3 agreed and said they did not see any differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure. The participant said, "That plays itself out globally. I do not see any difference here from what I would see anywhere else. It was also driven by age

and upbringing.” Participant #25 did not see differences in leadership approaches due to tenure, but rather, departmental culture.

I have changed area quite a lot. Like we had different [departments], and we changed them frequently, but it is consistent, and the leadership style depends on the area, whether it is an operational area or [not]. The leadership style is like even the department’s culture or that of only the top management. It will feel like it is cascaded, for example, in [specific operational department], you feel like you are in an army.

5.16.3 Sub-theme 3: Strong Organisational Culture

For Sub-theme 3 of Theme 2, based on six participants’ thoughts, strong organisational culture is more important than nationality. For example, participant #21 stated that:

The culture matters and the people that manage you. Rubbing off will come over time as well... The organisational culture also plays an impact on his thing. So that could also be one of the factors that are reflected in the leadership styles as well. Sometimes, the department culture, also, although the company overall. There is company culture.

Participant #26 agreed with participant #21. They stated that their national culture was no longer impacting how they led.

So being in The Company like this, a multicultural corporate, you blend, and you become part of that corporate culture more than form your background and national culture. So, I didn’t feel like any background impacting basically how I lead.

Table 67 Sub-themes for Theme 2

Interviews	Sub-theme	Aggregate Sub-Theme
<p><u>Interviewee 7</u></p> <p>To put a broad statement, it mellows with time. Suppose someone comes in with a particular burning desire to do something to change something.</p> <p><u>Interviewee 14</u></p> <p>I see two types of leaders emerge or characters from someone staying a long time in the company. The first type is the one that becomes much harder over time. It is the way it is. I have been grandfathered into this company. “I treat it like it’s my company, so I will be tough”. That’s one type. The other type is. I’m comfortable where I am. I don’t want to rock the boat too much. I’m in a very friendly environment, and let’s keep that steady pace.</p> <p>It’s like you have those two very distinct types over, and that happens. And those two distinct types become much clearer over a more extended period. Those are the two different types that get affected over time, yes.</p> <p><u>Interviewee 21</u></p> <p>I have seen like so if I have to talk about [senior Indian leader]. The [senior Indian leader] I knew in the early part of my career was a completely different [person] when I moved into [their team again]. He has also learned to adapt, and the second phase of his leadership was very good. It was pleasant and very similar to what I had experienced with the Westerners. But in case of a relative comparison again, the mindset matured into a better leader, and if I see likewise of others. This is what I am telling is from my own experience. But what I hear we have that I have colleagues and peers who have other managers right, so they</p>	<p>Less Drive with Tenure</p> <p>Become Tough or Steady</p> <p>Learn to Adapt and Improve</p>	<p>Differences</p>

Interviews	Sub-theme	Aggregate Sub-Theme
<p>also have seen that transformation that happens, especially means more so on. I'm talking only from the Indian boss's perspective.</p> <p><u>Interviewee 22</u></p> <p>They would approach it independently outside of the meeting before everyone gets into the meeting together and when you get to the meeting. Everybody is already aligned, and they can work towards that understanding. How they work with you would be different than a newcomer who will have that visibility and understanding later. It is just too much of a cultural shock for anybody to jump into and say okay. I can drive this the way I was going in my country.</p>	Cultural Awareness	
<p><u>Interviewee 3</u></p> <p>I don't see that necessarily. That plays itself out globally. I don't see any difference from what I would see elsewhere. And it's driven by age and upbringing. You know, parts of the world you've lived in, etcetera.</p> <p><u>Interviewee 15</u></p> <p>I think leaders' tenure with the company has no impact.</p>	<p>Age and Upbringing, Not Tenure</p> <p>No Impact</p>	No Differences

Interviews	Sub-theme	Aggregate Sub-Theme
<p><u>Interviewee 25</u></p> <p>No. I have changed area quite a lot. Like we had different [departments], and we changed them frequently, but it is consistent, and the leadership style depends on the area, whether it's an operational area or more of like [function] or like [function]. The leadership style is like even the department's culture, or only the top management will feel like it is cascaded all like, for example, in [specific department], you feel like you are in an army.</p>	<p>Leadership Style Depends More on Department</p>	
<p><u>Interviewee 21</u></p> <p>The culture matters, and also the people that manage you. Rubbing off will come over time as well. The organisational culture also plays an impact on his thing. That could also be one of the factors reflected in the leadership styles. Sometimes the department culture, also, although the company overall. There is a company culture, which is there, but individual departments have their own cultures, which gets driven by the head of the department.</p> <p><u>Interviewee 26</u></p> <p>So being in the company like this, a multicultural corporate, you blend, and you become part of that corporate culture more than form your background and national culture. So, I didn't feel like any background impacted how I lead.</p>	<p>Company and Department Culture</p> <p>Blended Cultures</p>	<p>Strong Organisational Culture</p>

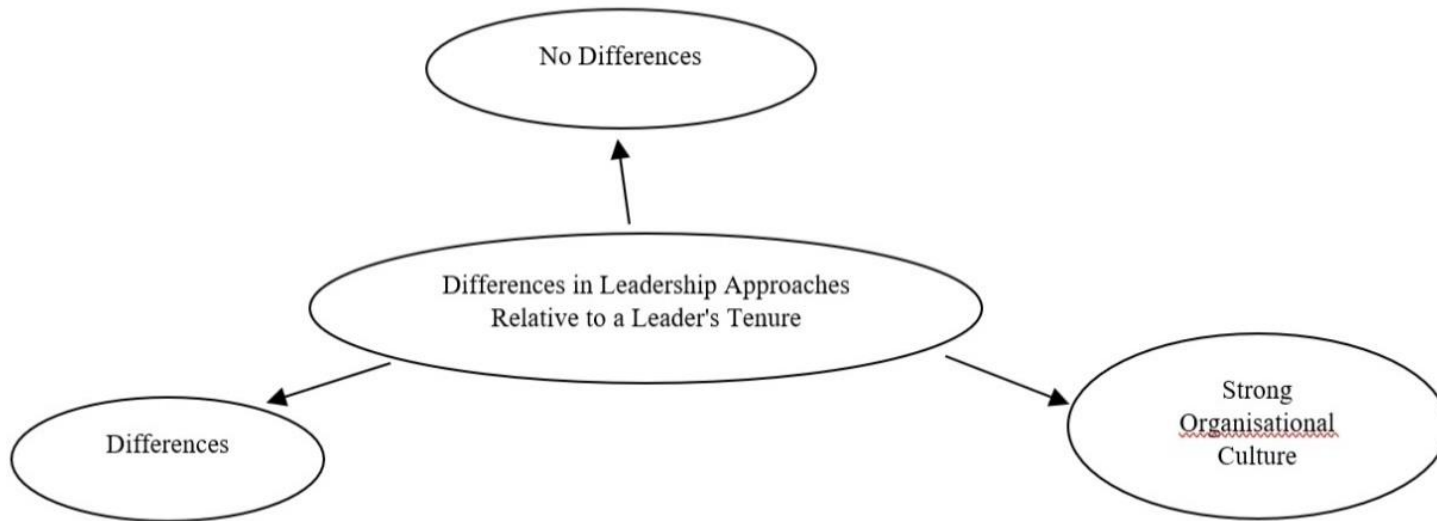


Figure 10 Map: Sub-themes for Theme 2

5.17 Theme 3. Differences in Leadership Approaches Relative to a Leader's Seniority

The third major theme was the differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority. Aggregated data for theme three yielded two sub-themes: (1) differences and (2) no differences. Table 68 presents the two sub-themes for Theme 3.

5.17.1 Sub-theme 1: Differences

For Sub-theme 1 of Theme 3, based on 14 participants' thoughts, there are differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority. For example, participant #12 said there was a difference, "I think the more junior people had a lot more companionship, camaraderie, and a lot more effort to make things work."

Participant #27 agreed, and said:

You are task-focused and silo-focused in your initial years. And it is just people in middle management or managing a silo, executing a task. Their objectives are particular. As you go up the hierarchy, the leadership paradigm changes to dealing with paradoxes.

Participant #24 agreed with the other participants, and said:

The more senior the leader, the broader the perspective, and they tended to look at the bigger picture compared to day-to-day activities. I think the more I progressed in my role, the more senior I became. The leaders that I reported to were even more senior.

Participant #25 agreed with the other participants, and said:

It depends on the pressure because certain leaders are under pressure, especially in an industry like [ours]. The more senior you are, the more the pressure with the responsibilities increases. Thus, they might be more demanding. They grow up because they have more responsibilities. They are more like to take the stress, and their demand is more, and they become more demanding. More likely to ask for like, "I need tomorrow; I need this. "

Participant #29 said that senior people were helpful because they felt more empowered to make decisions. The lower down the pecking order, the fewer people wanted to be able to make decisions or be held accountable for you doing something. Participant #4 agreed with participant #29, and said:

The very few times I get to speak to him, I would talk to our [Executive Leader] about something happening in operation. He will bring a different perspective to the equation and get me thinking. He is looking at things. It gives you such a completely different perspective of the problem that you know. And then the one-word answer to the question is yes. Thus, as you go higher up the chain, you start thinking you are looking at many things, a little macro as against micro, you would see them a little more tactically. And you know there is a little bit of micromanagement there.

5.17.2 Sub-theme 2: No Differences

For Sub-theme 1 of Theme 3, based on three participants' thoughts, there are differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority.

Participant #10 said that leadership approaches varied within bands of seniority.

Some senior leaders are open and forthright and apply more modern management styles. Simultaneously, senior leaders in the company have been there for long periods and are more closed and not approachable.

Participant #28 agreed with participant #10 and said they had not seen changes as people grew in the organisation. The participant said, "I do not think differences in leadership approaches come with seniority."

Table 68 Sub-themes for Theme 3

Interviews	Sub-theme	Aggregate Sub-theme
<p><u>Interviewee 12</u></p> <p>The more junior people had much more companionship, camaraderie, and effort to make things work.</p> <p><u>Interviewee 24</u></p> <p>The more senior the leader, the broader the perspective, and they tended to look at the bigger picture compared to day-to-day activities. The more I progressed in my role, the more senior I became. The leaders that I reported to were even more senior.</p> <p><u>Interviewee 25</u></p> <p>It depends on the pressure because certain leaders are under pressure, especially in an industry like [ours]. The more senior you are, the more the pressure with the responsibilities increases. Thus, they might be more demanding. They grow up because they have more responsibilities. They are more like to take the stress, and their demand is more, and they become more demanding. More likely to ask for like, “I need tomorrow; I need this.”</p> <p><u>Interviewee 27</u></p> <p>You are task-focused and silo-focused in your initial years. And it is just people in middle management or managing a silo, executing a task. Their objectives are particular. As you go up the hierarchy, the leadership paradigm changes to dealing with paradoxes.</p>	<p>Camaraderie</p> <p>Perspective</p> <p>Pressure</p> <p>Paradigm Shift</p>	<p>Differences</p>

Interviews	Sub-theme	Aggregate Sub-theme
<u>Interviewee 29</u> The senior people were more helpful because they felt more empowered to make decisions. The lower down the pecking order, the fewer people wanted to be able to make decisions or be held accountable for you doing something.	Empowered	
<u>Interviewee 10</u> Some senior leaders are open and forthright and apply more modern management styles. Simultaneously, senior leaders in the company have been there for long periods and are more closed and not approachable. <u>Interviewee 28</u> I have not seen changes as people grow in the organisation. So no, it doesn't come with seniority.	Tenure over Seniority Leaders Don't Change	No Differences

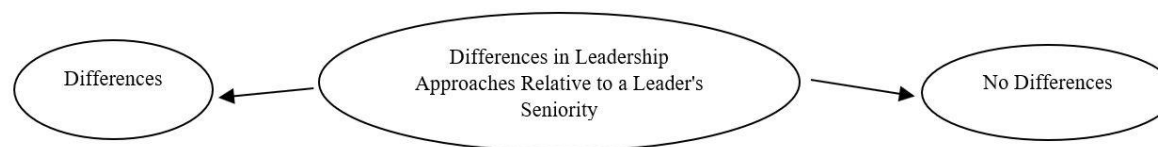


Figure 11 Map: Sub-themes for Theme 3

5.18 Summary

This study investigates the relationships between the dimensions of servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian, leaders in a multinational company. Among Emirati leaders, there was a statistically significant medium positive linear correlation between empowering and individualism and a statistically significant medium positive correlation between behaving ethically and individualism. There was also a medium positive correlation between conceptual skills and individualism. No other correlations were found to be significant among Emirati leaders. Multiple regression was also performed to determine if the independent variables of cultural characteristics, collectively, were significantly related to servant leadership dimensions, and none of regression models were significant.

5.18.1 Insight 1: The extent of cross-national servant leadership differences or cross-national differences

The quantitative results showed no statistically significant differences in mean servant leadership among United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and Indian groups. However, most of the qualitative findings showed differences in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. Aggregated data for this qualitative theme yielded 9 sub-themes: (1) collaborative versus hierarchical, (2) long-term orientation, (3) putting the team first or valuing the team, (4) confrontation and respect, (5) relaxed versus driven, (6) structure and timeline, (7) security, (8) community service and social purpose, and (9) no differences.

The study's qualitative findings align with existing literature that underscores significant cross-cultural variations in servant leadership (Beugelsdijk & Welzel, 2018; Carroll & Patterson, 2016; Khazma et al., 2016; Merino, 2016; van Dierendonck et al., 2017). These

results are consistent with the theoretical framework presented in the literature review, affirming the broader understanding of servant leadership across diverse cultural contexts.

Carroll and Patterson (2016) and Merino (2016) emphasise the impact of cultural clusters on servant leadership perceptions, with variations attributed to specific countries' cultural biases. Khazma et al. (2016) and van Dierendonck et al. (2017) extend this exploration, unveiling distinctions in Western and Eastern managers' preferences, emphasizing the influence of cultural dimensions such as power distance and individualism.

The qualitative findings are also in agreement with Al-Haj (2017), Al-Ababneh et al. (2017), and Chordiya et al. (2017) highlighting the significance of values, family, and empowerment in Eastern leadership styles, contrasting with the Western emphasis on transformational leadership and integrity.

While the qualitative findings resonate with collaborative leadership in Western nations (Beauchamp et al., 2021), discrepancies arise concerning long-term orientation, putting the team first, and the absence of differences in servant leadership among Emirati, UK, and Indian leaders. The nuanced findings suggest a need for further exploration into these specific dimensions in the context of diverse cultural landscapes.

5.18.2 Insight 1b: The extent of the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics

Among United Arab Emirates leaders, there was a statistically significant medium positive linear correlation between empowering and individualism and a statistically significant medium positive correlation between behaving ethically and individualism. There was also a medium positive correlation between conceptual skills and individualism. Among United Kingdom leaders, there was a statistically significant small positive linear correlation between putting the team first and power distance. Among Indian leaders, there was a

statistically significant moderate negative linear correlation between putting the team first and masculinity.

