

# Op \_Instituut!

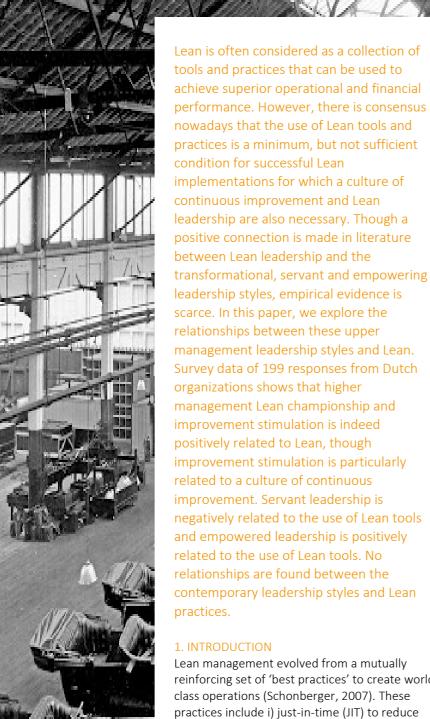
Lean leadership of higher management

Research paper

In this paper, we explore the relationships between contemporary leadership styles of higher management (transformational leadership, servant leadership and empowering leadership) and Lean

### CONTENT

1.	INTRODUCTION	3
2.	LITERATURE REVIEW AND RESEARCH MODEL	4
>	2.1 Lean management	4
>	2.2 Lean leadership	4
>	2.3 Types of leadership	6
3.	HYPOTHESES	8
4.	METHODOLOGY	10
>	4.1. Data collection	10
>	4.2. Measures, scale development and purification	10
>	4.3. Control variables and common method bias	12
5.	RESULTS:	12
6.	DISCUSSION	16
>	6.1. Conclusions	16
>	6.1. Implications	16
>	6.2. Limitations and future research	17
RE	FERENCES	17
AP	PENDIX A: SURVEY ITEMS & RELIABILITY AND ITEM STATISTICS	25
>	A.1. Lean practices	25
>	A.2. Use of Lean tools	27
>	A.3. Lean Championship and improvement stimulation by management	28
>	A.4. Transformational Leadership (TL) – Rafferty & Griffin (2004)	29
>	A.5. Servant Leadership (SL) – Nuijten & Van Dierendonck (2011)	30
>	A.6. Empowering Leadership (EL) – Arnold et al. (2000)	31
>	A.7. Contingent Punishment Behavior – Podsakoff et al. (1984)	32
>	A 8 Trust in/Lovalty to the Leader – Podsakoff et al. (1990)	32

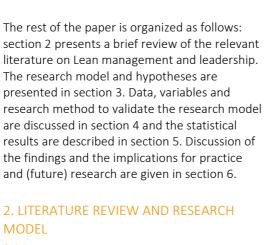


Lean management evolved from a mutually reinforcing set of 'best practices' to create world class operations (Schonberger, 2007). These practices include i) just-in-time (JIT) to reduce setup time, create flow and pull-based workload control (Cagliano, Caniato, & Spina, 2006; Cua, McKone, & Schroeder, 2001), ii) total quality management (TQM) to prevent quality problems and rework (Flynn, Sakakibara & Schroeder, 1995; Narasimhan, Swink & Kim, 2006) and iii) human resource development (HRM) to involve and empower employees

amongst others (Sakakibara, Flynn, Schroeder, & Morris, 1997).

Although Lean was initially considered to be a collection of tools and practices, nowadays there is widespread agreement that particularly the socio-cultural aspects of Lean, including management commitment and leadership style, determine the success of a Lean implementation (Cua et al., 2001; Mann, 2009; Sosik & Dionne, 1997; Spear & Bowen, 1990; Waldman, 1993). Nevertheless, there has been little empirical work which considers linkages between specific types of leadership and Lean (Lam, O'Donnell, & Robertson, 2015), though transformational leadership (Laohavichien, Fredendall, & Cantrell, 2011; Sosik & Dionne, 1997) and empowering leadership (Shah & Ward, 2003) are associated with Lean Leadership, since empowerment, training and coaching are important HRM-practices of Lean. Servant leadership has also been associated with Lean as it aims to empower and develop employees by providing direction and promoting employee responsibility and teamwork (Van Dierendonck, 2011; Yoshida, Sendjaya, Hirst, & Cooper, 2014), which are key aspects of Lean Leadership (Browning & Heath, 2009). Besides leadership style, management commitment and corresponding visible management actions also influence the success of Lean implementation (McLachlin, 1997), including i) management as a champion of Lean, ii) improvement stimulation by management, and iii) the creation of a continuous improvement culture. There is little empirical work that tests the impact of these management actions and behaviors on Lean implementation (Choi & Liker, 1995). With this paper, we contribute to the extant literature on Lean by examining both the impact of said management actions and the type of leadership (i.e. transformational, servant and empowering leadership) of upper management on Lean, measured by a coherent bundle of Lean practices (Shah & Ward, 2003; 2007), the use of operational Lean tools (Belekoukias, Garza-Reyes, & Kumar, 2014) and the presence of a culture of continuous improvement (Liker & Morgan, 2006).





#### 2.1 Lean management

Lean is generally associated with the elimination of waste commonly held by firms as excess inventory or excess capacity (machine and human capacity) to buffer for variability in customer demand, value streams and processing time (de Treville & Antonakis, 2006; Hopp & Spearman, 2004). Waste reduction is typically accomplished through the reduction of dysfunctional variability and non-value added activities with the help of various operational instruments and tools to (i) specify value in terms of the customer (e.g., kano-analysis: Lin, Yang, Chan & Sheu, 2010; Ward, Liker, Cristiano, & Sobek, 1995), ii) map the value stream – and eliminate non-value-added tasks (e.g., value stream mapping: Tyagi, Choudhary, Cai, & Yang, 2015), (iii) create continuous, single-piece flow wherever possible; (iv) only flow a product when a customer pulls it (with the help of a kanban system or a two-bin system for instance: Landry & Beaulieu, 2010), and (v) seek perfection through continuous improvement (Spear & Bowen, 1999; Womack & Jones, 1996; Womack, Jones & Roos, 1990). Mann (2009, p. 15) states, however, that 'implementing tools represents at most 20 percent of the effort in Lean transformations. The other 80 percent of the effort is expended on changing leaders' practices and behaviors, and ultimately their mindset'. As a consequence, Lean requires Lean leadership and a flexible, dedicated and engaged work force, which in turn require firms to simultaneously effectively manage their social and technical systems (Shah & Ward, 2007). Lean also requires an infrastructure with

associated lean tools, instruments and practices to facilitate a culture of continuous improvement (Oliver, Delbridge, Jones, & Lowe, 1994). Having a culture of continuous improvement is related to the level of professionalism with respect to the use of tactical Lean practices (as an infrastructure) and operational Lean tools, as Lean models and tools provide an efficient and effective method for solving problems (Wu & Chen, 2006). The presence of a CI-culture implies the commitment to continuously improving the operational organization, processes and corresponding infrastructure. A culture of continuous improvement also implies the continuous development and ultimately perfection of tools and practices used (Bessant, Caffyn, & Gallagher, 2001). Having a Cl-culture ensures that more use is made of different Lean tools (Wu & Chen, 2006). This view was adopted by Karlsson & Åhlström (1996) and Shah & Ward (2003) in their quest to operationalize Lean by means of Lean principles, practices and tools especially because researchers had already empirically measured just in time (McLachlin, 1997; Sakakibara, Flynn, & Schroeder, 1993) and total quality management (Dean & Bowen, 1994; Sitkin, Sutcliffe, & Schroeder, 1994) or a combination of JIT and TQM (Flynn et al., 1995) by means of practices. Shah & Ward (2007) identifies 10 Lean practices or infrastructural capabilities including involved customers, supplier feedback, developing suppliers, JIT delivery capability, flow production capability, pull control capability, setup reduction capability, controlled processes, productive maintenance and involved employees. Lean is also measured by the extent to which an organization uses operational lean tools such as value stream mapping (Tyagi et al., 2015).

