Serving followers or family?

A dyadic trickle-down model of how servant leadership shapes in-role performance

**TITLE PAGE**

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Abstract

Studies have identified prosocial motives and behaviors (i.e., prosociality) as drivers of organizational effectiveness. However, so far little research attention has been given to how leaders help spread prosociality in organizations to increase the effectiveness of its members. In this study, we integrate prosociality models with role motivation theory and examine the extent to which managerial servant leadership trickles down across hierarchical levels of an organization (i.e., managers, supervisors, and employees) to facilitate employee in-role performance. As part of our trickle-down model, we consider the role of boundary conditions and underlying mechanisms related to the prosociality of supervisors (i.e., servant leader behaviors and family motivation) and employees (i.e., prosocial motivation). Using a matched sample of employees and their supervisors from three companies in the Dominican Republic, multilevel structural equation modeling results show that manager’s servant leadership trickles down to inspire supervisor’s servant leader behaviors, which in turn increase employee’s prosocial motivation and subsequent in-role performance. Furthermore, supervisor’s family motivation buffered the trickle-down mechanism in that the effect on employee in-role performance is weaker for supervisors with high levels of family motivation. Our research breaks new ground by shedding light on bright and dark sides of leader prosociality for employee in-role performance.

Keywords: Servant leadership, family motivation, prosocial motivation, in-role performance, trickle-down model
Introduction

Research on the positive effects of prosociality at work (i.e., prosocial motives and behaviors; Bolino & Grant, 2016) stretches back over 30 years. By and large, researchers found that acting on prosocial motives and displaying prosocial behaviors at work comes with a number of benefits (e.g., greater customer satisfaction and better employee performance appraisals, Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Nevertheless, despite considerable research efforts, questions remain with regards to what motivates prosociality in organizations (Bolino & Grant, 2016), and how this promotes the effectiveness of its members. Although leaders have been identified as having the most robust influence on the prosociality of employees (Grant & Gino, 2010; Grant, 2012; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000), prior research has primarily focused on the role of the immediate supervisor, neglecting the potential influence of higher level managerial leadership. As managers are said to “set the tone at the top” (Barney, 2005; Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, & Salvador, 2009), they could plausibly either directly influence employee behavior, or indirectly, through their influence on mid level supervisors. We aim to examine whether managerial servant leadership, a typical example of prosocial leader behavior (e.g., Bolino & Grant, 2016; Liden, Panaccio, Meuser, Hu, & Wayne, 2014), shapes prosocial motives and behaviors (i.e., prosociality) across hierarchical organizational levels (i.e., differentiating between managerial, supervisory, and employee levels), thus triggering a trickle-down process to facilitate employee in-role performance.

We aim to examine the conditions under which leaders spread prosociality in organizations. We know that leaders’ prosocial motives impact employees’ behaviors (e.g., Bolino & Grant, 2016). For example, previous research demonstrated that a leader’s prosocial motives are related to their employees’ psychological safety (Frazier & Tupper, 2018) and organizational commitment (Shao, Cardona, Ng, & Trau, 2017). However, despite the
prevailing belief in the “bright side” of prosociality at work, we also know that acting on prosocial motives can derive into negative consequences for good citizens both at work and at home (e.g., citizenship fatigue and work-family conflict; Bolino, Harvey, & Lepine, 2015; Bolino & Turnley, 2005; Halbesleben, Harvey, & Bolino, 2009). In the context of servant leadership, a family motivation (i.e., a desire to expend effort to benefit one’s family; Menges, Tussing, Wihler, & Grant, 2017) might have this type of double-edge sword effects. On the one hand, family motivation has been shown to energize individuals to work harder (Menges et al., 2017). A leader who works with the desire to benefit his own family, is likely to experiences the benefits and hardships of caring for others. Thus, he or she is likely to be better equipped to serve those who work with him. Building on this line of thought Las Heras, Van der Heijden, de Jong & and Rofcanin (2017) show that leaders who have had caring responsibilities for elders, are more likely to grant idiosyncratic deals to their employees.

However, since a core characteristic of servant leadership is to go beyond one’s self interest to serve collaborators, this might collide with such leader’s family needs or interest. Thus, it is not evident whether servant leadership and family motivation can reinforce or else cancel each other. We think that it is however of the upmost interest to understand which is the case.

Our investigation makes two notable contributions to the literatures on prosociality in organizations as well as servant leadership. First, by examining a dyadic trickle-down mechanism, we integrate prior approaches to the study of servant leadership and elucidate how both managerial and supervisory servant leadership can significantly relate to employee in-role performance. Researchers have already theorized and studied the extent to which servant leadership influences employee performance. ., Liden, Wayne, et al., 2014; Peterson
et al., 2012 argue that higher level managerial servant leadership have the strongest influence on employee performance. Chiniara & Bentein, 2015, 2018; Hu & Liden, 2011 argue that mid-level supervisor’s servant leader behaviors influence employee performance (e.g.,). We take a balanced perspective that, to certain extent, reconciles both views, and examine the effects of both managerial and supervisory servant leadership on employee in-role performance as part of a trickle-down effect. Moreover, we not only test whether dyadic servant leader influence trickles down but also offer a description of the nature of trickle-down linkages across hierarchical organizational levels – some of which involve role modeling (i.e., the manager to supervisor link), others motivational processes (i.e., the supervisor to employee link).

Second, we contribute to the growing literature on the effects of leaders’ prosocial motives on employees (e.g., Frazier & Tupper, 2018; Shao, Cardona, Ng, & Trau, 2017) by introducing a leader’s family motivation as a relevant contingency factor for when servant leader behaviors trickle down in organizations. By examining two constructs that have been lauded for their positive work-related consequences (Liden, Wayne, et al., 2014; Menges et al., 2017), we examine the effects of supervisors’ willingness to serve collaborators and family concurrently.