The findings reinforce a consistent positive relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics, aligning with prior research (Chung, 2017; Hannay, 2016; Liden et al., 2014; Molnar, 2017).

Chung (2017) supports the study, showing a positive correlation between servant leadership and national culture dimensions like power distance. Other studies (Zhang et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2020) reveal a negative association with cultural characteristics such as masculinity, individualism, and power distance, but a positive association with traditionality. Arun et al. (2021), Hannay (2016), Kim et al. (2018), Sahertian and Jawas (2021), Setyaningrum (2017), and Shahin et al. (2018) also find significant associations between servant leadership and national culture.

5.18.3 Insights 2 and 3: The line manager and employee nationalities do not impact servant leadership and cross-cultural characteristics line manager nationality does not mediate the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics

The study shows no significant difference in how employees rated their manager depending on nationality. In this study, the manager's nationality (that is, from the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and India) did not mediate the relationship between servant leadership and behaving ethically. However, uncertainty avoidance was positively associated with manager's nationality.

The study reveals no significant disparity in employees' ratings of their managers based on nationality. Contrary to these findings, several studies present diverse insights. Berger et al. (2017), Caza et al. (2021), Fan and Harzing (2017), Siebers (2017), Tariq and Syed (2017), Tufan and Wendt (2019), Newman et al. (2018), and Wong et al. (2017) highlight

a significant positive relationship between manager-employee ethnic identity interaction, diversity climate, and affective organisational commitment. Similarly, studies by Szydło and Grześ-Bukłaho (2020), Khan and Law (2018), Contiu (2020), Enkh-Amgalan (2016), Snaebjornsson and Edvardsson (2017), Nart et al. (2016), Caza and Posner (2017), Novosad and Werker (2019), and Boone et al. (2019) offer insights into cultural and managerial differences impacting leadership characteristics, decision-making, and organisational commitment.

Similarly, the study also presents contrasting findings with existing research. Khan and Law's (2018) study on Mexican and Pakistani companies reveals a paternalistic management style, where loyalty is deemed crucial, and employees perceive a high-power distance culture. Contiu's (2020) findings on Romania suggest a preference for uncertainty avoidance and hierarchical distance, contributing to an autocratic and paternalistic management approach.

In addition, Enkh-Amgalan's (2016) research highlights significant cultural differences in servant leadership between Mongolians and Americans based on indulgence.

Snaebjornsson and Edvardsson (2017) find Icelandic emphasis on leisure, contrasting with Lithuanians' strong work ethics, prioritizing achievement, structure, hierarchy, and regulations. Nart et al. (2016) explore the correlation between a manager's nationality and servant leadership, indicating notable differences in leadership styles. Caza and Posner (2017) report distinctions between United States and Singaporean managers in enabling others and challenging processes, albeit diminishing with increased work experience.

5.18.4 Insight 4: The extent that line managers' tenure impacts cross-cultural or servant leadership differences

The quantitative results showed statistically significant differences between line managers' tenure and cultural or leadership scale scores. Specifically, for the United Kingdom group, there was a significant medium positive correlation between tenure and community values. For the Indian participants, there was a medium positive significant correlation between tenure and uncertainty avoidance. Most qualitative findings also showed differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure. Aggregated data for this qualitative theme yielded three sub-themes: (1) differences, (2) no differences, and (3) strong organisational culture.

The study's findings align with existing literature, such as Franklin (2017), confirming a significant relationship between time spent in a different culture and national cultural characteristics. Corresponding studies by Hamza (2018), Kirin et al. (2017), Mahub (2017), Ansah and Louw (2019), and Fietz et al. (2021) also highlight significant effects of the interaction between national and organisational cultural characteristics. This supports the study's emphasis on cultural nuances in leadership.

In addition, the study resonates with research by Harding (2016), Rawls (2016), Lam (2017), Maharaja (2018), Dorsett (2017), Yuan (2017), Knaap (2017), Phungsoonthorn and Charoensukmongkol (2018), Lajoie et al. (2017), King and Haar (2017), Woods et al. (2017), Lee et al. (2020), Gabriel et al. (2020), and Caponigro (2020). These studies collectively explore various aspects of cultural adaptation, leadership differences based on tenure, and the impact of cultural identity on leadership styles.

5.18.5 Insight 5: The extent that line managers' seniority impacts cross-cultural or servant leadership differences

The quantitative results showed statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and cultural or leadership scale scores. Specifically, there was an overall significant result for power distance. Most qualitative findings also showed differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority. Aggregated data for this qualitative theme yielded two subthemes: (1) differences, and (2) no differences. For Sub-theme 1 of Theme 3, based on 14 participants' thoughts, there were differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority. Based on three participants' thoughts for Sub-theme 2 of Theme 3, there were differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority.

The study's findings contradict prior research, notably Trapero et al. (2017), revealing no discernible differences in leadership approaches based on a leader's seniority. However, Palta (2018) also found no significant variations in perceived servant leadership based on grade seniority, highlighting complexities in understanding leadership dynamics concerning seniority.

The study identifies three key insights. First, while national cultural characteristics may affect the individual leadership traits, it did not affect the overall level of servant leadership. Contrary to the previous literature, there were no significant differences in servant leadership levels among Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. Second, there were differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure, with strong organisational culture proving more impactful than national culture. Third, there were differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority.

Chapter 5 discusses how these findings compare with similar studies of peer-reviewed literature found in Chapter 2. In addition, Chapter 5 addresses the study's limitations and any implications of positive social change. Finally, Chapter 5 describes recommendations for further research grounded in the current study's strengths and limitations.

Chapter 6 Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This study determined the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics and employees' perceptions related to the difference in the level of servant leadership across three different cultures (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) and the differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure and seniority in a UAE-based multinational organisation. The researcher selected the mixed-methods approach due to its relation to the research topic. A quantitative correlational design was utilised to determine the relationships between each dimension of servant leadership (that is, emotional healing, creating value for the community, conceptual skills, empowering, helping subordinates grow and succeed, putting subordinates first, and behaving ethically) and the cultural characteristics dimensions (individualism, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, and masculinity, long-term orientation). A quantitative causal-comparative design was utilised to determine the difference in a given variable between the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. The qualitative case study was used to examine employees' perceptions regarding the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders and differences in leadership approach relative to a leader's tenure and seniority.

Research questions 1–8 contribute to the study by filling the gaps in the literature. This chapter discusses the results of the quantitative correlational designed study undertaken to examine the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics and employees' perceptions related to the difference in the level of servant leadership across three different cultures (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom,

and India) and the differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure and seniority in a UAE-based multinational organisation. In addition, this chapter discusses the results of the qualitative case study undertaken to examine employees' perceptions regarding the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders, and differences in leadership approach relative to a leader's tenure and seniority. This chapter summarises and discusses findings, conclusions, interpretations, and limitations. In addition, this chapter presents implications for practice, theoretical implications, and methodological implications. This chapter also discusses recommendations for future research and recommendations for practice.

6.2 The Significance of the Study

The present study contributes to the current literature by examining: (1) the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions among United Arab Emirates leaders, (2) the relationship between them among United Kingdom leaders, and (3) the relationship between them among Indian leaders. In addition, the study contributes to the current literature by filling the gap and examining the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders, the mediating effect of managers' nationality on this relationship, the differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, and the interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers differences, the differences between line managers' tenures and grade seniority and cultural or leadership scale scores, and employees' perceptions regarding these relationships and differences in a UAE-based multinational organisation. The present study advances knowledge related to the research by examining whether manager nationality mediates the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics in a UAE-based multinational organisation.

The present study is significant because it may benefit Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders will benefit from the research and the findings. This study should affect Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders by gathering their perspectives on the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics across different cultures. In addition, this information should influence Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders by helping them to understand how to enhance rules to manage their employees. Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders can benefit from the study by better understanding leadership.

6.3 Interpretation of the Findings

6.3.1 Insight 1: The extent of cross-national servant leadership differences or cross-national differences

Research question 1 was as follows: What is the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders? The answer to research question 1 was provided as follows: The quantitative results showed no statistically significant differences in mean servant leadership among United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and Indian groups. However, most of the qualitative findings showed differences in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. Aggregated data for this qualitative theme yielded 9 sub-themes: (1) collaborative versus hierarchical, (2) long-term orientation, (3) putting the team first or valuing the team, (4) confrontation and respect, (5) relaxed versus driven, (6) structure and timeline, (7) security, (8) community service and social purpose, and (9) no differences. Based on nine participants' thoughts, for Sub-theme 1 of Theme 1, United Kingdom leaders are collaborative and open with an allocation of responsibilities, whereas Emirati and Indian leaders are more hierarchical. For Sub-theme 2 of Theme 1, four participants mentioned long-term orientation. United Kingdom and Indian leaders both focused on

long-term orientation. Emirati leaders focused on short-term orientation. Based on nine participants' thoughts, for Sub-theme 3 of Theme 1, Indian and Emirati managers put the team first or value the team. Based on four participants' thoughts, for Sub-theme 4 of Theme 1, Emirati leaders tended to avoid confrontation in public, whereas United Kingdom managers did not avoid confrontation. Based on four participants' thoughts, for Sub-theme 5 of Theme 1, United Kingdom leaders appear more relaxed, whereas Emirati and Indian leaders were driven. Based on four participant's thoughts, United Kingdom managers focused on structure and timelines for Sub-theme 6 of Theme 1. For Sub-Theme 7 of Theme 1, based on two participant's thoughts, Emirati managers said that they felt secure. Based on five participant's thoughts, UAE nationals had a strong focus on community service and social purpose. For Sub-theme 8 of Theme 1. Participant #28 said:

As a UAE National, we live in a country where our leaders are examples not only for us UAE Nationals, they set examples for everyone in the country. If you follow their leadership principles, I think you will succeed. How they connect with people, listen to their people, have the vision for the future, and care about the country.

For Sub-theme 9 of Theme 1, based on two participants' thoughts, there was no difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders.

These findings are consistent with the previous literature that found that there was a significant difference in servant leadership across diverse cultures (Beugelsdijk & Welzel, 2018; Carroll & Patterson, 2016; Khazma et al., 2016; Merino, 2016; van Dierendonck et al., 2017). The results confirm prior research and fit within the literature review and the theoretical framework that the researcher presented in chapter two. Therefore, knowledge in the field can be confirmed by the findings.

In line with the qualitative findings in the study, Carroll and Patterson (2016) found that the significant difference in perception across diverse cultures was of vision, and such

differences in perception of vision might be attributed to each particular country's cultural cluster and to each particular country's particular bias or receptivity toward a cultural leadership theory. Similarly, Merino (2016) found that the lower practice of servant leadership was attributed to Latin America having a higher score than the United States in power distance. In addition, the author found that societies with a higher power distance score were likely to accept inequality. The author found that the empowerment of employees was more likely to be allowed in societies with lower power distance. In contrast, the empowerment of employees was less likely to be allowed in societies with higher power distance. Findings aligned with Hofstede's (1984) uncertainty principle because they applied to the respondents of Latin America, and thereby the United States had a low uncertainty index. Similarly, Khazma et al. (2016) notes significant differences between Western and Eastern managers. The authors found variations based on cultural differences by comparing servant leadership in Saudi Arabia and the United States. The authors found that Saudi Arabia was weak in openness, whereas the United States was strong in openness. In addition, the authors found that Saudi Arabia was in the middle ground in conscientiousness, while the United States was high in conscientiousness. Additionally, the authors found that Saudi Arabia was high in extroversion, while the United States was low in extroversion. The authors also found that Saudi Arabia was high in agreeableness and neuroticism, while the United States was low in agreeableness and neuroticism. The authors determined that Saudi Arabia was high in power distance, low in individualism, high in masculinity, high in uncertainty avoidance, low in long-term orientation, and high in indulgence. The United States was comparatively low in power distance, high in individualism, high in masculinity, low in uncertainty avoidance, low in long-term orientation, and high in indulgence.

In line with the qualitative findings in the study, van Dierendonck et al. (2017) found that Middle Eastern countries were less likely to focus on performance orientation and uncertainty avoidance than Western countries. Middle Eastern countries were more likely to focus on a humane orientation, collectivism, and assertiveness orientation than Western countries. Western countries were more likely to focus on future orientation and gender egalitarianism than Middle Eastern countries (van Dierendonck et al., 2017). Middle Eastern countries were found to be collectivistic, whereas Western countries were individualistic. Middle Eastern countries were more likely to focus on a high power-distance than Western countries van Dierendonck et al. (2017) notes that collaborative leadership was an influential leadership behaviour in the Western world. Individualism – collectivism and power distance – distinguished the East from the West. Eastern managers were found to be collectivists, whereas Western managers were individualists (van Dierendonck et al., 2017). Eastern managers were likely to distinguish between in-group and out-group members. Thus, Indian, and Middle Eastern managers tended to believe they could treat individuals differently depending on their relationship with people. In contrast, van Dierendonck et al. (2017) found that Western managers thought it was fair to treat everyone the same. Eastern managers (for example, India, Middle East) were more likely to accept unequal power distribution than Western managers (for example, the United Kingdom). Leaders in high power distance cultures were likelier to be authoritarian than those in low power distance cultures (van Dierendonck et al., 2017). Employees accepting a high-power distance value respected their leaders' decision. Hofstede's model can also illustrate this cultural difference (van Dierendonck et al., 2017). Western managers gave their employees the information they need to do their work well. In addition, Western managers encouraged their employees to use their talents and helped their subordinates to develop themselves further (van Dierendonck et al., 2017). Western

managers encouraged their staff to come up with new ideas and gave their employees the authority to make decisions that make their work more accessible to them. Finally, Western managers offered them abundant opportunities to learn new skills (van Dierendonck et al., 2017).

In agreement with the study's qualitative findings, Al-Haj (2017) also highlights significant differences between Western and Eastern managers. Westerners focused on their leaders' personalities. In contrast, in the Middle East and Indian Subcontinent, people were more interested in following an authoritative leadership style that maintained key values of the culture: reputation, wealth, family, religion, gift-giving, rivalry, and Sharia Law. For Middle Eastern and Indian Subcontinent people, decisions were made ad hoc by upper-level management only. However, for Westerners, while leaders of both regions focused on the results of the work performed, Westerners and Middle Easterners also strongly emphasised the productivity and output of follower-employees. In this respect, comparing the organisational behaviours of the employees and the leaders of organisations operating in both cultures resulted in deducing that specific characteristics were shared, such as emphasising employee motivation.

In line with the qualitative findings in the study, Al-Ababneh et al. (2017) also observes significant differences between Western and Eastern managers. Middle Eastern leaders focused on psychological and structural empowerment. Middle Eastern managers focused on meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Therefore, Middle Eastern leaders' focus on empowerment gave their employees high confidence in their values and beliefs. In addition, Middle Eastern leaders' focus on empowerment enabled their employees to have a high level of trust in their abilities in their work. Middle Eastern leaders' focus on empowerment made their employees satisfied with their job.