#### 2.2 Lean leadership

There is widespread agreement that leadership, and in particular leadership commitment and involvement, is essential to implement Lean (and related concepts JIT and TQM; e.g. Bodek, 2008; Cua et al., 2001; Peng, Schroeder, & Shah, 2008; Sosik & Dionne, 1997; Waldman, 1993). Indeed, promotion of employee responsibility, provision of training, promotion of teamwork,





and the demonstration of visible commitment are necessary leadership behaviors for facilitating continuous improvement (McLachlin, 1997). Worley & Doolen (2006) stated that management must particularly create organizational interest in Lean by means of visioning the lean organization (Cua et al., 2001), and must clearly communicate both the objective of Lean and the required change to everyone within the organization (Laohavichien, et al., 2011). Also, the management behaviors collaboration, consultation, ingratiation, inspirational appeals, and rational persuasion are significant and strong predictors of employee commitment to continuous improvement initiatives (Lam et al., 2015). Hence, employee involvement and fostering a culture of trust and respect for staff are important socio-cultural characteristics of Lean leadership (Zu, Robbins, & Fredendall, 2010). In contrast, important analytical technical characteristics of Lean leadership include: having high expectations and setting ambitious goals (Linderman, Schroeder, & Choo, 2006); management by facts and the utilization of objective data (Choi & Eboch, 1998); timely feedback and information sharing (Waldman et

al., 1998). The management actions and behavior of Lean Leadership are clearly paradoxical in nature (Choi & Eboch, 1998; Lewis, Adriopoulos, & Smith, 2014) as it incorporates technical aspects like management on facts, analysis and adhering to the standard operating procedure for sake of efficiency and effectiveness on the one hand and social, follower-related aspects like promotion of employee responsibility, empowerment and collaboration to facilitate creativity and stimulate innovation on the other hand (Spear & Bowen, 1999). It simultaneously requires the leader to meticulously act and manage consistently and to stand back and empower employees to facilitate creativity and continuous improvement. As a consequence, management actions and behaviors of Lean managers are both practice and performance focused (and to a certain extent demonstrate self-enhancement behavior) and others-focused (or even selftranscendent). Based on a brief literature review discussed in this section, we distilled 10 frequently cited management actions and behaviors associated with Lean Leadership; see Table 1.

Table 1. Lean leadership behavior and SL/TVL/EL-factors.

No.	Typical management action and	References	Eligible factors of Servant-,
	behavior of Lean Leadership		Transformational- and Empowering
			Leadership
1	Leadership commitment,	Sosik & Dionne, 1997; Cua et al.,	Empowering Leadership: Leading by
	involvement & persistence, role	2001; Peng et al. 2008; Flynn and	Example
	modeling	Flynn 2004; Netland et al., 2015	Servant Leadership: Stewardship
2	Visioning the True North. Open &	Peng et al. 2008; Browning &	Transformational Leadership: Vision
	inspirational communication of	Heath, 2009; Done, Voss & Rytter,	Servant Leadership: Accountability by
	future	2011	providing direction
			Transformational Leadership:
			Inspiring Communication
3	Promotion of employee	McLachlin , 1997; Crawford et al.,	Servant Leadership: Empowerment
	responsibility & empowerment	1988; Flynn & Flynn, 2004; Peng et	Empowering Leadership: Participative
		al., 2008; Netland et al., 2015	Decision Making
4	Building and fostering a culture	Meisenheimer, 1992; Sosik &	Empowering Leadership: Showing
	of trust,	Dionne, 1997; Browning & Heath,	Concern
		2009	Servant Leadership: Standing Back
			Transformational Leadership:
			Supportive Leadership
5	Respect for people & humility	Mann 2009; Liker 2014; Choi &	Servant Leadership: Humility
		Liker 1995	
6	Coaching of teams and	Waldman,1993; Flynn & Flynn,	Servant Leadership: Facilitating
	facilitating teamwork	1994; McLachlin, 1997; Lakhsman,	Transformational Leadership:
	(collaboration)	2006; Lam et al., 2015; Netland et	Intellectual Stimulation
		al., 2015	Empowering Leadership: Coaching

7	High expectations, setting ambitious goals and intellectual stimulation	Linderman et al., 2006; Doeleman et al., 2012; Laohavichien et al., 2011; Waldman, 1993.	Transformational Leadership: Intellectual Stimulation
8	Timely feedback & information sharing	Choi & Eboch, 1998; Waldman et al., 1998; Done et al., 2011.	Empowering Leadership: Informing
9	Management by facts & use of objective data, visual monitoring of performance, rational persuasion	Choi & Eboch, 1998; Dahlgaard, Pettersen, & Dahlgaard-Park, 2011; Done, Voss & Rytter, 2011; Lam et al., 2015; Netland et al., 2015	Empowering Leadership: Informing
10	Celebrating and recognizing success	Waldman, 1993; Done eta al., 2011; Netland et al., 2015	Transformational Leadership: Personal Recognition

#### 2.3 Types of leadership

#### 2.3.1 Transformational leadership

Transformational leadership is a style of leadership in which the leader identifies the needed change, creates a vision to guide the change through inspiration, and executes the change with the commitment of the members of the group. Transformational leaders motivate followers to perform beyond expectations by transforming followers' attitudes, beliefs, and values as opposed to simply gaining compliance (Bass, 1991). Typical factors of transformational leadership are i) vision (i.e. the expression of an idealized picture of the future), 2) inspirational communication (i.e. the expression of positive and encouraging messages about the organization, and statements that build motivation and confidence. 3) intellectual stimulation (i.e. enhancing employees' interest in, and awareness of problems, and increasing their ability to think about problems in new ways), 4) supportive leadership (i.e. expressing concern for followers and taking account of their individual needs) and 5) personal recognition (i.e. the provision of rewards such as praise and acknowledgement of effort for achievement of specified goals) (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004).

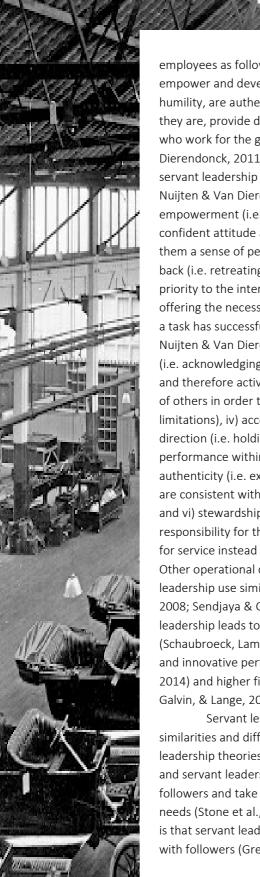
A transformational leader sets ambitious organizational goals and subsequently encourages and inspires followers to perform beyond expectations to achieve these goals and uses rewards and praise to motivate followers

to go the extra mile (Yukl, 1989). A transformational leader also serves as a motivating role model (Bass, 1991) and communicates a stimulating vision of the desired end-state of the organization to enhance followers' work motivation (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Transformational leadership is therefore likely to result in growth, independence, and empowerment of followers (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). An empowered follower is self-motivated and believes in his or her ability to cope and perform successfully, leading to increased innovative performance (Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003) and financial performance (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996).