In exploring the concurrency of a motivation to serve family and to serve collaborators, we focus on a potential not-so bright side of family motivation. We aim to share some light to recent debates (Bergeron, 2007; Bolino & Grant, 2016) and empirical research (e.g., Lin, Ilies, Pluut, & Pan, 2017) on how a ‘concern for others’ (by that family or collaborators) may come at a cost.

In what follows, we provide a conceptualization of servant leadership as a form of prosocial leader behavior, and present a rationale for the study hypotheses.

**Conceptualizing servant leadership as a form of prosocial leader behavior**
Servant leadership, as conceptualized by Liden and colleagues’ (2014), consists of the following seven dimensions: emotional healing (i.e., being sensitive to the personal setbacks of followers); creating value for the community (i.e., encouraging followers to volunteer and help their local communities); conceptual skills (e.g., problem-solving abilities to be able to help followers); empowering followers; helping subordinates grow and succeed; putting subordinates first; and, finally, behaving ethically. The definitional core that relates to most dimension of servant leadership can be described as going beyond one’s own self-interest to support and develop followers (Greenleaf, 1977; van Dierendonck, 2011). This may be why, according to several scholars (e.g., Bolino & Grant, 2016; Liden, Panaccio, et al., 2014), servant leadership reflects typical prosocial leader behavior. Specifically, according to Bolino and Grant’s (2016) key dimensions of what constitutes prosocial behavior (i.e., genesis, target, goal, and resource), servant leadership can be classified as a proactive prosocial leader behavior (i.e., servant leaders proactively seek out opportunities to support followers; van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011), predominantly targeted at individuals (i.e., as part of dyadic leader-follower relationships; Greenleaf, 1977; van Dierendonck, 2011), pursuing affiliative goals (e.g., supporting and developing followers; Liden, Panaccio, et al., 2014) and requiring personal and informational resources (i.e., an investment of time, effort, and skills to serve followers; van Dierendonck, 2011). That is, prosocial behaviors in a leader might have any objective destination, such as clients, providers, society at large, specific groups that are at risk of exclusion, etc. However, servant leaders display prosocial behaviors that specifically seek to benefit their collaborators.

A dyadic trickle-down model of servant leadership and in-role performance

The premise of trickle-down models is that the experience of one individual in an organization (usually a leader) affects how he relates with other individuals (usually followers). Models on prosociality at work (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Grant, 2007) suggest that
the display of prosocial leader behavior such as servant leadership plays a key role in the development of prosocial motives and behaviors of followers. Similarly, the notion that servant leaders turn followers into servants themselves is widely regarded as one of the most important consequences of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1977; van Dierendonck, 2011). In line with these theoretical accounts, several researchers have suggested that servant leadership leads to followers not only becoming servants but also servant leaders (Chiniara & Bentein, 2018; Liden et al., 2008), implying a trickle-down mechanism at the heart of the servant leadership literature. Extending this discussion to include various hierarchical organizational levels (i.e., higher level managers, mid level supervisors, and lower level employees), we explore how a dyadic trickle-down mechanism initiated by managerial servant leadership could affect both supervisors and employees.

For mid level supervisors, we argue that role modeling higher level managers makes them more likely to adopt servant leader behaviors with regards to their own lower level employees (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Leaders provide an ideal or point of reference for followers to emulate and learn from (Shamir et al., 1993; Wood & Bandura, 1989). Leaders act as exemplary representatives of the organization since they are entrusted with making decisions to meet the strategy of the organization, to develop, reward, punish and deploy employees. For this reason, their followers are likely to mimic them. Moreover, followers are likely to perceive their leaders as legitimate representatives of the organization (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), and thus infer that they are expected to act in a similar fashion. All these may be particularly relevant in the case of servant leadership as a leadership style that emphasizes the selfless notion of putting followers first as well as empowering them to succeed (Liden et al., 2008; van Dierendonck, 2011). Mid level supervisors are likely to mimic the encouraging and considerate leadership practices of their higher level managers to the end of adapting their own leadership style (Shamir et al., 1993;
Wood & Bandura, 1989), thus displaying servant leader behaviors to their respective lower level employees as well.

Our argumentation concerning servant leaders as cascading from the top is in line with theory on prosociality at work (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) that views role modeling as a key mechanism determining the spread of prosocial behaviors in organizations. Based on the above reasoning, we hypothesize:

**H1: Manager’s servant leadership is positively related to servant leader behaviors of supervisors.**

For lower level employees, we suggest that the exposure to mid level supervisor’s servant leadership enhances their prosocial motivation because servant leader behavior encourages a concern for oneself and others (van Dierendonck, 2011), which is inherently linked to prosocial motivation (De Dreu, Nijstad, & van Knippenberg, 2008; Grant, 2008a). Although prosocial motivation has been defined as a desire to benefit others (Grant, 2008a), various scholars have argued that it more broadly represents a “concern for collective welfare and joint success” (De Dreu, Nijstad, & van Knippenberg, 2008, p.24), which we recognize as a less self-sacrificial conceptualization. Thus, prosocial motivation is likely to drive both a concern for oneself and others (De Dreu, 2006). We argue that for lower level employees, being exposed to servant leadership should motivate them to perform better (Peterson et al., 2012). Indeed, many general definitions of leadership imply that motivating followers to contribute to the effectiveness and success of their organization represents one of a leader’s main duties (e.g., House & Javidan, 2004).