In line with the qualitative findings in the study, Chordiya et al. (2017) highlight significant differences between Western and Eastern managers. Indian managers tended to think that their team was like a family, taking care of most team members. Indian managers tended to think they enjoyed working with others in their organisation. Indian managers focused on effective organisational commitment. Western managers were more likely to focus on transformational leadership than Indian managers. Indian managers tended to think that achieving good results would get them promoted. In the Western leadership style, the workers were considered components of production. The management system in Western nations often gave priority to the discussion of objectives, which was then followed by a command, followed by tactics, and finally, the personnel (Seto & Sarros, 2016). In Western nations, it was always expected that leaders had to display integrity in all their dealings and behave ethically. This was very important for a leader because it was required, they must establish trust. When coupled with benevolence and capability, integrity became one of the most important antecedents of trust. Building trust was essential for improving the health of the financial and economic systems. Similarly, Beauchamp et al. (2021) note that United Kingdom leaders focused on collaborative leadership and professionalism. Collaborative leadership was an influential leadership behaviour in the Western world.

Corresponding to the qualitative findings in the study, Akdol and Arikboga (2017) argue that Middle Eastern managers gave greater attention to their employees' interests and benefits. Middle Eastern managers focused on their employees, built interpersonal trust, and focused on the developmental needs of the followers. Middle Eastern leaders developed strong supportive relationships with all followers. Similarly, Beugelsdijk and Welzel (2018) found significant differences in cultural characteristics (that is, individualism versus collectivism) among various leaders.

The qualitative findings confirm previous literature on collaborative versus hierarchical leadership, confrontation and respect, structure, timeline, security, and community service, and social purpose in various regions. However, the qualitative findings do not confirm previous literature on long-term orientation, putting the team first, and no differences in servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. Overall, the study contributes to the existing knowledge in the field of leadership by providing further insight into the differences in leadership styles across cultures. Table 69 highlights the qualitative findings and fit with previous literature.

Table 69 Sub-themes for Theme 1 and Literature

Aggregate Sub-theme	Literature
Collaborative versus Hierarchical	These findings fit the previous literature that highlights how Western leaders were collaborative and open with an allocation of responsibilities (Beauchamp et al., 2021). Therefore, the study’s findings can confirm knowledge in the field. For example, Beauchamp et al. (2021) note that UK leaders focused on collaborative leadership and professionalism. Similarly, van Dierendonck et al. (2017) argue that Middle Eastern countries were collectivistic, whereas Western countries were individualistic. van Dierendonck et al. (2017) claims that Western managers gave their employees the information they needed to do their work well. In addition, Western managers encouraged their employees to use their talents. In line with other studies, Al-Haj (2017) also states that Westerners focused on their leaders’ personalities. In contrast, in the Middle East and Indian subcontinent, people were more interested in following an authoritative leadership style that maintained key values of the culture: reputation, wealth, family, religion, gift-giving, rivalry, and Sharia Law. Al-Ababneh et al. (2017) claim that Middle Eastern leaders focused on psychological and structural empowerment.
Long-term Orientation	These findings do not fit the previous literature that argue UK leaders focused on long-term orientation, whereas Emirati and Indian leaders focused on short-term orientation (van Dierendonck et al., 2017). Therefore, knowledge in the field cannot be confirmed by the findings of the study. van Dierendonck et al. (2017) note that Western managers focused on long-term orientation. Long-term orientation is associated within servant leadership in the Western world. Middle Eastern countries were less likely to focus on future than Western countries.

Aggregate Sub-theme	Literature
Putting Team First	These findings do not fit the previous literature that highlight how Western managers put the team first or valued the team (van Dierendonck et al., 2017). Therefore, knowledge in the field cannot be confirmed by the findings of the study. van Dierendonck et al. (2017) state that Western managers put the team first or valued the team. Western managers tended to enjoy their team's success more than their success. In addition, Western managers kept themselves in the background and gave credit to their team. Additionally, Western managers were not chasing recognition for the things they did for others.
Confronting and Respect	These findings fit the previous literature that contend that Emirati leaders avoided confrontation in public, whereas UK managers did not avoid confrontation (van Dierendonck et al., 2017). Therefore, the study's findings can confirm knowledge in the field. van Dierendonck et al. (2017) highlight that Western managers showed their feelings to their staff. In addition, Western managers were open about their limitations and weaknesses (van Dierendonck et al., 2017). These findings fit the previous literature that contend that Indian managers showed respect toward their employees. Chordiya et al. (2017) note that Indian managers tended to think that their team was like a family, taking care of most team members. Indian managers tended to think they enjoyed working with others in their organisation.
Relaxed versus Driven	These findings fit the previous literature that argue Indian leaders were driven (Chordiya et al., 2017). Therefore, the study's findings can confirm knowledge in the field. Chordiya et al. (2017) state that Indian managers focused on affective organisational commitment. Western managers were more likely to focus on transformational leadership than Indian managers. Indian managers tended to think that achieving good results would get them promoted.
Structure and Timeline	These findings fit the previous literature that argue that UK managers focused on structure and timelines (Seto & Sarros, 2016). Therefore, the study's findings can confirm knowledge in the field. In the Western leadership style, the workers were considered components of production. The management system in Western nations often gave priority to the discussion of objectives which was then followed by a command, followed by tactics, and finally, the personnel (Seto & Sarros, 2016). In Western nations, it was always expected from leaders that they must display integrity in all their dealings and behave ethically.
Security	These findings fit the previous literature that note that Middle Eastern leaders felt secure and have high levels of trust, interaction, support, and rewards (Akdol & Arikboga, 2017). Therefore, the study's findings can confirm knowledge in the field. Akdol and Arikboga (2017) insist that Middle Eastern managers had greater attention to their

Aggregate	Literature
Sub-theme	
	employees' interests and benefit. Middle Eastern managers focused on their employees, built interpersonal trust, and focused on the developmental needs of the followers. Middle Eastern leaders developed solid supportive relationships with all followers.
Community Service and Social Purpose	These findings fit the previous literature that contend that Middle Eastern leaders had great national pride (Akdol & Arikboga, 2017). Therefore, the study's findings can confirm knowledge in the field. Akdol and Arikboga (2017) maintain that Middle Eastern managers were likely to build interpersonal trust and focus on the needs of the employees. In addition, Middle Eastern managers developed solid supportive relationships with their employees.
No Differences	These findings do not fit the previous literature that note a difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders (Beugelsdijk & Welzel, 2018). Therefore, the study's findings cannot confirm knowledge in the field. Beugelsdijk and Welzel (2018) examined the relationship between servant leadership and the cultural characteristics among diverse leaders. The authors found significant differences in cultural characteristics (that is, individualism versus collectivism) among various leaders. The authors surveyed 495,011 participants in 110 countries. The authors measured the difference in power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity. The authors tested the validity of the measures using factor analysis. The authors successfully conducted correlation and regression analyses.

The qualitative findings fit within the theoretical framework, including Greenleaf's model of leadership developed by Greenleaf (1970; 1998) and Hofstede's cultural dimensions theory and the model developed by Hofstede (1980; 1993) as well as his conceptual model. The findings relate to Greenleaf's (1970; 1998) model of leadership and Hofstede's (1980; 1993) cultural dimensions theory and model, as well as his conceptual model, by examining the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions among United Arab Emirates leaders. The study ties into Greenleaf's (1970; 1998) model of leadership and Hofstede's (1980; 1993) cultural dimensions theory and model, as well as the conceptual model, the Hypothesised

Mediation Model, (Figure 3) because it found that servant leadership was correlated with the cultural characteristics dimensions.

The conceptual model (Figure 3) integrates servant leadership with cultural characteristics, explaining the co-relationship. This model is important because it explains the organisation's culture, the level of servant leadership, and cultural characteristics. The cultural dimensions are based on Hofstede's five cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1993). These five dimensions of culture are: power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and short- and long-term orientation.

These five dimensions of culture are significantly associated with servant leadership. Servant leadership theory focuses on the assertion that the motivation and role of the servant leader must be to provide service to others (Liden et al. 2014; Rivkin et al., 2014). Servant leadership suggests that organisational objectives will be achieved by emphasising the facilitation of growth and wellbeing of all employees (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006; Greenleaf, 1998; Gregoire & Arendt, 2014). Servant leaders were likely to help their followers reach their fullest potential (Dinh et al., 2014), which can support the organisation's objectives.

Liden et al.'s (2008) Servant Leadership Scale identified seven dimensions of servant leadership such as (1) emotional healing, (2) creating value for the community, (3) conceptual skills, (4) empowering, (5) helping subordinates grow and succeed, (6) putting subordinates first, and (7) behaving ethically. The seven dimensions of servant leadership are as follows:

1. Emotional healing is showing sensitivity to others' personal concerns.
2. Creating value for the community is showing real concern for assisting the community.
3. Conceptual skills necessitate owning knowledge of the company.

4. Empowering is helping others (for example, followers) determine when and how to complete work tasks.
5. Assisting followers to grow and succeed shows genuine concern for their career growth.
6. Putting followers first ensures that satisfying their work needs is a priority.
7. Behaving ethically is interacting honestly with others.

In line with the study, researchers used ANOVA to measure cross-cultural differences in servant leadership practice. For example, Carroll and Patterson (2016) used ANOVA to examine cross-cultural differences in servant leadership practice and compared servant leadership in the United States and India. The authors found a significant difference in vision across two cultures (that is, the United States and India). Similarly, Merino (2016) also used ANOVA to compare the differences between the acceptance and practice of servant leadership in two cultures, the United States and Latin America. The author found that the United States had a low uncertainty index. The author found that societies with a higher power distance score were more likely to accept inequality. Likewise, Khazma et al. (2016) also used ANOVA to compare servant leadership in two diverse cultures, Saudi Arabia, and the United States, to find many variations based on cultural differences. The authors found that Saudi Arabia was low in openness, high in extroversion, and high in agreeableness and neuroticism. In addition, the authors found that the United States was high in openness, low in extroversion, and low in agreeableness and neuroticism.

6.3.2 Insight 1b: The extent of the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics

Research question 2 was as follows: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Emirati leaders? Research question 3 was as follows: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among

United Kingdom leaders? Research question 4 was as follows: What is the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among Indian leaders? The answers to research questions 2-4 were provided as follows: Among United Arab Emirates leaders, there was a statistically significant medium positive linear correlation between empowering and individualism and a statistically significant medium positive correlation between behaving ethically and individualism. There was also a medium positive correlation between conceptual skills and individualism. Among United Kingdom leaders, there was a statistically significant small positive linear correlation between putting the team first and power distance. Among Indian leaders, there was a statistically significant moderate negative linear correlation between putting the team first and masculinity. However, the results show no statistically significant differences in mean servant leadership among United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders.

The present study highlights that there is a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics. These results are consistent with the previous literature that found a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics (Chung, 2017; Hannay, 2016; Liden et al., 2014; Molnar, 2017). The results confirm prior research and fit within the literature review and the theoretical framework that the researcher presented in chapter two. Therefore, knowledge in the field can be confirmed by the results. The study is meaningful for servant leaders because they can learn that servant leadership is significantly and positively associated with the cultural characteristics' dimensions.

Consistent with the results in the study, Chung (2017) found that servant leadership was significantly and positively correlated with national culture dimensions such as power distance. Similarly, Zhang et al. (2019) and Lee et al. (2020) found that servant leadership was significantly and negatively associated with cultural characteristics such as

masculinity, individualism, and power distance. However, servant leadership was significantly and positively associated with traditionality. Arun et al. (2021), Hannay (2016), Kim et al. (2018), Sahertian and Jawas (2021), Setyaningrum (2017), and Shahin et al. (2018) found a significant association between servant leadership and national culture.

In line with the study, researchers used correlation and multiple regression analyses to measure the relationship between servant leadership and national culture dimensions. For example, Shahin et al. (2018) used hierarchical regression and found a significant association between servant leadership and national culture. Chung (2017) used correlation analysis and found that servant leadership was significantly and positively correlated with national culture dimensions, such as power distance, masculinity and femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism/collectivism. Correlation and regression analyses are most appropriate for measuring the relationship between variables (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016; Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015). Therefore, correlation and regression analyses are most appropriate for examining the relationship between servant leadership and national culture dimensions (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016; Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015).

6.3.3 Insight 2: The line manager and employee nationalities do not impact servant leadership and cross-cultural characteristics

Research question 5 was: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, as well as any possible interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers?

The answer to research question 5 was provided as follows: There were no statistically significant differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, as well as any possible interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers. These results are inconsistent with the previous

literature that found a significant relationship between the interaction of manager ethnic identity and employee ethnic identity (Fan & Harzing, 2017). Therefore, the results do not fit within the literature review and the theoretical framework that the researcher presented in chapter two. Therefore, the results can confirm prior research and knowledge in the field.

Inconsistent with the results in the study, Berger et al. (2017) Caza et al. (2021) Fan and Harzing (2017) Siebers (2017) Tariq and Syed (2017) Tufan and Wendt (2019) Newman et al. (2018) Wong et al. (2017) found a significant and positive relationship between the interaction of manager and employee ethnic identity. Diversity climate on affective organisational commitment and turnover intentions was strong when employees identified with their ethnic group. Similarly, Muslim employees experienced how their Netherland managers allowed them to practise their religion and constrained them simultaneously. Similarly, Muslim women employees faced challenges when working with United Kingdom managers. However, Muslim women employees could overcome challenges using personal strategies and networks. Similarly, Belgium managers' diversity-related psychological contract breaches predicted Turkish employees' organisational citizenship behaviour via organisational identification. Minorities tended to be the least satisfied in predominantly caucasian settings, while caucasians were the least in minority–majority settings. In contrast, minorities were most satisfied in minority–majority settings, whereas caucasians were most satisfied in caucasian majority settings. In keeping with similar studies, Szydło and Grześ-Bukłaho (2020) found a significant difference in power distance, individualism, preference indicators, intrapersonal orientation, and competence orientation between the employees of the Ukrainian organisation and the employees of the Polish company. Caza et al. (2021) found that employees were alike in their perceptions of

leadership behaviour and their satisfaction with such leadership behaviour when interacting with leaders from their ethnicity.

6.3.4 Insight 3: Line manager nationality does not mediate the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics

Research question 6 was: Does the manager's nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) mediate the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics? The answer to research question 6 was provided as follows: A manager's nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and India) did not mediate the relationship between servant leadership and behaving ethically. However, uncertainty avoidance was positively associated with a manager's nationality. These results are inconsistent with the previous literature that found that a manager's nationality significantly affected servant leadership (Contiu; 2020). The results do not fit within the literature review and the theoretical framework that the researcher presented in chapter two. Therefore, the quantitative results cannot confirm previous research and knowledge in the field.

Inconsistent with the results in the study, Khan and Law's (2018) findings indicate that managers in Mexican and Pakistani companies were paternalistic, and employees thought loyalty to them was essential. Mexicans and Pakistanis were likely to have high power index cultures. In Mexican and Pakistani companies, roles were separated between managers and employees. Employees were able to suggest ideas, but managers did not allow them to make decisions. Decision-making was centralised, and the final decisions in both countries lay in the hands of the managers. Managers tended to make decisions that their employees could not challenge. Employees appreciate power distance, hierarchy, and authority.