#### 2.4.2 Servant leadership

Servant leadership is also demonstrated by empowering and developing people. It is a style of leadership in which the leader is genuinely concerned with followers (Greenleaf, 1977) aiming to develop followers their fullest potential by putting explicit emphasis on their needs (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). Indeed, the literature on servant leadership advocates that servant leaders must primarily meet the needs of others from a genuine and thorough understanding of their abilities, needs, desires, goals, and potential (Greenleaf, 1977) in order to assist and facilitate them to achieve their potential (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008). Servant leaders do not see





employees as followers but as equals. They empower and develop people; they show humility, are authentic, accept people for who they are, provide direction, and are stewards who work for the good of the whole (Van Dierendonck, 2011). Hence, typical factors of servant leadership are (Van Dierendonck, 2011; Nuijten & Van Dierendonck, 2011): i) empowerment (i.e. fostering a proactive, selfconfident attitude among followers that gives them a sense of personal power), ii) standing back (i.e. retreating into the background, giving priority to the interests of others first, and offering the necessary support and credits when a task has successfully been accomplished; Nuijten & Van Dierendonck, 2011), iii) humility (i.e. acknowledging the leader's own limitations and therefore actively seeking the contributions of others in order to overcome those limitations), iv) accountability by providing direction (i.e. holding people accountable for performance within their control), v) authenticity (i.e. expressing oneself in ways that are consistent with inner thoughts and feelings), and vi) stewardship (i.e. the willingness to take responsibility for the larger institution and to go for service instead of control and self-interest). Other operational definitions of servant leadership use similar factors (e.g., Liden et al., 2008; Sendjaya & Cooper, 2011). Servant leadership leads to higher team performance (Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2011), creativity and innovative performance (Yoshida et al., 2014) and higher firm performance (Peterson, Galvin, & Lange, 2012).

Servant leadership theory has both similarities and differences with other leadership theories. Transformational leadership and servant leadership both express concern for followers and take account of their individual needs (Stone et al., 2004). The main difference is that servant leaders are genuinely concerned with followers (Greenleaf, 1977).

Empowerment is an important factor of both transformational leadership and servant leadership behavior, but also has many similarities with the notion of empowering leadership (Pearce & Sims, 2002). A specific leadership factor may therefore be attributed to different types of leadership. Transforming influence, for instance, is a factor of both servant leadership and empowering leadership.

#### 2.4.3 Empowering leadership

Empowering as a distinctive type of leadership focuses on influencing others by developing and empowering follower self-leadership capabilities (Conger, 1989). It is essentially about encouraging participative decision making, sharing information, and the coaching and mentoring of individuals for increased innovative performance (Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000). Typical factors of empowering leadership are (see for instance Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000): i) leading by example (refers to a set of behaviors that show the leader's commitment to his or her own work as well as the work of his/her team members). ii) coaching (refers to a set of behaviors that educate team members and help them to become self-reliant and competent), iii) encouraging (refers to a set of behaviors that promote high performance), iv) participative decision making (refers to a leader's use of team members' information and input in making decisions), v) informing (refers to the leader's dissemination of company-wide information, such as mission and philosophy, as well as other important information), vi) showing concern (refers to a collection of behaviors that demonstrate a general regard for team members' well-being), and vii) interacting with the team (refers to behaviors that are important when interfacing with the team as a whole).



#### 3. HYPOTHESES

Continuous improvement (CI) is an important part of Lean management (Huang, Rode, & Schroeder, 2011). CI is defined as the systematic effort to seek out and apply new ways of doing work i.e. actively and repeatedly making process improvements (Anand, Ward, Tatikonda, & Schilling, 2009). It can hence be viewed in terms of (a) the never-ending reciprocal relationship between process and product/service improvement and increased efficiency and effectiveness, (b) the constant enhancement of customer satisfaction by fostering a culture of trust and respect, teamwork, high expectations and open communication with employees, customers and suppliers and (c) management by fact and the use of objective data for analyzing/improving processes (Choi & Eboch, 1998; Sosik & Dionne, 1997). Lean is therefore associated with leadership that facilitates and stimulates the continuous initiation and execution of improvement initiatives and coordination of change projects (Choo, Linderman & Schroeder, 2007; Wu & Chen, 2006). We therefore have the following hypothesis:

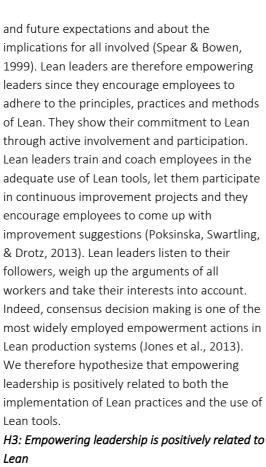
### H1: Improvement stimulation by management is positively related to Lean

Senior management as champions of Lean play a central role in Lean management to bridge a critical divide: the gap between the use of Lean tools and Lean thinking, i.e. principles and practices (Kanning & Bergmann, 2009). Indeed, demonstrable top leadership commitment and championship is necessary for the successful implementation of just-in-time manufacturing (McLachlin, 1997), quality improvement efforts (Waldman et al., 1998), Six Sigma (Linderman et al., 2006; Linderman, Schroeder, Zaheer, & Choo, 2003) and the promotion of improvement models and tools to build a CI-capability (Wu & Chen, 2006). A Lean champion has a genuine

interest in operational issues and has a certain level of perseverance and is not easily put off by setbacks. After all, for many, the implementation of Lean means a new way of working and a different behavior. Various barriers must be overcome to reach a situation where the entire organization continually pursues perfection (Spear & Bowen, 1999; Womack & Jones, 1996). In fact, when implementing Lean things may occasionally go wrong, something may not go according to plan or improvements may be disappointing; senior management must not give up too easily or put employees under pressure, instead it must take the organization in tow, give stability and confidence and provide possible solutions (Noone, Namasivayam, & Spitler Tomlinson, 2010). Hence, we have the following hypothesis: H2: Lean-championship by management is

### positively related to Lean

Empowerment of employees is an important leadership behavior to stimulate the use operational Lean tools and to perpetuate the development of Lean practices. Indeed, employee empowerment is widely touted as the defining factor of lean production (Jones, Latham, & Betta, 2013); it is an important HR practice of Lean (Shah & Ward, 2003) and involves the increase of capabilities, responsibilities, formal authority and involvement of broadly skilled employees in problem solving, participative decision making and continuous improvement (Vidal 2007). Lean requires that 'workers must have both a conceptual grasp of the production process and the analytical skills to identify the root cause of problems' so that they may 'identify and resolve problems as they appear on the line' (MacDuffie, 1997). Management in a Lean organization, therefore, inform employees about the arguments why the organization has adopted Lean, about the current performance



### H3: Empowering leadership is positively related to

Empowerment requires managers to share information and knowledge that enables employees to contribute optimally to organizational performance (Ford & Fottler, 1995). Indeed, the degree to which leaders value participation and teamwork, and information sharing, will be directly related to their communication behaviors about the importance of teamwork and as such will foster an organizational culture of openness and information sharing across levels, which is essential for TQM (Lakshman, 2006) and Lean (Netland, Schloetzer, & Ferdows, 2015). With respect to skill development, Wellins, Byham, & Wilson (1991) described the manager's role as facilitating and supporting rather than directing and controlling, with a significant proportion of the leader's time spent on securing appropriate training to ensure that employees develop the skills needed to support empowerment efforts. Lean leaders demonstrate servant leadership behavior such as promotion of employee responsibility and collaboration to facilitate creativity and stimulate innovation (Spear & Bowen, 1999). They also empower and develop employees and provide direction by means of visioning True North (Noone et al., 2010). Respect for people is another factor of servant leadership that is also a key principle of Lean (Liker, 2004). Given its emphasis on the needs and welfare of followers, servant leadership should encourage a positive social climate in which followers feel accepted and respected. By paying tribute to the workforce at the operational level, Lean leadership is similar to servant leadership (Poksinska et al., 2013). We therefore hypothesize that servant leadership is related to Lean.