We suggest that mid level supervisor’s servant leadership primarily enhances employee’s prosocial motivation because the consequences of certain servant leader behaviors (e.g., helping subordinates grow and succeed or behaving ethically; Liden et al., 2008; van Dierendonck, 2011) mirror the dual nature of prosocial motivation (i.e., a drive to
benefit oneself and others; De Dreu et al., 2008; De Dreu, 2006). Prosocial motivation as a state is susceptible to change as a consequence of environmental influences such as leadership (Grant, 2007, 2012). It follows that certain servant leader behaviors should facilitate prosocial motives because such behaviors reinforce values and norms that are in line with greater prosocial impact (van Dierendonck, 2011). More specifically, when servant leaders help subordinates grow and succeed or put subordinates first, they should enable employees to build their own career paths, allowing them to gather conceptual skills and practical experience in the process. What is more, other servant leader behaviors such as empowering and behaving ethically are likely to motivate employees to make their own decisions at work while emphasizing the importance of interacting openly, fairly, and honestly with others. By displaying servant leadership, mid level supervisors should thus create normative expectations for employees on how to successfully perform their work tasks (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) – to their own benefit and to the benefit of others around them. In support of this notion, Liden et al. (2014) suggested that servant leaders in particular build their follower’s prosocial identity, which influences their work motivation. Similarly, past research demonstrated that leaders can increase the perceived prosocial impact of their followers (Grant, 2012). We therefore hypothesize:

\[ H2: \text{Supervisor’s servant leadership is positively related to employee’s prosocial motivation.} \]

We further suggest that lower level employee’s prosocial motivation augments their in-role performance because such motivation should drive other-focused behaviors that elicit better performance evaluations from supervisors as well as greater cooperation and reciprocity among coworkers (Bolino, 1999; Grant et al., 2009; Hu & Liden, 2015). In-role performance is typically defined as things people do and actions they take, that contribute to organizational goals (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015). As today’s work processes are largely designed to be
interdependent, it is not uncommon that the starting point of one’s work is the end point of another colleagues work and vice versa. Thus, an employee’s motivation to cooperate with and help other colleagues may also facilitate his or her own individual performance levels. More specifically, Bolino (1999) suggested that although employees enact prosocially motivated behaviors because they care about their colleagues, being a “good soldier” might also come with a host of benefits for the provider. For example, it is well know that people have an innate impulse to reciprocate (Gouldner, 1960). Thus, giving to others engender the rational expectation to receive from them as well. Based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), we know that providing support leads to better cooperation with the recipients of such support (i.e. direct reciprocity) (Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2011; Korsgaard, Meglino, Lester, & Jeong, 2010). Giving support might also facilitate work with others who have in the past been the recipients of similar support by a third party (chain-generalized reciprocity), as well as generate support for the future with those who trust the leaders has given similar support to others in the past (fairness-based selective reciprocity) Molm, et al., 2007. As a result, providing support might promote better cooperation and reciprocation of support, which in turn, is likely to increase the speed of problem solving at work because individuals can draw from a multitude of perspectives (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000), as well as reduce one’s workload (Hu & Liden, 2015), ultimately enabling better employee in-role performance.

In support of our argumentation, past research shows that prosocial motivation and related behaviors such as helping or knowledge sharing can promote employee in-role performance levels, by way of more favorable supervisor performance evaluations (Grant et al., 2009; Grant, 2008a; Podsakoff et al., 2009) as well as through greater cooperation with colleagues who are then inclined to return the favor (Hu & Liden, 2015; Shah, Cross, & Levin, 2018).
Taken together, we hypothesize:

\[ H3: \text{Employee’s prosocial motivation is positively related to their in-role performance} \]

Combining Hypotheses 1-3, we advance a trickle-down model of servant leadership and in-role performance across hierarchical levels of an organization (i.e., higher level managers, mid level supervisors, and lower level employees).

Previous research demonstrates that servant leadership does not only positively predict employee’s in-role performance but that it also explains incremental variance over and above similar leadership styles such as leader-member exchange, transformational, or ethical leadership (Hoch, Bommer, Dulebohn, & Wu, 2018; Liden et al., 2008; Peterson et al., 2012). We thus hypothesize:

\[ H4: \text{Supervisor’s servant leadership and employee’s prosocial motivation sequentially mediate the positive relationship between manager’s servant leadership and employee’s in-role performance.} \]

**The moderated mediating role of supervisor’s family motivation**

Recent theory (Bolino & Grant, 2016) and empirical research (e.g., Meuser, Liden, Wayne, & Henderson, 2011) suggests that servant leadership may not always be equally beneficial for all employees. Drawing on the principles of role motivation theory (Miner, 1993), we argue that the beneficial effects of being a servant leader might not be as strong when the leader is highly motivated to serve his family as well.

Role motivation theory (Miner, 1993) states that different job role expectations exist for different positions in an organizational hierarchy (e.g., a mid level supervisor or a lower level employee), and that each job role comes with its own motivational requirements that enable effective performance. Miner (1993) further proposes a fit perspective between role
demands and the job incumbent’s motivation, and suggests that a role-motivation fit as opposed to a misfit ensures adequate in-role performance.

Drawing on Miner’s propositions, we suggest that a supervisor’s family motivation may play a role in how servant leadership is perceived by employees. Family motivation has been defined as a desire to expend effort to benefit one’s family (Menges et al., 2017) and is considered to be a type of prosocial motivation, however, with the caveat that the primary beneficiaries of motivated behavior are one’s own family members, that is, not organizational actors. Although both servant leadership and family motivation represent concepts that are prosocial in nature (Liden, Panaccio, et al., 2014; Menges et al., 2017), that is targeted at other’s, when both motivations are high combination it likely that the effectiveness of servant leadership decreases because leaders might not always prioritize their employees, but often their families. Specifically, when serving collaborators and serving family are incompatible, employees may perceive that a supervisor who is family-motivated prioritizes serving family. For example, it is possible for supervisors to book annual leave during school holidays to be with their families while at the same time an important project could enter its final phase and employees would be in need of support and guidance. Similarly, highly family-motivated supervisors may grant themselves flexible working hours to accommodate their family commitments, making it more challenging to meet employee support needs from alternative working locations. As a result, in situations when supervisors are servant leaders, but also highly motivated to serve family, their servant leadership might be less effective. Indeed, prior research showed that employee’s receptiveness to servant leadership varies (Meuser et al., 2011), and that perceptions of inconsistency in leader behavior can lead to negative employee reactions across organizational hierarchical levels (e.g., Simons, Friedman, Liu, & McLean Parks, 2007). More recently, research demonstrated that displaying helping behaviors at work can come at the cost of neglecting family responsibilities at home (Lin et
al., 2017), providing indirect support for our assertion of a trade-off between work and family responsibilities.