Contradicting the results in the study, Contiu's (2020) findings suggest that people from Romania tended to appreciate uncertainty avoidance and a hierarchical distance.

Romania's hierarchy was based on the regulation unit. Contiu's (2020) findings suggest that uncertainty avoidance and a hierarchical distance made people from Romania depend on managers with power. Therefore, the autocratic and paternalistic management styles attracted uncertainty avoidance and a hierarchical distance. Contiu's (2020) findings suggest that a hierarchical distance, uncertainty avoidance, and a collectivist and feminine orientation caused Romanian managers to prefer employees who appreciated hierarchical levels. Uncertainty avoidance made Romanian managers depend on regulations, but a high hierarchical distance caused them to avoid observing rules. In a feminine culture with a high-power distance, employees who respected authority were likely to be promoted. Romania managers had yet to encourage a teamwork spirit. A feminine culture that regarded group affiliation as vital caused Romanian managers to hire employees based on family relationships. Thirteen companies in Rome were successfully analysed.

Contrary to the results in the study, Enkh-Amgalan (2016) found a significant difference in servant leadership between Mongolians and Americans based on indulgence. These findings significantly contribute to the cross-cultural literature examining indulgence (Enkh-Amgalan, 2016). Similarly, Snaebjornsson and Edvardsson (2017) found that Icelanders focused on leisure. In contrast, Lithuanians had strong work ethics. In addition, Lithuanians emphasised achievement, structure, hierarchy, and regulations.

Also diverging from the results in the study, Nart et al. (2016) found that a manager's nationality was significantly correlated with servant leadership. Employee perceptions regarding managers' nationality and servant leadership were examined. Similarly, Caza and Posner (2017) found a significant difference in servant leadership between United

States managers and Singapore managers. For example, United States managers were likelier to enable others to act and challenge the process than Singaporean managers. However, the difference between United States and Singaporean managers decreased as work experience increased.

Inconsistent with the results in the study, Novosad and Werker (2019) found a significant relationship between a manager's nationality and leadership characteristics. The authors found that Western managers (for example, United States managers) were likely to have power in the United Nations. Similarly, Boone et al. (2019) found a significant effect of a manager's nationality on leadership characteristics. The authors found a positive effect of management team nationality diversity on corporate entrepreneurship in the management team with low social stratification and in multinational firms in countries with low national power distance.

6.3.5 Insight 4: The extent that line managers' tenure impacts cross-cultural or servant leadership differences

Research question 7 was as follows: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' tenures and cultural or leadership scale scores? The answer to research question 7 was provided as follows: The quantitative results showed statistically significant differences between line managers' tenure and cultural or leadership scale scores. Specifically, for the United Kingdom group, there was a significant medium positive correlation between tenure and community values. For Indian participants, there was a medium positive significant correlation between tenure and uncertainty avoidance. Most qualitative findings also showed differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure. Aggregated data for this qualitative theme yielded three subthemes: (1) differences, (2) no differences, and (3) strong organisational culture. For Sub-theme 1 of Theme 2, based on 15 participants' thoughts, there were differences in leadership

approaches relative to a leader's tenure. For Sub-theme 2 of Theme 2, based on six participants' thoughts, there were no differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure. For Sub-theme 3 of Theme 2, based on six participants' thoughts, strong organisational culture was more important than nationality.

These findings are consistent with the previous literature that found that a significant relationship between time living and working in a different culture and the characteristics of national culture (Franklin, 2017). The findings confirm prior research and fit within the literature review and the theoretical framework that the researcher presented in chapter two. Therefore, knowledge in the field can be confirmed by the findings. The study uniquely contributes to knowledge by examining the differences between line managers' tenure and cultural or leadership scale scores. Consistent with the findings in the study, Hamza (2018), Kirin et al. (2017), and Mahbub (2017) found significant effects of interaction between national cultural characteristics and organisational cultural characteristics. Similarly, Ansah and Louw (2019) found that high uncertainty avoidance and high-power distance cultures significantly and positively affected organisational culture. Similarly, Fietz et al. (2021) found that power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and indulgence significantly affected an organisation's resilience.

Corresponding to the study's findings, Harding (2016) found a significant difference in the category, such as indulgence between three American groups (that is, Americans who had never resided abroad, Americans who had resided abroad between one and five years, Americans residing abroad between six and ten years). Americans residing abroad between one and five years scored indulgence higher than Americans who had never resided abroad and Americans who had resided abroad between six and ten years. There was a significant difference in the category, such as individualism, between the three American groups.

There was no significant difference between the three American groups in the categories

such as power distance, masculinity, long-term orientation, and uncertainty avoidance. Similarly, Rawls (2016) found that national culture significantly affected the experiences of international families. The author also (2016) found that external support enabled international families to experience cultural adaptation.

Aligned to the findings in the study, Lam's (2017) findings suggest that international students tended to experience significant changes and culture shock. The results vary based on the international students' personalities. The acculturation experience strengthened international students' national culture. Eight international students in California were successfully interviewed and analysed. Similarly, Maharaja's (2018) findings suggest that studying abroad can improve intercultural competence. The author found that international students tended to appreciate uncertainty avoidance, cultural differences, and cultural adaptation. The theme that emerged was that studying abroad significantly enabled international students to appreciate uncertainty avoidance and cultural differences. Similarly, Dorsett (2017) found that the international students in the first-year experience course were likely to experience meaningful learning and adaptation. The international students in the first-year experience course were more likely to be involved in activities ($p < 0.05$), encounter a range of perspectives ($p < 0.05$), and examine US culture ($p < 0.05$) than the international students not enrolled in the first-year experience course (Dorsett, 2017). The first-year experience course enabled students to experience adaptation when they engaged with people (Dorsett, 2017). Similarly, Yuan (2017) found that precious study experiences helped some Chinese knowledge workers adjust to Sweden. The author found that Chinese knowledge workers accepted the organisational cultures in their companies and adjusted their behaviours. The author found that people from China and Sweden shared the same national culture. Some Chinese knowledge workers could work abroad, solve their work problems, and adjust to Sweden because of its openness.

Consistent with the findings in the study, Knaap's (2017) findings suggest that participants' national cultural identity and cultural awareness helped them: (1) transit to the Netherlands and (2) experience a national culture learning process. The author found that diverse types of cultures and different circumstances were vital. The author's (2017) findings suggest that culture was mutable and plural. Similarly, Franklin (2017) found that local and organisational culture had an impact over time. The longer the tenure as an expat in the company, the greater the alignment with the norm. There was a significant relationship between time living and working in a different culture and the characteristics of national culture. There was a significant relationship between organisational culture characteristics and national culture characteristics. Similarly, Ansah and Louw (2019) found that there was a significant relationship between organisational culture characteristics and national culture characteristics. Ansah and Louw (2019) found that high uncertainty avoidance and high-power distance cultures significantly and positively affected organisational culture.

In harmony with the findings in the study, Phungsoonthorn and Charoensukmongkol (2018) examined the difference in leadership based on managers' tenure. The authors found that managers' tenure was significantly associated with their leadership. The authors' findings suggest that the leadership style of tenured managers reduced turnover. Similarly, Lajoie et al. (2017) also found a significant difference in leadership based on managers' tenure. Specifically, value congruence enhanced leadership's effectiveness in new managers, but played no role in more tenured managers. Similarly, King and Haar (2017) also authors found a significant difference in leadership based on the manager's tenure. Specifically, the authors found that tenure duration was significantly associated with leadership self-mastery at low tenure duration, whereas there was no significant association between them at high tenure duration. In line with other studies, Woods et al.

(2017) found that managers with long tenure were less innovative than those with short tenure. Lee et al. (2020) found that servant leadership had a stronger, positive relationship with task performance for shorter-tenured individuals than for longer-tenured individuals. In addition to other studies, Gabriel et al. (2020) found that millennial managers were likelier to build a good impression and focused on soft skills and respect in leadership than different generations. The authors interviewed four millennial managers in the Philippines and conducted a thematic analysis. Similarly, Caponigro (2020) found a significant difference in servant leadership based on the experience levels of Asians. In addition, there was a significant difference in servant leadership based on the experience levels of middle managers.

Table 70 Sub-themes for Theme 2 and Literature

Aggregate Sub-theme	Literature
Differences	<p>These findings fit the previous literature, in which there was a significant relationship between time living and working in a different culture and the characteristics of national culture (Franklin, 2017). Therefore, the study's findings can confirm knowledge in the field. Dorsett's (2017) findings suggest that the themes consist of: (1) academic connection, (2) personal exploration, (3) cultural connection, and (4) national culture. The authors found that the international students in the first-year experience course were likely to experience meaningful learning and adaptation. Knaap's (2017) findings suggest that participants' national cultural identity and cultural awareness helped them to: (1) transit to the Netherlands and (2) experience a national culture learning process.</p>
No Differences	<p>These findings do not fit the previous literature, in which there was a significant relationship between time living and working in a different culture and the characteristics of national culture (Franklin, 2017). Therefore, the study's findings cannot confirm knowledge in the field. Yuan (2017) found that precious study experiences helped some Chinese knowledge workers adjust to Sweden. The author found that Chinese knowledge workers accepted the organisational cultures in their companies and adjusted their behaviours. The author found that people from China and Sweden shared the same national culture. Some Chinese knowledge workers could work abroad, solve their work problems, and adjust to Sweden because of its openness. Franklin (2017) found that expatriates experienced language barriers and culture shock.</p>

	The author found significant differences between American and Japanese organisational cultures.
Strong Organisational Culture	These findings fit the previous literature that argue that strong organisational culture was more important than nationality (Ansah & Louw, 2019). Therefore, the study's findings can confirm knowledge in the field. Ansah and Louw (2019) found that there was a significant relationship between organisational culture characteristics and national culture characteristics. The authors found that high uncertainty avoidance and high-power distance cultures significantly and positively affected organisational culture.

6.3.6 Insight 5: The extent that line managers' seniority impacts cross-cultural or servant leadership differences

Research question 8 was: Are there any statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and cultural or leadership scale scores? The answer to research question 8 was provided as follows: The quantitative results showed statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and cultural or leadership scale scores. Specifically, there was an overall significant result for power distance. Most qualitative findings also showed differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority. Aggregated data for this qualitative theme yielded two subthemes: (1) differences, and (2) no differences. For Sub-theme 1 of Theme 3, based on 14 participants' thoughts, there were differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority. Based on three participants' thoughts for Sub-theme 2 of Theme 3, there were differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority.

These findings are inconsistent with the previous literature that found no differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority (Trapero et al., 2017). The findings do not fit within the literature review and the theoretical framework that the researcher presented in chapter two. Therefore, the findings cannot confirm prior research and knowledge in the field. Inconsistent with the findings in the study, Trapero et al. (2017) found that participants with less seniority and those with more seniority have the same

organisational loyalty and pride level. Palta (2018) found no significant difference in perceived servant leadership based on grade seniority.

Table 71 Sub-themes for Theme 3 and Literature

Aggregate Sub-theme	Literature
Differences	These findings do not fit the previous literature that saw no differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader’s seniority (Trapero et al., 2017). Therefore, the study’s findings can confirm knowledge in the field. Trapero et al. (2017) found that participants with less seniority and those with more seniority had the same organisational loyalty and pride level.
No differences	These findings fit the previous literature that saw no differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader’s seniority (Palta, 2019). Therefore, knowledge in the field can be confirmed by the study’s findings. Palta (2019) found no significant difference in perceived servant leadership based on grade seniority.

6.4 Limitations

In this study, the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics across three different cultures (the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and India) was examined. The United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders were employed by the same UAE-based multinational organisation. Therefore, the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics across three different cultures (that is, the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and India) would not be generalised to other countries (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016; Remler & van Ryzin, 2021).

Due to the sample size of 149 being smaller than the 158 required to achieve > 80% observed power for the analysis. This smaller-than-expected sample size might lead to a nonsignificant outcome. The researcher did not control for covariates, which might result in a nonsignificant outcome (Remler & van Ryzin, 2021; Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015). Using a larger sample size and controlling for covariates might result in stronger results.

However, the researcher performed both bootstrapping and a two-way ANOVA were performed to test for an interaction effect between two independent variables with a dependent variable. Specifically, to determine if there were statistically significant differences in mean servant leadership among the United Kingdom, Indian, and United Arab Emirates groups. There was no relationship between the observations in each group of the independent variable or between the groups themselves. In addition, the homogeneity of variance assumption was not violated.

In this study, the reliability of the Servant Leadership Scale was successfully tested. The alpha reliabilities for the Servant Leadership Scale ranged from 0.86 to 0.91. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were greater than .0.70, (Nunnally, 1978). Therefore, the Servant Leadership Scale is reliable (Nunnally, 1978). However, the alpha reliability of the power distance dimension was 0.55. In addition, the researcher did not reveal his demographic information, which might affect the findings of the study (Creswell, 2013). Disclosing the researcher's demographic information might result in stronger results (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

Moderators were not utilised in this study, which might result in a nonsignificant outcome (Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015). Utilising moderators might lead to stronger results (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). Moderation analysis can be conducted to examine whether manager's gender and age moderate the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions. In the future, researchers are urged to utilise analysis of covariance by controlling for covariates such as line managers' age and gender (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

In this study, selection bias can occur when there may be the difference between the line managers who returned the questionnaire and those who did not answer the survey (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). The mortality threat can happen when uncommitted line managers drop out of the study (Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015). In a study measuring the effect of cultural characteristics on servant leadership, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders may seek out other means of improving servant leadership, resulting in a regression threat (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

Additionally, self-reported questionnaires were utilised to collect data. Therefore, self-selection bias might account for a nonsignificant outcome (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). Line managers might be biased, because the data were gathered based on the self-reported scores (Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015). As an example, the quantitative study participants self-selected their nationality. They were not required to state whether nationality was obtained by birth or naturalisation. In the qualitative study, interview participants discussed their nationality, and culture of upbringing with the interviewer.

Qualitative studies tend to have a small sample size, in this case 29 participants, limiting their generalisability to larger populations. Qualitative studies are prone to researcher bias because the researcher's beliefs can affect the interpretation of data. Qualitative and mixed-methods studies rely on self-reported data, resulting in social desirability bias or inaccurate recall. Qualitative and mixed-methods studies are more time consuming and resource intensive than quantitative studies. Qualitative studies depend on subjective interpretation, causing different conclusions based on different interpretations of the same data. Integrating qualitative and quantitative data in mixed-methods studies can be challenging because they have different assumptions.