### H4: Servant leadership is positively related to

Sosik & Dionne (1997) hypothesized that transformational leadership concurs with Deming's behavior factors, but did not provide empirical evidence. Laohavichien et al. (2011) empirically evaluated leadership and quality management practices and found that two factors of transformational leadership and one factor of transactional leadership influence quality management practices. Also Jung et al. (2003) found a direct and positive link between a transformational leadership style and organizational innovation and in particular with both empowerment and an innovationsupporting organizational climate. Lean leaders aim to support their teams rather than control them (Sosik & Dionne, 1997), resulting in higher worker effectiveness and employee creativity due to leader inspirational motivation (Hirst, Van Dick, & Van Knippenberg, 2009). The components of Lean leadership such as



empowering employees, participation in goal achievement, and focus on learning and personal responsibility are important aspects of transformational leadership (Poksinska et al., 2013). We therefore have the following hypothesis:

### H5: Transformational leadership is positively related to Lean

To sum up, we have a research model as illustrated in Figure 1.

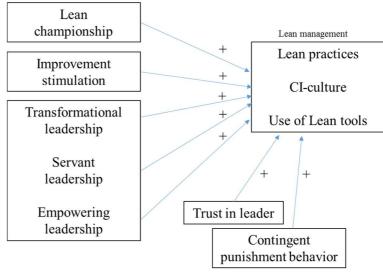


Figure 1. Research model

### 4. METHODOLOGY

#### 4.1. Data collection

The data for this research was collected from participants of various courses and master classes in Operational Excellence at a Dutch business school during the period 2012/2013. Participants were predominantly middle managers and senior level managers. We employed a web-based survey approach that participants were asked to fill out before they attended the class, with the explicit remark that we would use the results anonymously during the course. 80% of the participants filled out the questionnaire resulting in 205 questionnaires, of which 199 were useful for research. The respondents averaged 8.5 years of work experience with their current organization; see Table 2. Non-response bias was evaluated by testing responses of 21 non-informants for significant differences during the courses (e.g. Mentzer & Flint, 1997), where they were asked to respond verbally to five substantive items related to key constructs of the whole survey.

There were no significant differences (p < .05) in responses to any item, leading to the conclusion that non-response bias was not a problem.

### 4.2. Measures, scale development and purification

Though continuous improvement (CI) is an important part of Lean (Schonberger, 2007), it is seldom included in operational definitions of Lean, but is instead often studied as a separate construct (e.g., Bessant & Francis, 1999; Peng, Schroeder, & Shah, 2008). Generally researchers operationalize Lean as either a bundle of Lean practices (e.g., Azadegan, Patel, Zangoueinezhad, & Linderman, 2013; Flynn et al., 1995; Shah & Ward, 2007) or as a set of operational Lean tools (Belekoukias, Garza-Reyes, & Kumar, 2014; Karlsson & Åhlström, 1996; Rivera & Chen, 2007). To operationalize Lean we account for the use of operational Lean tools, Lean practices and a culture of continuous improvement. To increase the generalizability and applicability of our research, we adapted the familiar operationalization of Shah & Ward



(2007) as a measure of infrastructural Lean practices for both manufacturing and services industries. The final scale includes visual management (VM), pull control (PC), good housekeeping (GH), setup-reduction (SR) and group technology (GT). The constructs supplier feedback, JIT-delivery and supplier development were omitted from the scale due to low values of Cronbach's alpha. Items were estimated through respondents' perceptual evaluation on a five-point Likert scale. The response categories for each item were anchored by 1 (strongly

disagree) and 5 (strongly agree): see appendix A1. We evaluated the uni-dimensionality, reliability and convergent validity of each scale in this research using confirmatory factor analysis in the software package AMOS 22. The final second order measurement model of Lean practices fits the data well (Browne & Cudeck, 1992):  $\chi^2 = 95.715$ , df = 60, p = .002, CFI = .962, IFI = .963, TLI/NNFI = .994, NFI = .908, RMSEA = .055: see Table A.1 in appendix A.

Table 2. Profile of survey respondents

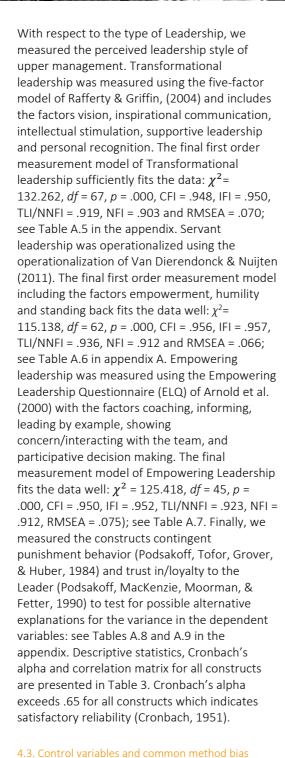
NAICS codes	Type of industry	%	Function	Percentage	Years of employment at this organization	%
22	Energy	5	Non-management	23,6	<1 year	5
23	Construction	2	Middle-management	66,3	1-3 years	12
31 - 33	Industry	17	Higher-management	10,1	3-5 years	23
43	Wholesale Trade	6			5-10 years	15
48 - 49	Transportation and warehousing	3			10-15 years	1
52	Finance and Insurance	9			15-20 years	1
53	Real estate and rental and leasing Professional, scientific and technical	2			>20 years	8
54	·	12				
56	Water supply and waste management	1				
61	Educational services	5				
62	Health care and social assistance Other services (except public	18				
81		3				
92	Public services	10				
Missing		7				35
Total		100		100		100

We operationalized 'Use of Lean tools' using scales for visual management tools (VMT), pull control tools (PCT), Kaizen improvement tools (KIT) and root-cause analysis tools (RCT. The final second order measurement model of Use of Lean Tools fits the data well:  $\chi^2$  = 32.682, df = 31, p = .384, CFI = .997, IFI = .997, TLI/NNFI = .994, NFI = .943 and RMSEA = .017; see Table A.2 in appendix A. CI-Culture (Cronbach alpha = .75) is operationalized using items from Huang et al. (2011). Subsequently we constructed an aggregate Lean scale based on the variables

Lean practices, Use of Lean tools and CI-Culture that has a Cronbach's alpha value of .87. The constructs Lean championship (Cronbach alpha = .67) and Improvement stimulation by management (Cronbach alpha = .78) are operationalized using items from Cua et al. (2001), Douglas & Judge (2001) and Flynn, Schroeder & Flynn (1999). The measurement model with these two constructs fits the data sufficiently:  $\chi^2$  = 24.064, df = 13, p = .031, CFI = .964, IFI = .966, TLI/NNFI = .922, NFI = .928 and RMSEA = .070; see Table A.4 in appendix A.

Op**y-**Instituut!