Taken together, we propose that high family motivation represents a misfit with the requirements for the role of a servant leader as such a motivation will prioritize effort expenditure to the benefit of one’s family over one’s employees in situations where work and family interests conflict. Consequently, employees may perceive servant leader behaviors as less reliable, which could weaken the positive effect of supervisory servant leadership on employee’s prosocial motivation. Conversely, we suggest that low family motivation fits with the requirements of the servant leader role. Hence, servant leaders with low family motivation should be less likely to prioritize family matters over work issues and would thus not invite negative employee perceptions of unreliability. As a result, employee’s receptiveness to supervisory servant leadership as well as related levels of prosocial motivation should remain unaffected. With Hypotheses 1-4 in place, we propose a moderated serial mediation model of servant leadership and in-role performance across hierarchical organizational levels (i.e., managers, supervisors, and employees). Specifically, we suggest that manager’s servant leadership positively relates to supervisor displays of servant leader behavior, which in turn increases employee’s prosocial motivation contingent on supervisor levels of family motivation. These effects on prosocial motivation, we suggest, subsequently influence employee in-role performance.

H5: Supervisor’s family motivation moderates the sequential mediation of manager’s servant leadership on employee’s in-role performance via supervisor’s servant leadership and employee’s prosocial motivation, such that the serial mediation effect is weaker for supervisors with high family motivation and stronger for supervisors with low family motivation.

Method
Sample and data collection

We collected data from supervisor-employee dyads from the under-studied context of the Dominican Republic in 2017. As most studies examining the servant leadership-employee in-role performance relation have been conducted in North America (e.g., Liden et al., 2008; Liden et al., 2014; Peterson et al., 2012), examining the influence of servant leadership in other national contexts is particularly important to further elucidate the generalizability of previous study results (Liden et al., 2014). Study participants were full-time employees of three organizations from different industries. Our local partner initially established contact to the three study organizations. As an incentive to participate in this research project, we offered companies an in-depth, company-specific research report. After successfully negotiating access to our study organizations, we determined a sample size that is representative of the different hierarchical levels of the respective companies we drew our respondents from, the various locations from which the respective company operates from in the Dominican Republic, and all different occupations within the company. Considering each of these parameters, we randomly chose supervisors and invited all of his or her direct reports. Because a differentiation between organizational hierarchical levels was important to our study, we ensured that no one would be invited as both supervisor and employee (of a higher-level manager) to avoid noise in our sample.

We used three different online surveys administered in Spanish and back-translated survey items to maintain conceptual equivalence between the original instruments (in

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1 Company 1 is a Dominican Republic organization that operates in the financial services sector, Company 2 is a Dominican Republic subsidiary of a multinational organization headquartered in Europe, operating in the consumer goods sector, and Company 3 is a small Dominican Republic organization that offers post-graduate education. According to the Occupational Information Network’s (O*NET) database (Dye & Silver, 1999), jobs representative of all three companies’ sectors involve either high or very high levels of work interdependence as well as collaboration, suggesting that our proposed prosocial trickle down mechanism could plausibly lead to performance improvements for the dyads sampled as part of this study.

2 Our partner in the Dominican Republic works as a professor at a post-graduate school and helped to secure access to our study organizations.
English) and the Spanish versions (Brislin, 1980). We initially disseminated a survey to lower level employees, with the aim of measuring variables on the employee level (e.g., prosocial motivation). Subsequently, we invited mid-level supervisors to respond to two surveys. The first survey was administered to measure manager and supervisor variables (e.g., managerial servant leadership). The second survey required the same respondents to provide in-role performance ratings for each of their respective lower level employees. All participants received a maximum of two reminders, within two weeks of the original invitation to participate in the research project. We used e-mails as IDs to match the data collected from supervisor and employee surveys.

In total, invited 131 individuals to participate in our study as supervisors and received 84 usable matched responses (64% response rate). We further invited 311 individuals who were reporting directly to the 131 supervisors, to participate in our study as employees. We received 155 usable matched responses (50% response rate). 47 supervisors and 156 employees responses had to be discarded because either one or both members of the respective supervisor – employee dyad did not fill out the questionnaire. The supervisor sample consisted of 43 men and 41 women with mean age of 40.78 years \((SD = 7.78)\) with, on average, 1.75 children \((SD = 1.10)\). The employee sample consisted of 72 men and 83 women with a mean age of 34.55 \((SD = 8.19)\) that, on average, had 1.08 children \((SD = 1.21)\).

**Measures**

Unless otherwise stated, all items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale (from 1= *strongly disagree* to 7= *strongly agree*). Reported Cronbach’s Alpha coefficients in parentheses refer to the respective measurement scale’s reliability in the current study.

**Perceived manager’s servant leadership.** Supervisors rated their perceptions of their manager’s servant leadership using a seven-item servant leadership scale by Liden et al. (2014; \(a = .88\)). A sample item is “My manager makes my career development a priority”.