6.5 Instruments

In this study, Liden et al.'s (2008) Servant Leadership Scale was used to measure servant leadership. The Servant Leadership Scale (Liden et al., 2008) is most appropriate for measuring servant leadership. The reliability of the Servant Leadership Scale was tested. The alpha reliabilities for the Servant Leadership Scale are as follows: conceptual skills ($\alpha = 0.86$), empowering ($\alpha = 0.90$), helping subordinates grow and succeed ($\alpha = 0.90$), putting subordinates first ($\alpha = 0.91$), behaving ethically ($\alpha = 0.90$), emotional healing ($\alpha = 0.89$), and creating value for the community ($\alpha = 0.89$). The Servant Leadership Scale is reliable because the alpha coefficients are greater than 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). The Servant Leadership Scale has high construct validity because high reliability implies high construct validity.

In past studies, researchers have utilised the Servant Leadership Scale. For example, Schwarz et al. (2016) also utilised the Servant Leadership Scale to identify the mediating effect(s) of public service motivation. The authors focused on mediators for servant leadership and follower and organisational outcome in a region-specific study in China. The authors surveyed and analysed supervisors and their immediate subordinates working at a Chinese prefecture-level government agency in Zhejiang Province. The authors determined that public service motivation mediates the impact of servant leadership on follower job performance.

Hofstede's VSM 94 was used to measure national cultural characteristics. Hofstede's VSM 94 includes 20 items and six demographic questions. All items on Hofstede's VSM 94 employ a five-point Likert scale that includes anchored points. Teresa and Roodt (2013) employed Hofstede's VSM 94, validating its 20 items by conducting anti-image inter-correlations on their scores. The authors eliminated items that did not meet the required

measures of sampling adequacy. The remaining eight items underwent both factor analysis and anti-image intercorrelation.

6.5.1 Internal Validity and External Validity

In this study, selection bias can occur when there may have been a difference between the line managers who returned the questionnaire and those who did not answer the survey (Cooper & Schindler, 2014). The mortality threat could have happened when uncommitted line managers dropped out of the study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016; Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015). In a study measuring the effect of cultural characteristics on the seven dimensions of servant leadership, line managers could seek other means of improving the seven dimensions of servant leadership, which could result in a regression threat (Cooper & Schindler, 2014; Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015).

External validity refers to the extent that study findings can be generalised to the larger population (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016; Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015). In this study, participants were recruited from inside the Middle East. Therefore, findings from the study cannot be generalisable to different countries (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016; Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015).

6.6 Recommendations for Further Research

6.6.1 Recommendations Developed Directly from the Data

In this study, a smaller-than-expected sample size might result in a nonsignificant outcome. In the future, researchers are encouraged to use a larger sample size, which would help to draw definite conclusions about the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions. In this study, the researcher did not control for covariates such as line managers' age and gender, which might lead to a nonsignificant outcome (Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015). In future studies, researchers are

urged to control for covariates such as line managers' age and gender by utilising analysis of covariance.

In this study, a cross-section research design was utilised. In future studies, the use of a longitudinal research design is encouraged to examine the impact of the cultural characteristics dimensions on each dimension of servant leadership. A longitudinal research design is most appropriate for measuring the impact of the cultural characteristics dimensions on each dimension of servant leadership.

In this study, the researcher did not reveal his demographic information, which might affect the findings of the study (Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015). The researcher needs to disclose his demographic information (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). In the future, researchers are advised to disclose their demographic information, which can lead to a stronger study.

In this study, the researcher did not examine if moderators moderate the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions (Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015). Utilising moderators might result in stronger results. In the future, researchers are urged to conduct a moderation analysis to examine whether manager's gender and age moderate the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions.

The findings might be affected by the history threat (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016). In addition, the findings might be affected by the regression threat (Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015).

Finally, the findings might be affected by selection bias. Future research is advised to control for the history threat, as well as the regression threat. In future studies, researchers are recommended to use propensity score matching to control for possible self-selection bias effects.

6.6.2 Recommendations Based on Delimitations

In this study, the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions among United Arab Emirates leaders in a UAE-based multinational organisation was investigated. However, the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions among other nationalities leaders was not investigated. In future studies, researchers are encouraged to examine the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions among leaders of other nationalities. In future studies, researchers may show each dimension of servant leadership is significantly and positively correlated with the cultural characteristics dimensions among leaders of other nationalities by performing correlational analysis.

In this study, the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions among Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders in a UAE-based multinational organisation was investigated. However, the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and job satisfaction among leaders was not examined in this study. In future studies, researchers are urged to examine the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and job satisfaction among Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. In future studies, researchers may show that each dimension of servant leadership is significantly and positively correlated with job satisfaction among Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders by performing correlational analysis. In future studies, researchers can show that each dimension of servant leadership significantly and positively affects job satisfaction among United Kingdom leaders by performing regression analysis.

In this study, the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions among Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders in a UAE-based multinational organisation was examined. However, the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and corporate culture among Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders was not examined. In future studies, researchers are encouraged to examine the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and corporate culture among Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. In future studies, researchers can show that each dimension of servant leadership is significantly and positively correlated with corporate culture among Indian leaders by performing correlational analysis. In future studies, researchers may show that each dimension of servant leadership significantly and positively affects corporate culture among Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders by performing correlational and regression analyses.

In future quantitative studies, it would be helpful to examine the impact of the cultural characteristics dimensions on organisational culture across three cultures (that is, Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders). Future research may result in more knowledge that would fill the gap. Future research may bridge the gap by examining the impact of the cultural characteristics' dimensions on organisational culture. Future research may show that the cultural characteristics dimensions significantly and positively affect organisational culture across three cultures (that is, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders).

Additionally, future research into national culture and leadership styles are encouraged to delve deeper into the interactions between these dimensions and organisational culture. Specifically, the relationship between, and relative extend to which, national culture and organisational culture play a role in in the recruitment, training, and support of leaders.

Moreover, future research is advised into the intentional use of leadership styles in creating a social environment intended to shape leadership and worker dynamics. Specifically, the relationship between, and relative extent to which intentionally adopted leadership styles play a role in organisational change.

The researcher examined the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions across three different cultures (United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and India) in a UAE-based multinational organisation. In future studies, researchers are advised to fill the gap in the literature by examining the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions at diverse organisations internationally. Future research may show that each dimension of servant leadership is significantly and positively correlated with the cultural characteristics' dimensions at various organisations internationally.

This academic inquiry did not examine the difference in the level of servant leadership between United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders, controlling for line managers' age and gender. In future studies, it is recommended that researchers determine if there is a significant difference in the level of servant leadership between United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders, controlling for line managers' age and gender by conducting ANOVA. In the future, researchers may show that there is a significant difference in the level of servant leadership between United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders, controlling for line managers' age and gender. A quantitative study that examines the difference in the level of servant leadership between United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders may help researchers develop significant theory.

The researcher examined if manager's nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and India) mediated the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristic. However, the researcher did not examine if line managers' age and gender mediated the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions. In future studies, it would be useful to examine if line managers' age and gender would mediate the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions by performing mediation analysis. In future studies, researchers may show that line managers' age and gender mediate the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions.

In this study, the researcher did not examine if line managers' tenure moderated the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions. In future studies, it would be helpful to examine if line managers' tenure would moderate the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions by performing moderation analysis. In the future, researchers may show that line managers' tenure moderates the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions.

In this academic enquiry, the differences between line managers' nationality and servant leadership characteristics were examined. However, the researcher did not examine the differences between line managers' ethnicity and servant leadership characteristics, controlling for line managers' age. In future studies, it would be useful to examine the differences between line managers' ethnicity and servant leadership characteristics, controlling for line managers' age by using a one-way ANOVA. In future studies,

researchers may show that there are significant differences between line managers' ethnicity and servant leadership characteristics, controlling for line managers' age.

The researcher did not examine the differences between line managers' gender and servant leadership characteristics, controlling for line managers' nationality. In future studies, researchers are encouraged to examine the differences between line managers' gender and servant leadership characteristics, controlling for line managers' nationality. In future studies, researchers may show that there is a significant difference between line managers' gender and servant leadership characteristics, controlling for line managers' nationality.

Diverse female servant leaders who have cultural characteristics are relevant. In future studies, researchers are advised to examine the impact of the cultural characteristics dimensions on female leaders' servant leadership. In future studies, researchers may show that there is a significant impact of the cultural characteristics dimensions on female leaders' servant leadership.

6.7 Conclusion

The present study identifies three key insights. First, while national cultural characteristics may affect the individual leadership traits, it did not affect the overall level of servant leadership. Contrary to previous literature, there were no significant differences in servant leadership levels among Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. Second, there were differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure, with strong organisational culture proving more impactful than national culture. Third, there were differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority.

6.7.1 Insight 1: The extent of cross-national servant leadership differences or cross-national differences

The quantitative results show no statistically significant differences in mean servant leadership among United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and Indian groups. However, most of the qualitative findings show differences in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. Aggregated data for this qualitative theme yielded 9 subthemes: (1) collaborative versus hierarchical, (2) long-term orientation, (3) putting the team first or valuing the team, (4) confrontation and respect, (5) relaxed versus driven, (6) structure and timeline, (7) security, (8) community service and social purpose, and (9) no differences.

6.7.2 Insight 1b: the extent of the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics

Among United Arab Emirates leaders, there is a statistically significant medium positive linear correlation between empowering and individualism and a statistically significant medium positive correlation between behaving ethically and individualism. There is also a medium positive correlation between conceptual skills and individualism. Among United Kingdom leaders, there is a statistically significant small positive linear correlation between putting the team first and power distance. Among Indian leaders, there is a statistically significant moderate negative linear correlation between putting the team first and masculinity.

6.7.3 Insight 2 and 3: The line manager and employee nationalities do not impact servant leadership and cross-cultural characteristics line manager nationality does not mediate the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics

The present study shows no significant difference in how employees rated their manager depending on nationality. In this study, the manager's nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and India) did not mediate the relationship between servant

leadership and behaving ethically. However, uncertainty avoidance was positively associated with manager's nationality.

6.7.4 Insight 4: The extent that line managers' tenure impacts cross-cultural or servant leadership differences

The quantitative results show statistically significant differences between line managers' tenure and cultural or leadership scale scores. Specifically, for the United Kingdom group, there is a significant medium positive correlation between tenure and community values. For Indian participants, there is a medium positive significant correlation between tenure and uncertainty avoidance. Most qualitative findings also showed differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure. Aggregated data for this qualitative theme yielded three subthemes: (1) differences, (2) no differences, and (3) strong organisational culture.

Chapter 7 Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This mixed-method study examines the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics and employees' perceptions related to the difference in the level of servant leadership across three different cultures (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) and the differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure and seniority in a UAE-based multinational organisation. The three cultures were selected as they are the nationalities most highly represented in the company's leadership roles.

The mixed-methods approach included a quantitative correlational design and a qualitative case study. First, a quantitative correlational designed study was undertaken to examine the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions across three different cultures (that is, the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and India) in a UAE-based multinational organisation. Second, a qualitative case study was conducted to explore employees' perceptions regarding the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders and differences in leadership approach relative to a leader's tenure and seniority.

There are five main sections in Chapter 7. First, it concludes consideration of the theoretical framework, and second moves to implications for theory and practice. Thirdly, it highlights the key limitations of the study. Fourthly, it proposes areas of focus for the future research agenda. Finally, this chapter ends with concluding remarks.

7.2 Theoretical Framework

This research study builds upon the foundations of previous studies and contributes to the literature by exploring how cultural factors may influence the perception and practice of servant leadership and employee perceptions.

Three key findings emerged from the study, including variations in servant leadership levels among Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders, the influence of organisational culture over national culture, and differences in leadership approaches based on leaders' seniority. These findings confirm elements of the prior research, however, also enhance our understanding of how leadership may manifest differently in diverse cultural contexts.

These insights suggest the need for further research to adapt the servant leadership model accordingly and continue the ongoing discussion.

The study explored the role of a manager's nationality in mediating the relationship between servant leadership characteristics and cultural dimensions. However, the findings indicate that manager nationality does not significantly mediate this relationship across several cultural characteristics and leadership qualities. Servant leadership, developed by Robert K. Greenleaf, emphasises the leader's role in serving others, particularly employees, to ensure their development and well-being, benefiting the organisation. Servant leadership is characterized by emotional healing, community value creation, conceptual skills, empowerment, fostering subordinate growth, team prioritizing, and ethical behaviour. The study attempted to connect these servant leadership characteristics with cultural dimensions identified by Hofstede, including long-term orientation, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity.

Despite the robust theoretical framework and model fit (Figure 3), the research found no support for the hypothesis that a manager's nationality mediates between servant

leadership and cultural characteristics. The reported beta values and p-values suggest that the direct relationships between cultural dimensions and servant leadership characteristics were not statistically significant, indicating that nationality did not alter these relationships' strength or direction.

This result suggests that servant leadership qualities transcend national and cultural boundaries, applying universally. This universality is crucial in a globalized world where managers lead culturally diverse teams.

The findings also prompt a re-evaluation of how cultural traits influence leadership styles. While Hofstede's dimensions have been influential, this study suggests servant leadership characteristics may be less influenced by these dimensions than previously thought, opening a dialogue about new models or dimensions to understand culture and servant leadership.

Furthermore, the lack of mediation by nationality suggests individual, organisational, or industry-specific contexts may be more robust determinants of servant leadership manifestation and perception. The results imply that personal values and ethics govern servant leadership more than cultural or national identity.

The study's methodology and findings raise questions about insufficiently supported areas. For instance, while cultural awareness is crucial, adapting leadership styles to cultural dimensions may be less critical than ensuring competency in servant leadership attributes, challenging scholars and practitioners to consider other influential factors. Moreover, negative beta values associated with specific servant leadership characteristics and cultural dimensions suggest potential areas of tension. Further investigation is encouraged to understand why certain cultural traits might conflict with servant leadership and how leaders can navigate these discrepancies.

In conclusion, the study enhances understanding of servant leadership by suggesting its applicability across cultural divides, prompting a re-evaluation of how cultural dimensions impact leadership styles. While the hypothesis regarding manager nationality mediation was not supported, it emphasises the need for a nuanced understanding of variables influencing leadership effectiveness in diverse cultural contexts, advancing discussions on universal versus culture-specific leadership aspects and urging future research to untangle the complex interplay of individual, organisational, and cultural factors in servant leadership.

7.3 Limitations

In this study, the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics across three different cultures (the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and India) was examined in the context of a UAE-based multinational organisation. Therefore, there were threats to external validity because participants were recruited from the United Arab Emirates (Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015). The findings from this analysis would not be generalisable to different countries (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016; Remler & van Ryzin, 2021).

In the quantitative study, threats to internal validity are not applicable because this study did not attempt to explore causal relationships. However, there were threats to statistical conclusion validity. Threats to statistical validity have three components: instrument reliability, data assumptions, and sample size (Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015).

A smaller-than-intended sample size might lead to a nonsignificant outcome. The researcher did not control for covariates, which might result in a nonsignificant outcome (Remler & van Ryzin, 2021; Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015). In addition, the researcher did not reveal his demographic information, which might have led to stronger results (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

In this study, moderators were not utilised, which might result in a nonsignificant outcome (Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015).