### Lean leadership of higher management



In this research we used respondent's

hierarchical position, education and tenure within the organization and organization size as control variables. Size for instance was measured by the number of employees

(logarithmized); smaller organizations typically have fewer resources for the implementation of process improvement initiatives or supply chain management practices (Cao & Zhang, 2011). However, we found no significant relationship (p < .05) between the control variables and the constructs in the statistical models used. Procedural methods were applied to minimize the potential for common method bias since both the independent and dependent measures were obtained from the same source (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). We ensured our sample included mid to senior level managers with significant levels of relevant knowledge, which tends to mitigate single source bias (Mitchell, 1985). Common method bias was also reduced by separating the dependent and independent variable items over the length of the survey instrument and by assuring participants that their individual responses would be kept anonymous (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). A statistical approach for assessing whether common method bias exists is Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003). All variables were entered into an unrotated exploratory factor analysis to test whether the majority of the variance can be explained by a single factor, but this was not the case. We therefore conclude that the tests of reliability, validity, overall model fit and common method bias provide adequate support of the appropriateness of the constructs.

#### 5. RESULTS:

To test the proposed hypotheses, we performed multiple hierarchical regression analyses. First we regressed the control variables, the leadership styles and management behavior for continuous improvement on the aggregate Lean construct. The variance inflation factors (VIFs) for all variables are lower than the rule-ofthumb cut-off criterion of 10 (Craney & Surles, 2002) and also the correlations presented in Table 3 are smaller than the cut-off criterion of .90 for collinearity problems. Model 3 in Table 4 shows the main effects referring to Hypotheses 1-5. This model shows that empowered leadership is positively related (b = 0.61, p < .1) and servant leadership is negatively related (b = -0.55, p < .1) to Lean. Transformational

leadership has no significant impact on the aggregate variable Lean. Lean Championship (b = 0.31, p < .01) and Improvement Stimulation (b

= 0.33, p < .05) by management are positively related to Lean.

Table 4: Results of hierarchical regression analysis for aggregate Lean construct

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
Variable	b	t	b	t	b	t
Size	0.06	0.55	0.03	0.31	-0.03	-0.35
Hierarchical position	-0.15	-0.76	-0.07	-0.35	-0.24	-1.52
Tenure	0	-0.07	0	0.05	-0.01	-0.69
Education	-0.1	-0.53	0	-0.02	-0.15	-1.06
Contingent Punishment						
Behavior			0.08	0.34	0.07	0.43
Trust in/Loyalty to the						
Leader			0.12	0.74	-0.07	-0.58
Transformational						
Leadership (TL)			-0.45	-1.1	-0.08	-0.25
Empowered Leadership						
(EL)			1.07*	2.34	0.61†	1.75
Servant Leadership (SL)			-0.42	-0.95	-0.55†	-1.7
Lean Championship (LC)					0.31**	3.19
Improvement Stimulation						
(IS)					0.33*	2.53
$R^2$	.03		.24		.62	
F improvement of fit	.19		2.36		15.85****	
$\Delta R^2$	.03		.21		.38	

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p < .001 level (2-tailed) † p < .1 level (2-tailed)

Since Lean Championship and Improvement stimulation by management are stronger predictors for Lean than the type of leadership, we also conducted hierarchical regression analyses for the single Lean constructs separately (i.e. CI-Culture, Lean practices and Use of Lean tools); see model 3 in Table 5 for

the results. The type of leadership (i.e. servant leadership, empowered leadership and transformational leadership) is not related to Cl-Culture; only the extent of improvement stimulation by management is significantly related to Cl-Culture (b = 0.82, p < .001).

<sup>\*\*</sup> p < .01 level (2-tailed)

<sup>\*</sup> p < .05 level (2-tailed)



DESCRIPTION OF THE
ELLEVIN LONGA SE
PROPERTY AND PROPERTY OF V
1200
STATE OF THE PARTY.
THE SHALL SHALL
The second second
1 370 STEEL
7. 1
134
THE R. P. LEWIS CO., LANSING, MICH.
The same of the sa
<b>可是一种是一种是一种</b>
The second
The same
A MAG
NIII TO THE
The same of the
-
All
STATE OF THE PARTY
The second second second
Marks
me manning (St
THE DAY

Table 5: Results of hierarchical regression analysis for Cl-culture, Lean practices and Us	e of Lean tools

Dependent: CI-culture →	Model 1: 0	CI-Culture	Model 2: 0	CI-Culture	Lean tools  Model 3: CI-Culture				
Variable	b	t	b	t	b	t			
iize	.11	1.14	.08	.87	.04	.68			
lierarchical position	.22	1.44	.17	1.14	.06	.60			
enure	02	34	.00	03	023	-1.25			
Education	24	-1.85	19	-1.58	11	-1.34			
Contingent Punishment Behavior			.13	1.04	.01	.16			
rust in/Loyalty to the Leader			.23	1.07	.09	.63			
ransformational Leadership			.17	.50	.09	.36			
mpowered Leadership			11	34	22	-1.02			
ervant Leadership			.14	.46	.18	.85			
ean Championship					.00	.01			
mprovement Stimulation					.82***	8.89			
22	.06		.23		.63				
- <del>-</del>	1.52		3.53**		45.10***				
$\Lambda R^2$	.06		.13		.40				
Dependent: Lean practices →		ean practices		ean practices	Model c: Lean practice				
ariable	b	t	b	t	b	t			
ize	03	31	03	31	08	-1.02			
Hierarchical position	05	32	07	50	16	-1.31			
' 'enure	03	-1.10	02	70	02	-1.05			
ducation	05	40	02	18	01	14			
ontingent Punishment Behavior	.00		.24	1.81†	.13	1.11			
rust in/Loyalty to the Leader			.01	.07	04	22			
ransformational Leadership			10	29	06	20			
mpowered Leadership			.44	1.26	.17	.59			
ervant Leadership			34	-1.08	24	94			
ean Championship			54	-1.08	.22**	2.60			
mprovement Stimulation						1.43			
<sup>2</sup>	0.3		1.4		.22	1.45			
	.03		.14		.47				
. n?	.49		1.29		10.55***				
$\Delta R^2$	.03		.11		.33				
Dependent: Use of Lean tools 🗲	Model Iv I	se of Lean tools	Model II: U tools	Jse of Lean	Model III tools	: Use of Lean			
ariable	b	t	b	t	b	t			
ize	.10	.96	.05	.48	.04	.47			
lierarchical position	16	77	12	58	33†	-1.88			
enure	.03	.87	.03	1.20	.03	1.04			
ducation	05	25	.05	.27	030	57			
Contingent Punishment Behavior	.00	.23	.10	.70	.09	.22			
rust in/Loyalty to the Leader			.12	.48	.12	.62			
ransformational Leadership			17	42	04	12			
mpowered Leadership			1 <i>7</i> .92*	2.08	04 .92*				
ervant Leadership						2.50			
ean Championship			65	-1.48	99* 42***	-2.69			
ean Championship mprovement Stimulation					.42***	4.49			
'	0.0		15		.08	.63			
$\mathbb{R}^2$	.03		.15		.44				

1.48

.12

.37

12.66\*\*\*

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p < .001 level (2-tailed) † p < .1 level (2-tailed)

<sup>\*\*</sup> p < .01 level (2-tailed)

<sup>\*</sup> *p* < .05 level (2-tailed)

The leadership styles are not related to the level of Lean practices (see model c in Table 5). However, Lean Championship by management is positively related to Lean practices (b = 0.22, p < .05). In contrast, empowered leadership (b = 0.92, p < .05) is positively related and servant leadership (b = -0.99, p < .05) is negatively related to the use of Lean tools. Lean championship by management positively impacts the use of Lean tools (b = 0.42, p < .001).