**Perceived supervisor’s servant leadership.** Employees rated their perceptions of their supervisor’s servant leadership using the same seven-item servant leadership scale by Liden et al. (2014; $\alpha = .88$). A sample item is “My supervisor puts my best interests ahead of his/her own”.

**Employee’s prosocial motivation.** Employees rated their prosocial motivation by completing a four-item scale developed by Grant (2008a; $\alpha = .88$). An introductory question asked, “Why are you motivated to do your work?”. A sample item for prosocial motivation is “Because I want to help others through my work”.

**Supervisor-rated employee in-role performance.** Supervisors rated the in-role performance of their employees using a four-items scale by Williams and Anderson (1991; $\alpha = .94$). A sample item is “He/she meets the formal performance requirements of the job”.

**Supervisor’s family motivation.** Supervisors rated their own levels of family motivation using a five-item scale by Menges et al. (2017; $\alpha = .89$). A sample item is “It is important for me to do good for my family”.

**Control variables.** To avoid spurious relationships, we controlled for employee perceptions of work-family conflict, which could affect employees’ perception of family-motivated supervisor behavior. Specifically, employees with high levels of perceived work-family conflict should benefit the most from servant leadership as they are particularly in need of leader support (Kossek, Pichler, Bodner, & Hammer, 2011). For this reason, these employees are also likely to be more critical of family-motivated supervisor behavior that prioritizes family needs over those of their own. We measured work-family conflict using a three-item scale by Matthews, Kath, and Barnes-Farrell (2010; $\alpha = .80$). An example item is “I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities”. We further controlled for employee levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as those variables have been shown to influence the effect of prosocial motivation on performance outcomes.
(e.g., Grant & Berry, 2011; Grant, 2008a). Taking items from Grant and Berry (2011), we asked employees to respond to the question “Why are you motivated to do your work”, and rate their intrinsic motivation via the item “Because I enjoy the work itself” as well as their extrinsic motivation via the item “Because I need the income”. We used single items to measure intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to minimize tedium and decrease the burden for respondents (see Chua, Morris, & Mor, 2012 or Yang, Simon, Wang, & Zheng, 2016 for a similar approach). Prior research supports the notion of using single items when it is impractical to use multi-item scales due to situational constraints (e.g., Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997). We also controlled for supervisor and employee gender (coded 0 = male, 1 = female), age, and number of children, which may play a part in both developing family motivation from the perspective of the supervisor as well as how family-motivated supervisors may interact with employees (e.g., parenthood may influence one's managerial style; Dahl et al., 2012). Finally, we also controlled for company membership using dummy coding to rule out that study results would be influenced by employee differences in company membership.

Analytical strategy

Because of our nested data structure (i.e., employees at Level 1 were nested within supervisors at Level 2), we tested our hypotheses using multilevel structural equation modeling (MSEM; Preacher, Zyphur, & Zhang, 2010) using MPlus 8, an approach that safeguards against a potential conflation of effects across levels of analysis. This is done by separating the Level 1 - and Level 2 portion of a given Level 1 variable (i.e., termed multilevel effect decomposition). Following recommendations for MSEM, we grand-mean centered predictors and control variables (Preacher et al., 2010). Using MSEM, we fitted two two-level models (i.e., a serial mediation model and a moderated serial mediation model), in which the Level 1 portions of perceived supervisor’s servant leadership, employee prosocial
motivation, employee in-role performance, and employee control variables were modeled at Level 1, whereas the Level 2 portions of the aforementioned variables, as well as perceived manager’s servant leadership, supervisor’s family motivation, and supervisor control variables were modeled at Level 2. Following recommendations by Preacher and colleagues (2010), in Model 1 we tested the individual multilevel mediation paths proposed by Hypotheses 1-3 as well as the multilevel serial mediation model proposed by Hypothesis 4. In Model 2, we tested Hypothesis 5 that implies multilevel moderated serial mediation. To do so, we adopted recommendations by Bauer, Preacher, and Gil (2006) as well as Preacher et al. (2010) and computed an interaction term between the Level 2 portion of perceived supervisor’s servant leadership and supervisor’s family motivation, subsequently adding the interaction term as a predictor of the Level 2 portion of employee’s prosocial motivation on Level 2. Following Bauer et al. (2006), the magnitude of the moderated serial mediation effect was calculated as being conditional on the coefficient for the moderator (i.e., at +/- 1 standard deviations). We tested Hypothesis 4 and 5 by constructing confidence intervals around the product term of the (moderated) serial mediation paths using the Monte Carlo method (Preacher & Selig, 2012). This was done by drawing 20,000 replications from the sampling distribution of the product term (see Koopman, Lanaj, & Scott, 2016 for a similar approach) using a computational tool by Selig and Preacher (2008). The (moderated) serial mediation effect is significant if the Monte Carlo confidence interval does not contain zero (Bauer et al., 2006; Preacher & Selig, 2012).

Results

We initially calculated the ICC(1) for employee in-role performance to ascertain whether the use of multilevel modeling is necessary to analyze our data (Snijders & Bosker, 2012). The ICC(1) was .21, meaning that 21% of the overall variance in employee performance was due to differences between supervisors, thus warranting a multilevel
approach to data analysis (Snijders & Bosker, 2012). Furthermore, we conducted a multilevel confirmatory factor analysis (MCFA) to ensure that our study variables are conceptually distinct. For this purpose, we included variables pertaining to supervisor’s servant leadership, employee prosocial motivation, work-family conflict, and intrinsic as well as extrinsic motivation at Level 1. At Level 2, we included supervisor-rated in-role performance, manager’s servant leadership, and supervisor’s family motivation. Results of various MCFAs indicate that our proposed eight-factor model provided a better fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993; $\chi^2(193) = 360.87, p < .001$, TLI = .91, CFI = .93, SRMR within = .045, SRMR between = .072, RMSEA = .075) than an alternative six-factor model with employee prosocial, intrinsic, and extrinsic motivation loading on a single motivation factor ($\chi^2(202) = 383.68, p < .001$, TLI = .91, CFI = .92, SRMR within = .064, SRMR between = .072, RMSEA = .076) or a two-factor model where all Level 1 and Level 2 variables loaded on a single factor, respectively ($\chi^2(208) = 1583.53, p < .001$, TLI = .31, CFI = .40, SRMR within = .16, SRMR between = .24, RMSEA = .21). Our MCFA results thus demonstrate the distinctive factor structure of our study variables.