The findings of the study might also be affected by selection bias (Vaishnavi & Kuechler, 2015). In addition, the present study used self-reported questionnaires to collect data. Therefore, self-selection bias might account for a nonsignificant outcome (Leedy & Ormrod, 2016).

The smaller sample size in Qualitative studies limits their generalisability to larger populations and these studies are prone to researcher bias in the interpretation data. The social desirability bias and inaccurate recall by result from self-reported data. Integrating qualitative and quantitative data in mixed-methods studies can be challenging because they have different assumptions.

7.4 Implications for Theory and Practice

The mixed-methods study on servant leadership and cultural characteristics within a multinational organisation in the United Arab Emirates presents several implications that extend to theoretical frameworks, social change, and methodological considerations. This research has dissected the intricate interplay between leadership styles and the cultural backdrop leaders practice against. The study provides a nuanced understanding that carries significance in academic and organisational contexts.

7.4.1 Theoretical Implications

This mixed-methods study makes a substantial contribution to theoretical discourse by shedding light on the intricate interplay between leadership styles and cultural contexts, providing a nuanced layer to the theoretical landscape of leadership studies. Investigating servant leadership across the cultural contexts of the United Arab Emirates, the United

Kingdom, and India nationalities reveals critical insights, with qualitative assessments uncovering variances in leadership expressions. The study aligns with established servant leadership frameworks, suggesting a culturally informed applicability of these principles. In the context of Emirati leadership, the research expands upon recognized characteristics, challenging stereotypes and highlighting a complex interplay of cultural influences.

This study enriches theoretical discourse by presenting the Hypothesised Mediation Model, which intricately weaves the principles of servant leadership with cultural dimensions. Rooted in Hofstede's (1984) esteemed five dimensions of culture—power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term versus short-term orientation—this model elucidates the complex interplay between leadership styles and cultural contexts. The study advances the understanding by delineating how cultural traits affect servant leadership, thereby contributing a nuanced layer to the theoretical landscape of leadership studies.

Exploring servant leadership within the varied cultures of the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and India reveals critical insights. While quantitative analyses did not unveil significant differences in the overall levels of servant leadership across these nationalities, qualitative assessments highlighted variances in leadership expressions. These include themes of collaboration versus hierarchy, long-term orientation, and the prioritization of team welfare—each echoing elements of Liden et al.'s (2008) servant leadership model, which encompasses emotional healing, empowering, ethical behaviour, and a commitment to the community. The alignment with themes such as putting the team first, fostering respectful relationships, and engaging in community service underscores the resonance between this study's findings and established servant leadership frameworks, suggesting a broader, culturally informed applicability of these principles. In the context of

Emirati leadership, the study builds upon the limited existing research, aligning with and expanding upon the recognized characteristics of Emirati leadership that emphasise future-oriented leadership, development of subordinates, and avoidance of public confrontation. These traits resonate with the servant leadership model's focus on growth, ethical behaviour, and empowerment, challenging the notion of a predominantly short-term orientation in Eastern leadership and suggesting a more complex interplay of cultural influences.

The findings regarding the interaction between managers' and employees' nationalities and the impact of managers' tenure and seniority add depth to understanding how servant leadership is perceived and enacted within organisational settings. The lack of significant differences between manager and employee nationalities in their perceptions of servant leadership, alongside the observed influence of tenure and seniority on leadership approaches, highlights the role of organisational culture in shaping leadership practices, potentially overshadowing national cultural influences. By investigating the nuanced relationships among servant leadership, national culture, and organisational context, this study extends the applicability of servant leadership theory to diverse cultural settings. This study challenges scholars and practitioners to consider how they can adapt servant leadership models to align with specific cultural contexts, emphasizing the need for leadership practices that are culturally sensitive and inclusive.

The study holds particular significance and relevance in light of the limited research within the context of the Middle East. From a theoretical perspective, the study contributes to servant leadership theory by exploring the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics among leaders from three different nationalities within a multinational organisation in the United Arab Emirates.

The scarcity of prior investigations in this area underscores the novelty and distinctiveness of this study and as a result the outcomes of this study not only fill a notable gap in the existing literature but also represent a substantive and original contribution to the body of knowledge within the field. By investigating unexplored, or underexplored, areas of research, this study enhances the understanding of how national culture and servant leadership interact.

In summary, this study significantly advances servant leadership theory by providing empirical evidence of how cultural characteristics interact with servant leadership in a multinational organisational context. This study invites further research into adapting servant leadership models to fit diverse cultural landscapes, bridging the gap between theoretical frameworks and practical applications in global leadership practices. This contribution deepens our theoretical understanding of servant leadership and underscores the importance of cultural sensitivity in effectively implementing leadership practices across different national contexts.

Servant Leadership Theory and National Culture

Similarities and differences exist when comparing this study's results with servant leadership and the national culture theory. The present study is consistent with previous literature in suggesting a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics (Chung, 2017; Hannay, 2016; Liden et al., 2014; Molnar, 2017).

While the quantitative results suggested no significant differences in mean servant leadership among United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and Indian groups, the qualitative findings showed differences in the level of servant leadership between the Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. Aggregated data for this qualitative theme yielded 9 sub-themes: (1) collaborative versus hierarchical, (2) long-term orientation, (3)

putting the team first or valuing the team, (4) confrontation and respect, (5) relaxed versus driven, (6) structure and timeline, (7) security, (8) community service and social purpose, and (9) no differences.

The servant leadership dimensions reflect Liden et al.'s (2008) model that included nine characteristics of servant leadership: emotional healing, empowering, creating value for the community, helping subordinates grow and succeed, relationships, conceptual skills, behaving ethically, putting subordinates first, and servanthood. Several of the themes from the qualitative study closely reflect Liden et al.'s (2008) findings, namely (3) putting the team first or valuing the team (putting subordinates first), (4) confrontation and respect (relationships), (8) community service and social purpose (creating value for the community). There is some alignment in responses also in (1) collaborative versus hierarchical (empowering). Thus, further considering the interaction between national culture and servant leadership theory can address the theory-practice gap in servant leadership.

Emirati Servant Leadership

While previous research into Servant Leadership in the United Arab Emirates is limited, the study's findings extend the existing evidence of Emirati leadership characteristics identified in the wider literature on Emirati leadership theory. Weir (2015) identified Emirati leadership characteristics, including creating an environment where others succeed, leading today for tomorrow's future and developing future leaders today. Akdol and Arikboga (2017) argue that Middle Eastern managers gave greater attention to their employees' interests and benefits, focused on the developmental needs of the subordinates, and developed strong supportive relationships with all followers. These findings in the previous literature and van Dierendonck et al.'s contention that Emirati leaders avoided

confrontation in public are well aligned with elements of the servant leadership and national culture characteristics identified in this study. However, the study's results, and Weir (2015), do not support van Dierendonck's (2017) assertion that Eastern leaders focused on short-term orientation (van Dierendonck et al., 2017). Thus, further considering the interaction between national culture and servant leadership theory is a way to fulfill the alignment of scholarship and leadership practice that servant leadership theory demands.

Nationality of Manager and Employee

These results should be considered when understanding the interaction between line managers and employee nationalities. While previous studies (Fan & Harzing, 2017) have suggested a significant relationship between the interaction of manager cultural identity and employee cultural identity, these results suggest that there are no significant differences between line managers' nationality and employee nationality regarding scores, as well as any possible interaction effect between the two factors of the nationality of employees and managers.

Manager's Tenure, Servant Leadership and National Culture

These results build on evidence of significant differences between line managers' tenure and cultural or leadership scale scores. In particular, between time living and working in a different culture and the characteristics of national culture (Franklin, 2017). Specifically, the qualitative results for the United Kingdom and Indian leaders in the study suggest a significant influence between tenure and servant leadership or national culture characteristics. Most qualitative findings also showed differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure. These findings also suggest that strong organisational culture has a role to play, possibly a stronger one, than national culture. These findings are consistent with the previous literature that found a significant relationship between time

spent living and working in a different culture and the characteristics of national culture (Franklin, 2017).

Manager's Grade Seniority, Servant Leadership and National Culture

While previous literature has primarily found no differences in leadership approaches (Trapero et al., 2017) or servant leadership (Palta, 2019) relative to a leader's seniority, the quantitative results suggest significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and cultural or leadership scale scores. Especially in the result for power distance.

Qualitative findings also showed differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority. Aggregated data for this qualitative theme also suggests differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority.

Furthermore, investigating the interaction among tenure or grade seniority, servant leadership, national culture, and organisational culture theories in single organisations represents extending the applicability of scholarly research.

In summary, the study contributes to servant leadership theory by exploring the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics across three different nationalities in a multinational organisation in the United Arab Emirates. In particular, the present study identifies three key findings, including the differences in servant leadership levels among Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders, the impact of organisational culture over national culture, and differences in leadership approach relative to leaders' seniority. These findings provide insight into how servant leadership may manifest differently in different cultural contexts and suggest that further research explore how the servant leadership model can be adapted to fit specific cultural contexts.

7.4.2 Methodological Implications

Methodologically, the study highlights the robustness of mixed methods research. The research presents a comprehensive view of servant leadership across different cultural contexts by employing a qualitative case study alongside correlational and causal-comparative designs.

A qualitative case study was used to examine employees' perceptions regarding the difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders and differences in leadership approach relative to a leader's tenure and seniority. The significance of the relationships between and among variables was examined by using a correlational design. In addition, a causal-comparative design was successfully used to compare three groups (that is, the United Kingdom, the United Arab Emirates, and India) defined by categorical variables in terms of one or more quantified dependent variables (that is, servant leadership) to assess causation. A power analysis was conducted to determine the minimum required sample size for the study. In this study, four factors (that is, the level of significance, the effect size, the power of test, the statistical technique) were considered.

This power analysis further underscores the methodological rigor, which ensures the statistical findings are grounded in a sample size sufficient to draw meaningful conclusions. However, the potential limitations of a smaller-than-expected sample size highlight the need for careful consideration in study design and the interpretation of nonsignificant outcomes. This study serves as a critical reminder for future research to ensure adequate sampling to capture the dynamics of servant leadership and cultural characteristics entirely.

Scholars and servant leaders can use the research, and included questionnaires, to provide a framework to understand the seven dimensions of servant leadership and relationship with the five dimensions of culture.

7.4.3 Societal Change Implications

This study has the potential to drive social change in numerous ways. The study can inform leadership development initiatives to promote positive social change by illuminating the factors contributing to effective organisational leadership. Organisations increasingly need to understand the significance of servant leadership traits in shaping corporate cultures that prioritise ethical decision-making, employee empowerment, and community engagement as they strive to become more socially responsible and sustainable.

There is also potential to positively impact social change by examining the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions. The present study provides leaders and their followers insight into each dimension of servant leadership. The knowledge gained in the study can be utilised to improve servant leaders' performance. The hiring process can be improved by hiring servant leaders.

The findings can be used to understand the social environments in which servant leaders deal with their employees. Comprehending the cultural characteristics of servant leaders is significant when their efficacy is considered. This study is significant because it can help researchers to comprehend how servant leaders work with their employees.

The study findings may also challenge traditional leadership notions based solely on hierarchical authority and seniority. The study demonstrates that servant leadership characteristics can be exhibited by managers at all levels of an organisation, irrespective of their tenure or position, contributing to the democratization of leadership practices. This

shift towards more inclusive and egalitarian leadership models can empower individuals from diverse backgrounds and promote excellent representation and equity within organisational structures.

Moreover, organisations recognizing the importance of servant leadership in driving employee engagement, satisfaction, and performance may have broader implications for societal well-being. Employees who feel valued, supported, and empowered by their leaders will likely experience great job satisfaction and overall well-being. Consequently, this can have ripple effects beyond the workplace, leading to happier and more fulfilled individuals who can contribute positively to their communities and society.

Any organisation that allows servant leaders to use their cultural characteristics can benefit from this study. This study can be utilised to examine factors that enable servant leaders to use their cultural characteristics to improve their followers' performance. This research could also be used to identify the type of servant leaders that utilise servant leadership. This study may be relevant to various leadership fields of study internationally. The social implications may benefit organisations that hire diverse servant leaders who can use servant leadership and cultural characteristics.

Overall, the study's findings have the potential to trigger a shift towards more compassionate, ethical, and inclusive leadership practices, ultimately contributing to broader social change efforts aimed at creating more equitable and sustainable organisations and communities.

7.4.4 Implications for Practice

This mixed-methods study on servant leadership and cultural characteristics has several implications for practice. The present study identifies three key findings, including the differences in servant leadership levels among Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian

leaders, the impact of organisational culture over national culture, and differences in leadership approach relative to leaders' seniority. These findings provide insight into how servant leadership may manifest differently in different cultural contexts and suggest how the servant leadership model can be adapted to fit specific cultural contexts.

Servant leaders can use the research and questionnaires that enable them to examine whether each dimension of servant leadership was significantly and positively correlated with the cultural characteristics dimensions. Servant leaders can survey their followers by utilising the questionnaires.

Additionally, the findings have practical implications for leadership development and practice. The research provides a framework for servant leaders to understand the seven dimensions of servant leadership and five dimensions of culture (individualism, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, masculinity, and long-term orientation) and how to develop appropriate strategies.

Servant leaders must develop servant leadership strategies to manage the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and the cultural characteristics dimensions. Servant leaders are advised to use the results of the study to evaluate their cultural characteristics and improve their application of servant leadership based on these cultural characteristics. The current study can provide insight for servant leaders who want to examine how they can apply cultural characteristics to each dimension of servant leadership.

The present study also highlights the importance of organisational culture in shaping leadership approaches and suggests that organisations consider prioritising solid and supportive cultures to facilitate servant leadership. The findings also emphasise the importance of developing leaders' skills and attributes aligning with the servant leadership

model, such as empathy, listening, emotional healing, self-awareness, commitment to the growth of others, and building community. Organisations are advised to prioritise training and development programs focusing on these skills and attributes to support their leaders in becoming influential servant leaders.

Both the national culture and the organisational culture significantly affect the working of the organisation's employees. The culture prevalent in the organisation might be different from the country's culture. Employees who share a similar national culture have a robust value system. One of the factors which can be considered in building an organisation's culture is the culture of the nation in which the organisation operates. Other vital factors that help develop the best culture in the organisation, apart from the organisational culture, are the feelings of security among the employees, the personality of the owner, and the behaviour of the leaders with their employees.

The findings also highlight the importance of cross-cultural communication and understanding in multinational organisations. By exploring the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics across three different nationalities in a multinational organisation in the United Arab Emirates, the study highlights the need for leaders to be aware of cultural differences and to adapt their leadership approaches to fit the cultural context. Organisations are recommended to prioritise cross-cultural training and development programs for their leaders to facilitate effective communication and collaboration across cultures.

Overall, the study provides practical implications for developing servant leadership theory and contributes to leadership development application and practice in multinational organisations. The study's findings suggest that servant leadership is a promising model

that can be adapted to fit different cultural contexts and can lead to positive outcomes for employees and organisations.