The results from the regression analyses for use of Lean tools give reason to explore the influence of individual leadership characteristics on the use of Lean tools. We therefore regressed the control variables, all individual leadership factors and the variables Lean Championship and Improvement stimulation by management on the use of Lean tools; see Table 6

Table 6: Results of hierarchical regression analysis of Lean tools

Dependent: Use of Lean tools 🗲	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	Model 3			
Variable	b	t	b	t	b	t			
Size	.10	.96	07	62	04	37			
Hierarchical position	16	77	16	74	27	-1.46			
Tenure	.02	.87	.01	.37	.01	.62			
Education	05	25	.06	.32	.08	.46			
Contingent Punishment Behavior			.16	.94	.14	.98			
Trust in/Loyalty to the Leader			.04	.13	03	13			
SL: Empowerment			.15	.56	15	62			
SL: Standing Back			45*	-2.33	47**	-2.88			
SL: Humility			29	99	46†	-1.89			
TL: Vision			43**	-2.40	18	-1.15			
TL: Inspiring Communication			.13	.520	.02	.11			
TL: Intellectual Stimulation			39	-1.42	45†	-2.00			
TL: Supportive Leadership			04	19	.11	.60			
TL: Personal Recognition			.18	.92	.24	1.45			
EL: Leading by Example			.14	.69	.04	.24			
EL: Participative Decision Making			.13	.51	.18	.83			
EL: Informing			.73**	3.11	.67**	3.14			
EL: Showing Concern			.30	1.26	.41*	2.04			
Lean championship					.38***	3.91			
CI-Culture					.33†	1.94			
Improvement Stimulation					21	-1.10			
$R^2$	.03		.40		.62				
F	.37		1.80†		7.65***				
$\Delta R^2$	.03		.37		.22				

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p < .001 level (2-tailed) † p < .1 level (2-tailed)

The factors Standing Back (b = -0.47, p < .01) and Humility (b = -0.46, p < .1) of the servant leadership scale, and Intellectual Stimulation (b = -0.45, p < .1) of the transformational leadership scale are negatively related to the use of Lean tools. Informing (b = 0.67, p < .001) and Showing Concern (b = 0.41, p < .01) of the empowered leadership scale are positively

related to use of Lean tools. In addition, we find Lean championship by management (b = 0.38, p < .001) and having a CI-culture (b = 0.33, p < .1) to be positively related to the use of Lean tools.

<sup>\*\*</sup> p < .01 level (2-tailed)

<sup>\*</sup> p < .05 level (2-tailed)



#### 6.1. Conclusions

Top management sponsorship, demonstrable commitment, active involvement and improvement stimulation are frequently cited as important leadership behaviors for Lean management (e.g., Mann, 2009; Worley & Doolen, 2006). Indeed, in literature a positive connection is made between Lean leadership and contemporary leadership styles such as transformational leadership (Dean & Bowen, 1994; McLachlin, 1997; Sosik & Dionne, 1997) and servant leadership (e.g., Poksinska et al., 2013) but empirical evidence is often lacking. Based on a sample of 199 respondents, this study shows that Lean Championship and improvement stimulation by higher management is indeed positively related to Lean, though improvement stimulation is

particularly related to the presence of a CIculture. Servant leadership as a leadership style of higher management is negatively related to the use of Lean tools but not related to the level of Lean practices or to the presence of a CIculture, while empowered leadership is positively related to the use of Lean tools. No relations are found between the contemporary leadership styles and Lean practices. This concurs with the findings of Laohavichien et al. (2011) that the interactions of transformational leadership style with infrastructure and core practices are not significant. Considering the individual leadership factors we found that three individual factors (i.e. Standing Back, Humility and Intellectual Stimulation) are negatively related to the use of Lean tools, and two individual factors (i.e. Informing and Showing Concern) are positively related to the use of Lean tools; see Table 7.

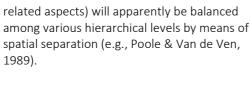
Table 7: Direct effects testing results.

Hypothesis	Path	b	t	Supported?	Model	Alternative
H1	Lean ← Improvement stimulation	0.31	4.3	Yes; <i>p</i> < .05	Table 4	In particular related to CI- culture
H2	Lean ← Lean Championship	0.51	2.21	Yes; <i>p</i> < .001	Table 4	
НЗ	Lean ← Empowering leadership	0.89	1.96	Yes; <i>p</i> < .1	Table 5	In particular related to use the of Lean tools
H4	Lean ← Servant leadership	99*	-2.69	No; <i>p</i> < .05	Table 5	Negatively related; in particular to the use of Lean tools
H5	Lean ← Transformational leadership	-0.65	-1.69	No; <i>p</i> > .1	Table 4	Not related to Lean

#### 6.1. Implications

This research shows that senior management must not hold back from Lean initiatives but actively promote and stimulate the use of Lean tools to continuously improve processes and activities. Top management must continue their efforts promoting the reason and purpose of Lean, explaining the True North of the Leanorganization and stressing the importance to build and strengthen Lean capabilities and practices as a type of Lean infrastructure. Senior management must also inform staff about the expectations and consequences of implementing Lean and take the time to address any concerns about or resistance to Lean and the inevitable change; it is important that senior management shows concern for similar issues.

This result does not imply that servant leadership and transformational leadership are unrelated to Lean Leadership as Lean requires different Lean leadership behavior on different hierarchical levels (Mann, 2009). This concurs with Lakshman (2006) that involvement and participation of managers and employees at all levels are important to the successful management of quality in organizations. Lean leadership at the supervisory level and thus leader behaviors of supervisors or lower level managers are probably more people-oriented and others-focused to stimulate participation and teamwork, promote employee responsibility by showing trust in people then senior management; future research The paradoxical nature of Lean leadership (i.e. technical aspects versus the social, follower



#### 6.2. Limitations and future research

Like any research, this study also has its limitations. First, we studied Lean leadership behavior of senior management with the help of data comprising various types of respondents of various organizations. Although the scales in this study are sufficiently reliable, future research could set up an experiment in which the difference is being studied in leadership behavior between two or more groups of Lean adopters (given various Lean implementation stages) versus a group of non-adopters. This also offers the opportunity to investigate differences in leadership at different hierarchical levels. Second, we do not have all possible factors of servant leadership and empowering leadership included in the study. Sendjaya & Cooper (2011), for example, have proposed slightly different factors as a scale for servant leadership than we used in this study. Since there is no ultimate consensus on the appropriate factors to measure each type of leadership, future research could involve alternative factors of servant, transformational and empowering leadership.

One of the primary cultural features associated with leadership is power distance (Swierczek, 1991). Strong, decisive leaders are expected in high power distance cultures, with less decisive leaders perceived as weak and ineffectual (Blunt, 1988). Future research could include such cultural factors as possible mediating factors. In addition, although this study associates the theories of transformational, servant and empowering leadership with Lean leadership, this paper did not address the underlying influence processes (Yukl, 1989) impacting Lean leadership nor is the relationship of the leader's behavior to various stages of Lean implementation examined. Future research could resolve this issue.

#### **REFERENCES**

Anand, G., Ward, P. T., Tatikonda, M. V., & Schilling, D. A. (2009). Dynamic capabilities through continuous improvement infrastructure. Journal of Operations Management, 27(6), 444-461. doi:10.1016/j.jom.2009.02.002

Arnold, J. A., Arad, S., Rhoades, J. A., & Drasgow, F. (2000). The empowering leadership questionnaire: The construction and validation of a new scale for measuring leader behaviors. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 21(3), 249-269.

Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. I. (1999). Reexamining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 72(4), 441-462. doi:10.1348/096317999166789

Azadegan, A., Patel, P. C., Zangoueinezhad, A., & Linderman, K. (2013). The effect of environmental complexity and environmental dynamism on lean practices. Journal of Operations Management, 31(4), 193-212. doi:10.1016/j.jom.2013.03.002

Barling, J., Weber, T., & Kelloway, E. K. (1996). Effects of transformational leadership training on attitudinal and financial outcomes: A field experiment. Journal of Applied Psychology, 81(6), 827.

Bass, B. M. (1991). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. Organizational Dynamics, 18(3), 19-31.

Belekoukias, I., Garza-Reyes, J. A., & Kumar, V. (2014). The impact of lean methods and tools on the operational performance of manufacturing organisations. International Journal of Production Research, 52(18), 5346-5366. doi:10.1080/00207543.2014.903348

Bessant, J., Caffyn, S., & Gallagher, M. (2001). An evolutionary model of continuous improvement behaviour. Technovation, 21(2), 67-77. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0166-4972(00)00023-7

Bessant, J., & Francis, D. (1999). Developing strategic continuous improvement capability. International Journal of Operations &





Production Management, 19(11), 1106-1119. doi:doi:10.1108/01443579910291032

Blunt, P. (1988). Cultural consequences for organization change in a Southeast Asian state: Brunei. The Academy of Management Executive, 2(3), 235-240.

Bodek, N. (2008). Leadership is critical to Lean. manufacturing Engineering, 140(3), 145-+.

Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1992). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. Sociological Methods & Research, 21(2), 230-258.

Browning, T. R., & Heath, R. D. (2009). Reconceptualizing the effects of lean on production costs with evidence from the F-22 program. Journal of Operations Management, 27(1), 23-44. doi:10.1016/j.jom.2008.03.009

Cagliano, R., Caniato, F., & Spina, G. (2006). The linkage between supply chain integration and manufacturing improvement programmes. International Journal of Operations & Production Management, 26(3), 282-299. doi:doi:10.1108/01443570610646201

Cao, M., & Zhang, Q. (2011). Supply chain collaboration: Impact on collaborative advantage and firm performance. Journal of Operations Management, 29(3), 163-180.

Choi, T. Y., & Eboch, K. (1998). The TQM Paradox: Relations among TQM practices, plant performance, and customer satisfaction. Journal of Operations Management, 17(1), 59-75. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0272-6963(98)00031-X

Choi, T. Y., & Liker, J. K. (1995). Bringing Japanese Continuous Improvement Approaches to US Manufacturing: The Roles of Process Orientation and Communications\*. Decision Sciences, 26(5), 589-620.

Choo, A. S., Linderman, K. W., & Schroeder, R. G. (2007). Method and context perspectives on learning and knowledge creation in quality management. Journal of Operations Management, 25(4), 918-931.

Conger, J. A. (1989). Leadership: The art of empowering others. The Academy of Management Executive, 3(1), 17-24.

Craney, T. A., & Surles, J. G. (2002). Model-Dependent Variance Inflation Factor Cutoff Values. Quality Engineering, 14(3), 391-403. doi:10.1081/QEN-120001878

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. psychometrika, 16(3), 297-334.

Cua, K. O., McKone, K. E., & Schroeder, R. G. (2001). Relationships between implementation of TQM, JIT, and TPM and manufacturing performance. Journal of Operations Management, 19(6), 675-694. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0272-6963(01)00066-3

Dahlgaard, J. J., Pettersen, J., & Dahlgaard-Park, S. M. (2011). Quality and lean health care: A system for assessing and improving the health of healthcare organisations. Total Quality Management & Business Excellence, 22(6), 673-689. doi:10.1080/14783363.2011.580651

de Treville, S., & Antonakis, J. (2006). Could lean production job design be intrinsically motivating? Contextual, configurational, and levels-of-analysis issues. Journal of Operations Management, 24(2), 99-123. doi:10.1016/j.jom.2005.04.001

Dean, J. W., & Bowen, D. E. (1994). Management theory and total quality: improving research and practice through theory development. Academy of Management Review, 19(3), 392-418.

Done, A., Voss, C., & Rytter, N. G. (2011). Best practice interventions: Short-term impact and long-term outcomes. Journal of Operations Management, 29(5), 500-513. doi:10.1016/j.jom.2010.11.007

Douglas, T. J., & Judge, W. Q. (2001). Total quality management implementation and competitive advantage: the role of structural control and exploration. Academy of Management Journal, 44(1), 158-169.

Flynn, B. B., Sakakibara, S., & Schroeder, R. G. (1995). Relationship between JIT and TQM: Practices and Performance. The Academy of Management Journal, 38(5), 1325-1360. Retrieved from

http://www.jstor.org/stable/256860

Flynn, B. B., Schroeder, R. G., & Flynn, E. J. (1999). World class manufacturing: an investigation of Hayes and Wheelwright's



foundation. Journal of Operations Management, 17(3), 249-269. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0272-

doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0272-6963(98)00050-3

Ford, R. C., & Fottler, M. D. (1995). Empowerment: A matter of degree. The Academy of Management Executive, 9(3), 21-29.

GreenLeaf, R. K. (1977). Servant leadership. Mahwah, NJ: Paulist Press.

Hirst, G., van Dick, R., & van Knippenberg, D. (2009). A social identity perspective on leadership and employee creativity. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 30(7), 963-982. doi:10.1002/job.600

Hopp, W. J., & Spearman, M. L. (2004). To Pull or Not to Pull: What Is the Question? Manufacturing & Service Operations Management, 6(2), 133-148. doi:doi:10.1287/msom.1030.0028

Huang, X., Rode, J. C., & Schroeder, R. G. (2011). Organizational structure and continuous improvement and learning: Moderating effects of cultural endorsement of participative leadership. Journal of International Business Studies, 42(9), 1103-1120. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/41309753

Jones, R., Latham, J., & Betta, M. (2013). Creating the illusion of employee empowerment: lean production in the international automobile industry. The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 24(8), 1629-1645. doi:10.1080/09585192.2012.725081

Jung, D. I., Chow, C., & Wu, A. (2003). The role of transformational leadership in enhancing organizational innovation: Hypotheses and some preliminary findings. The Leadership Quarterly, 14(4–5), 525-544. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(03)00050-X

Kanning, U. P., & Bergmann, N. (2009). Predictors of customer satisfaction: testing the classical paradigms. Managing Service Quality: An International Journal, 19(4), 377-390. doi:10.1108/09604520910971511

Karlsson, C., & Åhlström, P. (1996). Assessing changes towards lean production. International

Journal of Operations & Production Management, 16(2), 24-41. doi:doi:10.1108/01443579610109820

Konczak, L. J., Stelly, D. J., & Trusty, M. L. (2000). Defining and Measuring Empowering Leader Behaviors: Development of an Upward Feedback Instrument. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 60(2), 301-313. doi:10.1177/00131640021970420

Lakshman, C. (2006). A theory of leadership for quality: Lessons from TQM for leadership theory. Total Quality Management & Business Excellence, 17(1), 41-60.

doi:10.1080/14783360500249729

Lam, M., O'Donnell, M., & Robertson, D. (2015). Achieving employee commitment for continuous improvement initiatives. International Journal of Operations & Production Management, 35(2), 201-215. doi:doi:10.1108/IJOPM-03-2013-0134

Landry, S., & Beaulieu, M. (2010). Achieving lean healthcare by combining the two-bin kanban replenishment system with RFID technology. International Journal of Health Management and Information, 1(1), 85-98.