**Hypothesis Tests**

Table 1 illustrates means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among study variables.

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Insert Table 1 about here.

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Figure 1 depicts MSEM analysis results. Hypothesis 1 proposed a positive relation between manager’s servant leadership and supervisor’s servant leadership. Our findings supported this hypothesis ($\gamma = 0.27, SE = .10, t = 2.58; p < .05$). Hypothesis 2 predicted a positive association between supervisor’s servant leadership and employee’s prosocial motivation. MSEM results supported this hypothesis as well ($\gamma = 0.16, SE = .05, t = 3.16; p < .01$). Moreover, Hypothesis 3 proposed a positive relationship between employee’s prosocial
motivation and employee’s in-role performance. Our findings lent support to this proposition ($\gamma = 1.31, SE = .31, t = 4.28; p < .001$). Further, Hypothesis 4 proposed a positive relationship between manager’s servant leadership and employee’s in-role performance that is serially mediated by supervisor’s servant leadership and employee’s prosocial motivation. MSEM results provided initial support for such a multilevel serial mediation ($\gamma = 0.06, SE = .03, t = 2.00; p < .05$). In order to test whether the proposed serially mediated relationship is significant, we constructed 95% confidence intervals (CI) around the serial mediation effect using the Monte Carlo method (Selig & Preacher, 2008). Results derived from 20,000 Monte Carlo replications lend support to Hypothesis 4 (95% CI Low = 0.01; CI High = 0.13). We then moved on to test the moderated serial mediation model proposed by Hypothesis 5 by adding supervisor’s family motivation as well as an interaction term between the between-portion of supervisor’s servant leadership and supervisor’s family motivation to a model predicting the between-portion of employee’s prosocial motivation. The interaction term proved to be statistically significant ($\gamma = -0.10, SE = .04, t = -2.51; p < .05$). In line with our expectations, simple slope tests (Preacher, Curran, & Bauer, 2006) revealed a stronger positive relationship between supervisor’s servant leadership and employee’s prosocial motivation for supervisors with low (-1 $SD$ above the mean; $\gamma = 0.87, SE = .30, t = 2.87; p < .01$), as opposed to high (+1 $SD$ below the mean; $\gamma = 0.66, SE = .22, t = 2.98; p < .01$) levels of family motivation. This suggests that supervisor’s family motivation buffers the positive effect of servant leadership on employee’s prosocial motivation. Figure 2 illustrates the interaction effect.

Insert Figure 1 and 2 about here.

Furthermore, MSEM results showed a significant moderated serial mediation effect of family motivation on the relation between manager’s servant leadership and employee’s in-role performance via supervisor’s servant leadership and employee’s prosocial motivation.
with a stronger positive relationship for supervisors with low (-1 SD above the mean; $\gamma = 0.28, SE = .14, t = 1.99; p < .05$), as opposed to high (+1 SD below the mean; $\gamma = 0.21, SE = .10, t = 2.03; p < .05$) levels of family motivation. We further constructed 95% confidence intervals (CI) around the moderated serial mediation effect using the Monte Carlo method (Selig & Preacher, 2008). Results derived from 20,000 Monte Carlo replications showed that multilevel moderated serial mediation was supported for supervisors with high (95% CI Low = 0.02; CI High = 0.51) and low (95% CI Low = 0.01; CI High = 0.53) levels of family motivation. Taken together, Hypothesis 5 was supported\(^3\). Specifically, our results indicate that the relationship between manager’s servant leadership and employee’s in-role performance via supervisor’s servant leadership and employee’s prosocial motivation is stronger for supervisors with low as opposed to high levels of family motivation. Therefore, our findings point to the possibility of a motivational opportunity costs for supervisors with high family motivation, such that their primary motivational drive to provide for their family may buffer the trickle-down effects of managerial servant leadership on employee’s in-role performance.

**Supplemental Analyses**

We conducted additional analyses to examine whether differences in leader gender could affect our study results (see Eagly & Carli, 2003 for a review on the role of gender in the context of leadership). Specifically, in separate models we examined whether a two-way supervisor gender x supervisor’s servant leadership interaction, or alternatively, a three-way supervisor gender x supervisor’s servant leadership x supervisor’s family motivation interaction moderates the trickle-down effect of managerial servant leadership on employee in-role performance via supervisor’s servant leadership and employee prosocial motivation.

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\(^3\) Our results remain substantively unaffected when testing all study hypotheses simultaneously in one model.
MSEM results neither supported a two-way supervisor gender x supervisor’s servant leadership interaction ($\gamma = 0.09$, $SE = .11$, $t = 0.85$; *ns.*), nor a three-way supervisor gender x supervisor’s servant leadership x supervisor’s family motivation ($\gamma = -0.00$, $SE = .07$, $t = -0.01$; *ns.*) as a contingency factor of our proposed trickle-down model.

Furthermore, we re-ran all MSEM analyses without control variables to explore whether they had an effect on the relationship between our study variables (see recommendations by Becker et al., 2016). Excluding control variables did not change the pattern of our results.