7.4.5 Implications Conclusion

The study asserts the significant role of culture in shaping servant leadership and its expression in different national contexts. The study refined theoretical models, enhanced practical leadership strategies, and validated methodological approaches, all contributing to the rich tapestry of servant leadership research. By embracing the insights gleaned from this study, organisations can move towards creating environments that truly reflect the ethos of servant leadership—where leaders serve first and combine the growth and well-being of each individual with the success of the collective. This research thus enriches the academic conversation around servant leadership and has the potential to inspire tangible changes in organisational practices and leadership development programs. The ripple effect of such transformation can extend well beyond administrative boundaries, influencing industries and potentially shaping the future of leadership globally.

7.5 The Extent of Cross-National Servant Leadership Differences or Cross-National Differences

The quantitative results showed no statistically significant differences in mean servant leadership among United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and Indian groups. However, most of the qualitative findings showed differences in the leadership characteristics between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. This qualitative theme yielded 9 subthemes: (1) collaborative versus hierarchical, (2) long-term orientation, (3) putting the team first or valuing the team, (4) confrontation and respecting, (5) relaxed versus driven, (6) structure and timeline, (7) security, (8) community service and social purpose, and (9) no differences.

For Sub-theme 1 of Theme 1, United Kingdom leaders are collaborative and open with an allocation of responsibilities, whereas Emirati and Indian leaders are hierarchical. Other nationalities, including the United Kingdom, are more out of respect one on one. For Sub-theme 2 of Theme 1, Emirati leaders talked less about time and more about vision, whereas United Kingdom leaders focused on long-term orientation. Therefore, whether it was six months or ten years, Emirati leaders said that they felt that they must reach a state. For United Kingdom leaders, it was very much about this was where they wanted to reach. For example, United Kingdom leaders said, “We must reach our timeline at a broad level.” Thus, United Kingdom leaders put a timeline in place.

For Sub-theme 3 of Theme 1, Indian and Emirati managers put the team first or valued the team, whereas United Kingdom managers focused on the business agenda. For Sub-theme 4 of Theme 1, Emirati leaders tended to avoid confrontation in public, whereas United Kingdom managers did not avoid confrontation. Additionally, a message that was acceptable in a particular culture sometimes was not as acceptable in the other. The British were not overly conscious of cultural differences. For Sub-theme 5 of Theme 1, United Kingdom leaders appeared more relaxed, whereas Indian leaders were driven. United Kingdom leaders were likely to be assimilative, relaxed leaders. United Kingdom managers focused on structure and timelines for Sub-theme 6 of Theme 1.

Emirati managers said that they felt secure for Sub-theme 7 of Theme 1. There was a degree of security afforded to Emiratis, which was only afforded to those with a United Arab Emirates passport. Community service and social purpose were authentic for Sub-theme 8 of Theme 1. UAE Nationals had a great degree of national pride and elegance in how they conducted themselves. UAE Nationals had the willingness to embrace expatriate talent because they saw the value for the country. For Sub-theme 9 of Theme 1, there was

no difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders. It depended on the individual and their prior management background.

The findings of this study confirm previous research, because the findings are consistent with the prior literature that found that there was a significant difference in servant leadership across diverse cultures (Beugelsdijk & Welzel, 2018; Carroll & Patterson, 2016; Khazma et al., 2016; Merino, 2016; van Dierendonck et al., 2017). The present study found no statistically significant differences in mean servant leadership among United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, and Indian groups. These quantitative results are consistent with the results of Beugelsdijk and Welzel (2018), who also found no significant differences in servant leadership across diverse cultures. However, the qualitative findings of this study, which identifies differences in leadership characteristics between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders, provide unique insights into the nuances of leadership across these cultures. For example, the finding that United Kingdom leaders were collaborative and open with an allocation of responsibilities, whereas Emirati and Indian leaders were hierarchical, extends the results of Beauchamp et al. (2021), who note that United Kingdom leaders focused on collaborative leadership and professionalism. Similarly, the finding that Emirati leaders talked less about time and more about vision, whereas United Kingdom leaders focused on long-term orientation, extends the findings of van Dierendonck et al. (2017), who observe that United Kingdom leaders focused on long-term orientation. The qualitative findings that Indian and Emirati managers put the team first or value the team, whereas United Kingdom managers focused on the business agenda echo van Dierendonck et al. (2017), who note that Western managers put the team first or valued the team.

The qualitative findings that Emirati leaders tended to avoid confrontation in public, whereas United Kingdom managers did not, extend the findings of van Dierendonck et al. (2017), who note that Western managers showed their feelings to their staff. The qualitative findings that United Kingdom leaders appeared more relaxed, whereas Indian leaders were driven, echo the findings of Chordiya et al. (2017), who maintains that Indian leaders were driven. The qualitative findings that Emirati managers said that they felt secure extend the findings of Akdol and Arikboga (2017), who reported that Middle Eastern leaders said that they felt secure and had high trust, interaction, support, and rewards.

Finally, the qualitative findings that there was no difference in the level of servant leadership between Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders are consistent with the findings of Beugelsdijk and Welzel (2018) but contradict the findings of other studies that found significant differences in servant leadership across cultures (Carroll & Patterson, 2016; Khazma et al., 2016; Merino, 2016; van Dierendonck et al., 2017). Therefore, these findings provide a unique perspective on the variability of leadership styles across cultures and highlight the importance of considering quantitative and qualitative data when studying leadership across cultures.

7.6 The Extent of the Relationship Between Servant Leadership and Cultural Characteristics

A noteworthy finding reveals a statistically significant medium positive linear correlation between empowerment and individualism among Emirati leaders, as well as a similar correlation between ethical behaviour and individualism. Additionally, a medium positive correlation exists between conceptual skills and individualism. For United Kingdom leaders a statistically significant small positive linear correlation emerges between prioritizing the team and power distance. The study found, among Indian leaders, a

statistically significant moderate negative linear correlation is observed between prioritizing the team and masculinity.

The quantitative results confirm previous research because the study's findings are consistent with the prior literature that found a significant relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics (Chung, 2017; Hannay, 2016; Liden et al., 2014; Monlar, 2007). Therefore, the quantitative results can confirm knowledge in the field. The present study is meaningful for servant leaders because they can learn that servant leadership is significantly and positively associated with the cultural characteristics dimensions.

The present study found a statistically significant medium positive linear correlation between empowering and individualism among United Arab Emirates leaders. These quantitative results confirm previous research. The quantitative results are consistent with the findings of Liden et al. (2014), who observe that individualistic cultures prioritised employee empowerment.

The present study found a medium positive correlation between behaving ethically and individualism among United Arab Emirates leaders. These quantitative results confirm previous research. The quantitative results are consistent with the results of Hannay (2016), who notes that individualistic cultures prioritised ethical behaviour.

The present study found a medium positive correlation between conceptual skills and individualism among United Arab Emirates leaders. These quantitative results confirm previous research. The quantitative results are consistent with the results of Chung (2017), who maintains that individualistic cultures prioritised individual skills and achievements over group skills and accomplishments.

The present study found a statistically significant small positive linear correlation between putting the team first and power distance among United Kingdom leaders. These quantitative results confirm previous research, because they are consistent with the results of Monlar (2007), who notes that high power distance cultures tended to prioritise hierarchy and authority over team-based decision making. Similarly, the study found a statistically significant moderate negative linear correlation between putting the team first and masculinity among Indian leaders. These quantitative results confirm previous research, because they are consistent with the findings of Liden et al. (2014), who argues that cultures with high levels of masculinity tended to prioritise individual achievements over team-based achievements. Overall, this study's quantitative results contribute to the knowledge of servant leadership by providing further evidence of the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics across different regions. These quantitative results can be helpful for servant leaders who operate in multicultural contexts and need to adapt their leadership style to fit the cultural context of their team.

7.6.1 Line Manager and Employee Nationalities Do Not Impact Servant Leadership and Cross-Cultural Characteristics

The present study found no significant difference in how employees rated their manager depending on their nationalities. These quantitative results are not consistent with the previous literature that found a significant relationship between the interaction of managers' and employees' ethnic identities (Fan & Harzing, 2017). This difference may be due to study methodology, sample size, or cultural context variations. The study by Wong et al. (2017) is consistent with Fan and Harzing's (2017) findings in that it also found a significant relationship between the interaction of managers and employees' ethnic identity. Similarly, Wong et al. (2017) also found that the manager's nationality affected the employee's performance, which differs from the current study's quantitative results.

Overall, the quantitative results provide a unique perspective on the relationship between managers' and employees' ethnic identities and suggest that nationality may not be a significant factor in how employees rate their manager. However, further research is needed to explore the complex interplay between ethnic identity, nationality, and leadership in multicultural contexts.

7.6.2 The Role of the Line Manager Nationality in the Relationship Between Servant Leadership and Cultural Characteristics

In this study, a manager's nationality (that is, the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, and India) did not mediate the relationship between servant leadership and behaving ethically. Individualism was negatively associated with a manager's nationality. However, uncertainty avoidance was positively associated with a manager's nationality. However, prior research was not confirmed by the study's quantitative results because they are inconsistent with the previous literature that found that a manager's nationality significantly affected servant leadership (Contiu, 2020).

7.6.3 The Extent that Line Manager Tenure Impacts Cross-Cultural or Servant Leadership Differences

The quantitative results showed statistically significant differences between line managers' tenure and cultural or leadership scale scores. Specifically, for the United Kingdom group, there is a significant medium positive correlation between tenure and community values. For Indian participants, there is a medium positive significant correlation between tenure and uncertainty avoidance. Most qualitative findings also showed differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure. Aggregated data for this qualitative theme yielded three subthemes: (1) differences, (2) no differences, and (3) strong organisational culture. For Sub-theme 1 of Theme 2, based on 15 participants' thoughts, there were differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure.

The present study found statistically significant differences between line managers' tenure and cultural or leadership scale scores. These quantitative results confirm previous research that suggests a significant relationship exists between time living and working in a different culture and the characteristics of national culture, as noted by Franklin (2017). However, the current study uniquely contributes to the field by examining the differences between line managers' tenure and cultural or leadership scale scores.

The study by Ansah and Louw (2019) is consistent with the findings, because it also found a significant relationship between national and organisational culture characteristics. In particular, Ansah and Louw (2019) found that high uncertainty avoidance and high-power distance cultures significantly and positively affected organisational culture. Similarly, the study by Fietz et al. (2021) is also consistent with the findings, because it found that power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and indulgence significantly affected an organisation's resilience. The present study suggests cultural characteristics were essential in shaping organisational outcomes and performance. Overall, the findings provide further evidence of the complex relationship between cultural characteristics and leadership and suggest that tenure may be an essential factor to consider when examining this relationship. These findings have important implications for organisations that operate in multicultural contexts and highlight the importance of understanding and adapting to different cultural characteristics.

7.6.4 The Influence of Line Manager Seniority on Cross-Cultural and Servant Leadership Differences

The quantitative results showed statistically significant differences between line managers' grade seniority and cultural or leadership scale scores. Specifically, there was an overall significant result for power distance. Most qualitative findings also showed differences in

leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority. Aggregated data for this qualitative theme yielded two subthemes: (1) differences and (2) no differences.

The current study found differences between line managers' grade seniority and cultural or leadership scale scores, specifically for power distance. These findings suggest that seniority may be necessary for shaping leadership approaches and cultural characteristics. The findings of this study do not confirm previous literature that observes no differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority, as reported by Trapero et al. (2017). Therefore, the study's findings cannot confirm knowledge in the field. Similarly, the findings of Palta (2019) differ from the current study, because they found no significant difference in perceived servant leadership based on grade seniority. These findings suggest that the relationship between seniority and leadership may vary depending on the specific cultural or leadership dimensions. Overall, the findings of this study highlight the complex and nuanced relationship between seniority and leadership and suggest that the impact of seniority may vary depending on the specific cultural or leadership dimensions. These findings have important implications for organisations and indicate the importance of understanding the role of seniority in shaping leadership approaches and cultural characteristics.

7.7 Instruments

In this study, Liden et al.'s (2008) Servant Leadership Scale was used to measure servant leadership. The Servant Leadership Scale is appropriate for measuring servant leadership. The reliability of the Servant Leadership Scale was tested, as it has been in past studies; for example, Schwarz et al. (2016) identified the mediating effect(s) of public service motivation also using the Servant Leadership Scale.. In this study, Hofstede VSM 94 was used to measure national cultural characteristics. Hofstede's VSM 94 is most suitable for

measuring national cultural characteristics. Teresa and Roodt (2013) employed Hofstede's VSM 94, validating its 20 items by conducting anti-image inter-correlations on their scores. The authors eliminated items that did not meet the required measures of sampling adequacy. The remaining eight items underwent both factor analysis and anti-image intercorrelation.

7.8 Future Research Agenda

This academic enquiry employed a cross-sectional research design to investigate the relationship between each dimension of servant leadership and cultural characteristics dimensions among United Arab Emirates leaders in a UAE-based multinational organisation. The study suggests that in future research a longitudinal research design is encouraged to assess the impact of cultural characteristics on each dimension of servant leadership.

Furthermore, the study focused solely on Emirati leaders, prompting the need for future investigations to include leaders of other nationalities as well. Additionally, the research did not examine the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction or corporate culture, which future studies are recommended to address.

The study had limitations regarding sample size and the lack of control for covariates, such as line managers' age and gender, which future researchers are advised to address. It is crucial for researchers to disclose their demographic information to enhance the study's credibility. The findings might be influenced by history threat, regression threat, and selection.

7.9 Concluding Remarks

The present study contributes to knowledge by filling the gap in the literature on servant leadership and exploring the relationship between servant leadership and cultural

characteristics and employees' perceptions related to the difference in the level of servant leadership across three different cultures (that is, the United Arab Emirates or Emirati, the United Kingdom, and India) and the differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure and seniority in a UAE-based multinational organisation. The present study contributes to knowledge by adding to our understanding of servant leadership and leadership theory and highlighting the impact of organisational culture relative to national culture on leadership approaches. Additionally, the study contributes to knowledge by providing insights enhancing the method of multinational team leadership and contributing to practice and informing Emirati, United Kingdom, and Indian leaders about the relationship between servant leadership and cultural characteristics.

Furthermore, the study contributes to knowledge by highlighting the importance of understanding the impact of organisational culture on leadership approaches relative to national culture. These findings contribute to knowledge by a better understanding of how corporate culture can shape and influence leadership practices, particularly in multinational organisations. In doing so, the study offers insights that could inform the development of effective cross-cultural leadership training programs and courses. This study adds to our understanding of servant leadership theory, culture, and leadership by exploring cross-national differences in servant leadership and identifying the impact of organisational culture on leadership approaches. The present study's findings have practical implications for multinational organisations seeking to improve their leadership effectiveness and provide valuable insights to enhance multinational team leadership.