**Discussion**

Bolino and Grant (2016) emphasized the lack of empirical studies examining the underlying mechanisms and contingencies of how leadership shapes the spread of prosocial motives and behaviors in organizations. To shed light on these processes, we integrated theory on prosociality at work (e.g., Bolino & Grant, 2016; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986) and role motivation (Miner, 1993) to test a trickle-down model whereby manager’s servant leadership influences supervisor’s prosocial behaviors (i.e., servant leader behaviors) as well as employee’s prosocial motives (i.e., prosocial motivation) and subsequent in-role performance. We further considered the role of a supervisor’s family motivation as a contingency factor of the proposed trickle-down mechanism.

*Theoretical implications*

Our findings extend previous research and theorizing concerning prosociality at work as well as servant leadership. We discuss our theoretical contributions in the following.

**Contributions to the prosociality literature.** From a prosocial motivational angle, our research extends the array of antecedents of prosocial motivation, considering different hierarchical levels within an organization (Grant & Bolino, 2016). Research on the antecedents of prosocial motivation has been largely limited to the job characteristics (e.g.,
task significance), beneficiary contact, and transformational leadership (Grant, 2008b, 2012). However, a defining aspect of prosocial motives is to care for and serve others’ needs (Grant, 2008a); hence our focus on the effects of servant leadership across organizational hierarchical levels not only offers a new perspective but also maps on and complements previous research concerning the emergence of prosocial motivation within dyadic leader-follower relationships.

From a family motivational angle, this is the first research study, to the best of our knowledge, that combines an examination of prosocial and family motivation within dyadic leader-follower relationships, thereby responding to calls to study different types of other-oriented motives and their interrelationships (Bolino & Grant, 2016). Furthermore, in showing that family motivation might hinder more positive results, in our case between supervisor’s servant leadership and employee’s prosocial motivation, our findings respond to calls for research to explore negative consequences of high family motivation (Menges et al., 2017). As previous research has emphasized the positive effects of family motivation for individual performance (Menges et al., 2017), we highlight that one caveat of this finding is that family motivation might be particularly beneficial for jobs where one’s family can be the primary motivational driver of in-role performance, such as family businesses (in which one works with family members or is willing to pass it on to them as inheritance), or jobs that directly involve serving family (such as teacher in a home-schooling situation). However, for jobs where role requirements conflict with the one’s desire to benefit family members (e.g., the role of a servant leader), family motivation may produce sub-optimal performance outcomes.

Furthermore, in supplemental analyses, we explored whether supervisor’s gender influences how servant leadership trickles down in organizations. This is important to examine because previous research provided meta-analytical evidence concerning gender
differences for certain leadership styles (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003). Likewise, because women still tend to face more domestic and household responsibilities than men (e.g., Fritz & van Knippenberg, 2018), it is plausible to expect that women’s family motivation decreased more the beneficial effects of their servant leadership than men’s. We thus tested whether a two-way (supervisor gender x supervisor servant leadership) or three-way (supervisor gender x supervisor servant leadership x supervisor family motivation) interaction influenced our proposed trickle-down mechanism. In both cases, we did not detect a significant interaction effect, suggesting that supervisor’s gender does not influence how servant leadership trickles down in organizations. These findings resonate with a recent meta-analysis that revealed no gender differences in perceived leadership effectiveness across a variety of leadership contexts (Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014).

**Contributions to the servant leadership literature.** Our trickle-down model tests a key prediction of servant leadership theory originally advanced by Greenleaf (1997), that is, that servant leadership turns followers into servants themselves. We depart from previous research that has examined this mechanism indirectly by proposing that servant leaders create an organizational (Hunter et al., 2013; Liden, Wayne, et al., 2014) or group-level (Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010) service climate and instead suggest the utility of a dyadic process perspective. Our study demonstrated that managerial servant leadership influences organizational members across hierarchical levels and that this influence can manifest in different ways – either by inspiring servant leader behaviors of supervisors or by increasing the prosocial motivation of employees. By doing so, we respond to a call to investigate the dyadic processes concerning how servant leaders groom some of their followers to become servants themselves (Liden, Panaccio, et al., 2014).

**Practical Implications**
Our research offers various implications for organizational practice. Our finding that managerial servant leadership trickle down and influences employee’s job performance ought to make managers aware of the importance of displaying servant leadership to supervisors with the aim of creating a ripple effect throughout their organization and boost performance outcomes. Our results also imply that supervisors are important in spreading servant leader behaviors from managers to their own subordinates and thus facilitate positive work-related outcomes. To encourage the trickle-down mechanism between managers and supervisors, we recommend that organizations design and implement training programs to promote servant leadership across all leadership levels (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014). Moreover, organizations should give visibility to those managers who are exemplary in serving their followers and explain how by doing so they create conditions for others to do the same and to benefit the company as a whole, and to promote these behaviors among all organizational members. In addition, supervisors could be paired up with an appropriate managerial role model to encourage knowledge sharing, receive mentoring and learn how servant leadership is effectively displayed.

Another implication of our research relates to the consequences of family motivation for supervisors displaying servant leadership to their lower level employees. We demonstrated that high family motivation does not only diminish the positive effects of supervisory servant leadership, but also buffers the indirect effect of manager’s servant leadership on employee’s in-role performance. Accordingly, organizations should consider introducing work-family balance initiatives especially for direct supervisors with very frequent employee interactions to highlight how to successfully separate work life from family life. Such initiatives could make supervisors aware of the consequences of their family motivated behaviors with respect to their employee’s in-role performance. Thus, work-family balance initiatives may serve to mitigate the conflict between family and work interests that
may ensue for highly family motivated supervisors and could ensure optimal levels of employee in-role performance.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

As with any research, our study comes with limitations that necessitate of future research to be overcome. The first limitation relates to the cross-sectional nature of our study. Although a common design feature of many studies examining servant leadership (e.g., Chiniara & Bentein, 2018; Liden, Wayne, et al., 2014), cross-sectional designs cannot speak to the causal direction underlying a study’s hypotheses. We inferred the causality of our proposed interrelationships from prosociality models (Bolino & Grant, 2016) that suggest a trickle-down of prosocial leader behavior from managers to employees. Future research may employ a longitudinal design with a pre-determined time lag between each variable (e.g., 6 months) to shed light on the causal direction of a servant leadership trickle down effect in organizations⁴. Second, exploring all possible contingencies of servant leader influence on employees was beyond the scope of this study. We specifically focused on the moderating influence of a supervisor’s family motivation on the supervisor’s servant leadership – employee’s prosocial motivation relationship. However, it may also be possible that family motivation could influence how manager’s servant leadership relates to supervisor’s servant leadership. For example, it may be conceivable that highly family motivated managers displaying servant leadership do not represent potent enough role models for supervisors to adopt servant leader behaviors as well. Further research could shed light on the specific circumstances when supervisors adopt their manager’s servant leader behaviors. Relatedly, past research also emphasized the role of employee’s individual differences in response to servant leadership. For example, Donia, Raja, Panaccio, and Wang (2016) showed that

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⁴ To reduce potential same-source bias in the context of our study, we collected data from different sources (e.g., supervisors and employees), separated independent and moderator variables and randomized items as part of the study questionnaires.
followers avid at impression management reap less benefits from servant leadership compared to their colleagues who are less concerned with managing impressions. Thus, depending on various characteristics, different employees may benefit more from servant leadership than others. It follows that our research could be extended by incorporating three or four-way interactions between servant leadership, a leader’s family motivation, as well as employee’s individual difference factors to ascertain whether these variables play a role in promoting or curtailing a trickle-down effect of servant leadership in organizations.

Third, we did not empirically test some of the possible psychological and behavioral mechanisms involved in our trickle-down argumentation whereby managerial servant leadership translates into increased employee in-role performance. Specifically, we did not measure the kinds of behaviors family-motivated supervisors would display when acting in their family’s interest and used their family motivation as a proxy for such behaviors. Future research could explore what kinds of family-related behaviors have the potential to undermine an employee’s receptivity to servant leadership. Similarly, in line with previous trickle down approaches to leadership (e.g., Mayer et al., 2009), we did not measure the proposed transferal mechanism of servant leadership from managers to supervisors by means of role modeling. Finally, based on previous research on the relationship between prosocial motivation and prosocial behaviors (e.g., Bolino & Grant, 2016; Grant et al., 2009; Grant, 2008a), we suggested that employee’s prosocial motivation increases their in-role performance by receiving reciprocal support from colleagues for enacting prosocial behaviors such as helping – a mechanisms that we, however, did not explicitly measure. The above points provide future research directions and an opportunity to extend the trickle-down mechanism we advanced as part of our study.

Conclusion
Despite considerable research efforts highlighting the benefits of prosocial motives and behaviors at work, researchers and practitioners had little insight into how and under which conditions leaders help spread prosociality across hierarchical levels of an organization. Our findings suggest that higher level managerial servant leadership trickles down to influence the in-role performance of lower level employees through their supervisors. This effect is very important because shows that leaders’ behaviors are relevant for organizational outcomes and not only impact their direct collaborators, but act through them, reaching different levels of the hierarchy levels. Furthermore, our results suggest the need for organizations to promote work-life balance initiatives, highlighting the importance of the balance of supervisors to avoid that a conflict between work and family interests adversely affects the performance outcomes of lower level employees.
References


Bolino, M. C., & Grant, A. M. (2016). The bright side of being prosocial at work, and the dark side, too: A review and agenda for research on other-oriented motives, behavior,


Chiniara, M., & Bentein, K. (2018). The servant leadership advantage: When perceiving low differentiation in leader-member relationship quality influences team cohesion, team


Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations among Study Variables

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<td>5. Employee prosocial motivation</td>
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<td>7. Employee extrinsic motivation</td>
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<td>8. Employee in-role performance</td>
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<td>13. Supervisor's family motivation</td>
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Note. *Level 1 N = 155; level 2 N = 84. Level 1 variables were aggregated to provide correlations with level 2 variables.

* p < .05 level (two-tailed).

** p < .01 level (two-tailed).
Figure 1. MSEM model results$^1$. 

a) 

Control variables used in the analysis: 
Employee’s work-family conflict 
Employee’s intrinsic and extrinsic motivation 
Employee’s gender, age, and presence of children 
Employee’s company membership 
Supervisor’s gender, age, and presence of children

Manager’s Servant Leadership → Supervisor’s Servant Leadership → Employee’s Prosocial Motivation → Employee’s In-Role Performance

-0.05 (.07) 

b) 

Control variables used in the analysis: 
Employee’s work-family conflict 
Employee’s intrinsic and extrinsic motivation 
Employee’s gender, age, and presence of children 
Employee’s company membership 
Supervisor’s gender, age, and presence of children

Supervisor’s Family Motivation → Manager’s Servant Leadership → Supervisor’s Servant Leadership → Employee’s Prosocial Motivation → Employee’s In-Role Performance

-0.04 (.07) 

Note.$^1$ Model 1a depicts results of a multilevel serial mediation model, Model 1b illustrates moderated serial mediation results. In both Model 1a and 1b, nonstandardized coefficients are shown with standard errors in parentheses. Level 1 $n = 155$; level 2 $n = 84$. For clarity, control variable paths are not pictured. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$. 

40
Figure 2. The interaction of supervisor’s servant leadership and supervisor’s family motivation on employee’s prosocial motivation.