The present study's mixed-methods approach and focus on a single multinational organisation uniquely contribute to the literature. Using quantitative and qualitative methodologies to explore cross-national differences among Emirati, United Kingdom, and

Indian samples, this study provides empirical evidence of the impact of cultural characteristics on servant leadership levels. The present study's findings extend the existing literature on servant leadership and have practical implications for multinational organisations seeking to improve their leadership effectiveness.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 – Participant Information Sheet



PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET

Analysing the Prevalence of Servant Leadership characteristics and cultural values in a Dubai based Multi-National and Multi-cultural workforce.

You are invited to participate in the research project described below.

What is the project about?

Researchers have identified the importance of leadership in organizations. One style is Servant Leadership, a leadership philosophy in which the main goal of the leader is to serve their teams to enable success. A Servant Leader is a power sharer who puts the needs of their team members first and develops their team.

Moreover, previous studies reported that the application of leadership behaviours and style may have a basis in an individual's culture.

The study is intended to better understand the role that an individual's culture may play in their leadership style, with particular focus on the aspects of Servant Leadership.

This project is intended to identify how the underlying relationship between Servant Leadership and cultural characteristics could be an important first step in supporting culturally diverse organisations that wish to successfully implement Servant Leadership practices.

This study will be significant to the field of leadership development, as it will add to growing literature about Servant Leadership, with a focus on culturally diverse environments. Further, the insights of this study, shared through the thesis and possibly subsequent articles, may help organizations to promote Servant Leadership to their culturally diverse leaders.

Who is undertaking the project?

This project is being conducted by myself, Rich Atkinson, PhD Candidate, and will form the basis for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) at The University of Notre Dame Australia, Sydney, under the supervision of Dr Sagar Athota and Annette Watkins at the University of Notre Dame and Professor Mario Fernando at the University of Wollongong.

What will I be asked to do?

You are asked to participate in a one-to-one interview on Zoom or Teams, consisting of approximately 15 questions, aimed at exploring your approach as a people leader in the workplace, and potentially that of your direct manager.

The interview will take approximately 30-45 minutes and will be recorded (to be accurately transcribed). Recordings will be deleted after the transcription is finalized. Interviews will be held at a time of your convenience.

The researcher will provide you with an opportunity to request a copy of the transcript to review, and potentially amend, as needed. Your reviewed and potentially amended transcript must be returned to within two weeks from its receipt. If the transcript is not edited or returned it will be considered accurate for the purposes of the research project.

What are the risks and benefits associated with participating?

Your participation in the research project will contribute to identifying how the underlying relationship between Servant Leadership and cultural characteristics could assist in the successful implementation of this leadership style into culturally diverse organizations.

The risk of personal identification through research project is carefully managed as no personal details will be included in the thesis or other documents created from this study.

A summary report outlining the key findings will be made available on request to you free of cost. No participants, other individuals or organisation's name will be identified in the reporting and analysis of this research. Pseudonyms, such as '...a manager added...' or '...an employee stated ...', etc. will be used when interview extracts are used in the research.

What if I change my mind?

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. Even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw from further participation at any time without giving a reason and with no negative consequences. You are also free to ask for any information which identifies you to be withdrawn from the study. Deidentified data will not be possible to remove from the study.

How will you keep my information private and confidential?

Information gathered about you will be held in strict confidence and will not be released by the researcher to a third party unless required to do so by law.

As researcher on the project, I will have access to the data collected. The data will be stored securely using the university's OneDrive and password protected access. Only the researcher and supervisors will have access to this information during the project.

Once the study is completed, the data collected from you will be de-identified and stored securely as per university policy for research data management. The data will not be made available for further research. The results of the study will be published as a thesis.

Will I be able to find out the results of the project?

Once we have analysed the information from this study, we will make available a summary of our findings. You can expect to receive this feedback by or before the end May 2024.

Who do I contact if I have questions about the project?

If you have any questions about this project, please feel free to contact please contact me via email at [REDACTED] or my supervisor at [REDACTED]. We will be happy to discuss with you any concerns you may have about the study.

What if I have a concern or complaint?

The study has been approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee at The University of Notre Dame Australia (approval number XXXX). If you have a concern or complaint regarding the ethical conduct of this research project and would like to speak to an independent person, please contact Notre Dame's Research Ethics Officer at (+61 8) 9433 0943 or research.ethics@nd.edu.au. Any complaint or concern will be treated in confidence and fully investigated. You will be informed of the outcome.

How do I sign up to participate?

If you are happy to participate, please sign a copy of the consent form, keep the hard copy for yourself and email a scanned copy to: [REDACTED]

Thank you for your time. This sheet is for you to keep.

Yours sincerely,

Rich Atkinson

PhD Candidate and Co-Investigator
The University of Notre Dame

Appendix 2 – Consent Forms

Consent Form for Research Survey:



Leadership & Culture Questionnaire

Consent Form - Anonymous Research Study

Analyzing the Prevalence of Servant Leadership Characteristics and Cultural Values in Dubai's Multi-National and Multi-Cultural Workforce

- I agree to take part in this research project.
- I have read the Information Sheet provided and been given a full explanation of the purpose of this study, the procedures involved and of what is expected of me.
- I understand that I will be asked to complete a fifteen minute online survey
- The researcher has answered all my questions and has explained possible problems that may arise as a result of my participation in this study.
- I understand that I may withdraw from participating in the project at any time without prejudice.
- I understand that all information provided by me is treated as confidential and will not be released by the researcher to a third party unless required to do so by law.
- I agree that any research data gathered for the study may be published provided my name or other identifying information is not disclosed.

* 1. Do you agree? 0

- I agree
- I do not agree

Consent Form for Interview for the Research Project:

Analyzing the Prevalence of Servant Leadership characteristics and cultural values in a UAE-based Multinational and Multi-cultural workforce.

I agree to take part in this research project.

I have read the Information Sheet provided and been given a full explanation of the purpose of this research project and what is involved.

I understand that I will be interviewed for approximately 30-45 minutes, and that the interview will be audio- / video-recorded using Zoom or Teams.

I understand that the interview will consist of approximately 15 questions, aimed at exploring mindset patterns and related behaviours used as a people leader in the workplace.

I understand that during the interview, the researcher will observe and note my responses to each question, paying attention to how I use language to explain my experience of leading and being led, including how I undertake tasks.

I understand that anonymous excerpts from the interview may be included in other aspects of the same study as identified in the Information Statement which I have retained.

I understand that I will have an opportunity to review, and potentially amend an interview transcript for which I provide below my email address, for the communication and return of the reviewed and potentially amended transcript (2) two weeks from its receipt.

The researcher has answered all my questions and has explained possible risks that may arise as a result of the interview and how these risks will be managed.

I understand that I do not have to answer specific questions if do not want to and may withdraw from participating in the project at any time without prejudice.

I understand that all information is treated as confidential and will not be released by the researcher to a third party unless required to do so by law.

I agree that any research data gathered for the study may be published provided my name or other identifying information is not disclosed.

I understand that research data gathered may be used for future research, but my name and other identifying information will be removed.

Name of participant			
Signature of participant		Date	

I confirm that I have provided the Information Sheet concerning this research project to the above participant, explained what participating involves and have answered all questions asked of me.

Signature of Researcher		Date	
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Please provide your email contact details below:

Email Contact: _____

Appendix 3 – Participant Questionnaire (Quantitative)

Agreement for Participation and Questionnaire

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. Through the completion of this questionnaire, you are confirming that you have read and signed the informed consent sheet, which provides information regarding the study. This questionnaire should take no more than 10–20 minutes of your time. This questionnaire contains three parts. The first part collects demographic information, whereas the second is the questionnaire itself. The second and third parts are adapted from an existing questionnaire typically used to measure servant leadership and Hofstede’s five cultural dimensions (Hofstede 1993)

Part 1: Demographic Data

Instructions: Please chose one.

Gender	Male	Female	
Age Range	18–24	24–34	35–44
	45–54	55–64	65+
Nationality (Region)	Middle East	West Europe	Oceania
	Subcontinent	East Europe	Scandinavia
	Africa	Americas	Other
Nationality (Country – free form)			
Education (highest diploma achieved)	High school	Technical	Undergrad
	Graduate	Other	
Marital Status	Single	Married	Partnered
	Divorced	Widowed	Separated
Employment Time (with company)	0–6 months	6–12 months	1–2 years
	2–3 years	3–5 years	5–10 years
	10–15 years	15–20 years	20+ years

Dimensions *	Part 2: Servant Leadership Directions: Please note whether you strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), slightly disagree (3), slightly agree (4), agree (5), or strongly agree (6) either in relation to yourself (if a manager) or towards your manager (if a subordinate).	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5	6
Emotional Healing	Others would seek help from them if they had a personal problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They care about others' personal wellbeing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They take time to talk to others on a personal level.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They can recognise when others are feeling down without asking them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Community Value	They emphasise the importance of giving back to the community.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They are always interested in helping people in the community.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They are involved in community activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They encourage others to volunteer in the community.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Conceptual Skills	They can tell if something work related is going wrong.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They are able to think through complex problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They have a thorough understanding of the organisation and its goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They can solve work problems with new or creative ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Empowering	They give others the responsibility to make important decisions about their own jobs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They encourage others to handle important work decisions on their own.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They give others the freedom to handle difficult situations in the way they feel is best.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	If others need to make important decisions at work, they do not need to consult them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Helping Subordinates Grow and Succeed	They make others' career development a priority.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They are interested in making sure others reach their career goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They provide others with work experiences that enable them to develop new skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They want to know about others' career goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Putting Subordinates First	They care more about others' success than their own.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They put others' best interests above their own.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They sacrifice their own interests to meet others' needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They do what they can to make others' jobs easier.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Behaving Ethically	They hold high ethical standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They are always honest.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They would not compromise ethical principles in order to meet success.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	They value honesty more than profits.	1	2	3	4	5	6

* Dimensions were not visible to participants

#	Part 3: Cultural Characteristics	1	2	3	4	5
Please think of an ideal job, disregarding your present job, if you have one. In choosing an ideal job, how important would it be to you to...						
1	have sufficient time for your personal or family life	Of Utmost Importance (1)	Very Important (2)	Of Moderate Importance (3)	Of Little Importance (4)	Of Very Little or No Importance (5)
2	have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)	Of Utmost Importance (1)	Very Important (2)	Of Moderate Importance (3)	Of Little Importance (4)	Of Very Little or No Importance (5)
3	have a good working relationship with your direct superior	Of Utmost Importance (1)	Very Important (2)	Of Moderate Importance (3)	Of Little Importance (4)	Of Very Little or No Importance (5)

4	have security of employment	Of Utmost Importance (1)	Very Important (2)	Of Moderate Importance (3)	Of Little Importance (4)	Of Very Little or No Importance (5)
5	work with people who cooperate well with one another	Of Utmost Importance (1)	Very Important (2)	Of Moderate Importance (3)	Of Little Importance (4)	Of Very Little or No Importance (5)
6	be consulted by your direct superior in his/her decisions	Of Utmost Importance (1)	Very Important (2)	Of Moderate Importance (3)	Of Little Importance (4)	Of Very Little or No Importance (5)
7	have an opportunity for advancement to higher level jobs	Of Utmost Importance (1)	Very Important (2)	Of Moderate Importance (3)	Of Little Importance (4)	Of Very Little or No Importance (5)
8	have an element of variety and adventure in the job	Of Utmost Importance (1)	Very Important (2)	Of Moderate Importance (3)	Of Little Importance (4)	Of Very Little or No Importance (5)
In your private life, how important is each of the following to you?						
9	Personal steadiness and stability	Of Utmost Importance (1)	Very Important (2)	Of Moderate Importance (3)	Of Little Importance (4)	Of Very Little or No Importance (5)
10	Thrift	Of Utmost Importance (1)	Very Important (2)	Of Moderate Importance (3)	Of Little Importance (4)	Of Very Little or No Importance (5)
11	Persistence (perseverance)	Of Utmost Importance (1)	Very Important (2)	Of Moderate Importance (3)	Of Little Importance (4)	Of Very Little or No Importance (5)
12	Respect for tradition	Of Utmost Importance (1)	Very Important (2)	Of Moderate Importance (3)	Of Little Importance (4)	Of Very Little or No Importance (5)
13	How often do you feel nervous or tense at work?	Never (1)	Seldom (2)	Sometimes (3)	Usually (4)	Always (5)
14	How frequently, in your experience, are subordinates afraid to express disagreement with their superiors?	Very Seldom (1)	Seldom (2)	Sometimes (3)	Frequently (3)	Very Frequently (3)
To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements?						
15	Most people can be trusted	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Undecided (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly Disagree (5)
16	One can be a good manager without having precise answers to most questions that subordinates may raise about their work	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Undecided (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly Disagree (5)
17	An organization structure in which certain subordinates have two bosses should be avoided at all costs	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Undecided (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly Disagree (5)
18	Competition between employees usually does more harm than good	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Undecided (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly Disagree (5)
19	A company's or organization's rules should not be broken, not even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interest	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Undecided (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly Disagree (5)
20	When people have failed in life it is often their own fault	Strongly Agree (1)	Agree (2)	Undecided (3)	Disagree (4)	Strongly Disagree (5)

* Dimensions were not visible to participants

Dimension	Questions	Calculation
Power Distance (PDI)	3, 6, 14, 17	$PDI = -35(03) + 35(06) + 25(14) - 20m(17) - 20$
Individualism Index (IDV)	1, 2, 4, 8	$IDV = -50m(01) + 30m(02) + 20m(04) - 25m(08) + 130$
Masculinity Index (MAS)	5, 7, 15, 20	$MAS = -60m(05) - 20m(07) + 20m(15) - 70m(20) + 100$
Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI)	13, 16, 18, 19	$UAI = -25m(13) + 20m(16) - 50m(18) - 15m(19) + 120$
Long Term Orientation Index (LTO)	10, 12,	$LTO = -10m(10) + 20m(12) + 40$

Appendix 4 – Semi-Structured Interview Question Set (Qualitative)

Analysing the Prevalence of Servant Leadership Characteristics and Cultural Values in a UAE-based Multinational and Multicultural workforce.

Intro questions

1. What is your nationality? Confirm
2. Tell me about your cultural background.
3. What level of leadership do you hold in your organization? confirm
4. What is your tenure?
5. What nationality is your manager?

Interview Questions

Core (all interviews)

Q1. How do you describe your leadership style?

What do you think your team value most in your leadership approach?

What do you think your team values least in your leadership approach?

Q2. How do you describe your manager's leadership style?

Q3. Based on your experience with Emirati, Indian, and UK leaders, what differences in leadership traits would you expect to see with each?

Q4. Do you see any differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's tenure?

Q5. Do you see any differences in leadership approaches relative to a leader's seniority?

Extension questions (EQ) used in some interviews:

EQ1. How do your nationality and cultural upbringing affect how you lead?

EQ2. What do you value most in your current manager's leadership approach? What do you value least?

EQ3. How do you think your current manager's nationality and cultural upbringing affect how they lead?

EQ4. Please describe your familiarity with servant leadership.

EQ5. Please describe the practices of servant leaders.