Laohavichien, T., Fredendall, L. D., & Cantrell, R. S. (2011). Leadership and quality management practices in Thailand. International Journal of Operations & Production Management, 31(10), 1048-1070.

doi:doi:10.1108/01443571111172426

Lewis, M. W., Andriopoulos, C., & Smith, W. K. (2014). Paradoxical Leadership to Enable Strategic Agility California Management Review, 56(3), 58-77

Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., Zhao, H., & Henderson, D. (2008). Servant leadership: Development of a multidimensional measure and multi-level assessment. The Leadership Quarterly, 19(2), 161-177.

doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2008.01.

Liker, J. K. (2004). Toyota Way: 14 Management Principles from the World's Greatest Manufacturer. New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

Liker, J. K., & Morgan, J. M. (2006). The Toyota way in services: the case of lean product



development. The Academy of Management Perspectives, 20(2), 5-20.

Lin, S.-P., Yang, C.-L., Chan, Y.-h., & Sheu, C. (2010). Refining Kano's 'quality attributes—satisfaction' model: A moderated regression approach. International Journal of Production Economics, 126(2), 255-263.

Linderman, K., Schroeder, R. G., & Choo, A. S. (2006). Six Sigma: The role of goals in improvement teams. Journal of Operations Management, 24(6), 779-790. doi:10.1016/j.jom.2005.08.005

Linderman, K., Schroeder, R. G., Zaheer, S., & Choo, A. S. (2003). Six Sigma: a goal-theoretic perspective. Journal of Operations Management, 21(2), 193-203. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0272-6963(02)00087-6

MacDuffie, J. P. (1997). The road to "root cause": Shop-floor problem-solving at three auto assembly plants. Management Science, 43(4), 479-502.

Mann, D. (2009). The missing link: Lean leadership. Frontiers of health services management, 26(1), 15.

McLachlin, R. (1997). Management initiatives and just-in-time manufacturing. Journal of Operations Management, 15(4), 271-292. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0272-6963(97)00010-7

Mentzer, J. T., & Flint, D. J. (1997). Validity in logistics research. Journal of business logistics, 18(1), 199.

Mitchell, T. R. (1985). An evaluation of the validity of correlational research conducted in organizations. Academy of Management Review, 10(2), 192-205.

Narasimhan, R., Swink, M., & Kim, S. W. (2006). Disentangling leanness and agility: An empirical investigation. Journal of Operations Management, 24(5), 440-457. doi:10.1016/j.jom.2005.11.011

Netland, T. H., Schloetzer, J. D., & Ferdows, K. (2015). Implementing corporate lean programs: The effect of management control practices. Journal of Operations Management, 36, 90-102. doi:10.1016/j.jom.2015.03.005

Noone, B. M., Namasivayam, K., & Spitler Tomlinson, H. (2010). Examining the application of six sigma in the service exchange. Managing Service Quality: An International Journal, 20(3), 273-293. doi:10.1108/09604521011041989

Oliver, N., Delbridge, R., Jones, D., & Lowe, J. (1994). World Class Manufacturing: Further Evidence in the Lean Production Debate1. British Journal of Management, 5, S53-S63. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8551.1994.tb00130.x

Pearce, C. L., & Sims Jr, H. P. (2002). Vertical versus shared leadership as predictors of the effectiveness of change management teams: An examination of aversive, directive, transactional, transformational, and empowering leader behaviors. Group dynamics: Theory, research, and practice, 6(2), 172.

Peng, D. X., Schroeder, R. G., & Shah, R. (2008). Linking routines to operations capabilities: A new perspective. Journal of Operations Management, 26(6), 730-748. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jom.2007.11.001 Peterson, S. J., Galvin, B. M., & Lange, D. (2012). CEO servant leadership: Exploring executive characteristics and firm performance. Personnel

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. Journal of Applied Psychology, 88(5), 879-903. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879

Psychology, 65(3), 565-596.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. The Leadership Quarterly, 1(2), 107-142.

Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-Reports in Organizational Research: Problems and Prospects. Journal of Management, 12(4), 531-544. doi:10.1177/014920638601200408

Podsakoff, P. M., Todor, W. D., Grover, R. A., & Huber, V. L. (1984). Situational moderators of leader reward and punishment behaviors: Fact or fiction? Organizational behavior and human performance, 34(1), 21-63.



Poksinska, B., Swartling, D., & Drotz, E. (2013). The daily work of Lean leaders – lessons from manufacturing and healthcare. Total Quality Management & Business Excellence, 24(7-8), 886-898. doi:10.1080/14783363.2013.791098

Poole, M. S., & Van de Ven, A. H. (1989). Using paradox to build management and organization theories. Academy of Management Review, 14(4), 562-578.

Rafferty, A. E., & Griffin, M. A. (2004). Dimensions of transformational leadership: Conceptual and empirical extensions. The Leadership Quarterly, 15(3), 329-354. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2004.02.009

Rivera, L., & Chen, F. F. (2007). Measuring the impact of Lean tools on the cost—time investment of a product using cost—time profiles. Robotics and Computer-Integrated Manufacturing, 23(6), 684-689. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.rcim.2007.02.01

Sakakibara, S., Flynn, B. B., & Schroeder, R. G. (1993). A framework and measurement instrument for just-in-time manufacturing. Production and Operations Management, 2(3), 177-194. doi:10.1111/j.1937-5956.1993.tb00097.x

Sakakibara, S., Flynn, B. B., Schroeder, R. G., & Morris, W. T. (1997). The Impact of Just-in-Time Manufacturing and Its Infrastructure on Manufacturing Performance. Management Science, 43(9), 1246-1257. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/2634636

Schaubroeck, J., Lam, S. S., & Peng, A. C. (2011). Cognition-based and affect-based trust as mediators of leader behavior influences on team performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 96(4), 863.

Schonberger, R. J. (2007). Japanese production management: An evolution—With mixed success. Journal of Operations Management, 25(2), 403-419. doi:10.1016/j.jom.2006.04.003

Sendjaya, S., & Cooper, B. (2011). Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale: A hierarchical model and test of construct validity. European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 20(3), 416-436.

doi:10.1080/13594321003590549

Shah, R., & Ward, P. T. (2003). Lean manufacturing: context, practice bundles, and performance. Journal of Operations Management, 21(2), 129-149. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0272-6963(02)00108-0

Shah, R., & Ward, P. T. (2007). Defining and developing measures of lean production. Journal of Operations Management, 25(4), 785-805. doi:10.1016/j.jom.2007.01.019

Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. Organization Science, 4(4), 577-594.

Sitkin, S. B., Sutcliffe, K. M., & Schroeder, R. G. (1994). Distinguishing Control from Learning in Total Quality Management: A Contingency Perspective. The Academy of Management Review, 19(3), 537-564. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/258938

Sosik, J., & Dionne, S. (1997). Leadership styles and Deming's behavior factors. Journal of Business and Psychology, 11(4), 447-462. doi:10.1007/BF02195891

Spear, S. J., & Bowen, H. K. (1999). Decoding the DNA of the Toyota production system. Harvard business review, 77, 96-108.

Stone, A. G., Russell, R. F., & Patterson, K. (2004). Transformational versus servant leadership: a difference in leader focus. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 25(4), 349-361. doi:doi:10.1108/01437730410538671

Swierczek, F. W. (1991). Leadership and culture: Comparing Asian managers. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 12(7), 3-10.

Tyagi, S., Choudhary, A., Cai, X., & Yang, K. (2015). Value stream mapping to reduce the lead-time of a product development process. International Journal of Production Economics, 160, 202-212.

doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpe.2014.11.002 van Dierendonck, D. (2011). Servant Leadership: A Review and Synthesis. Journal of Management, 37(4), 1228-1261. doi:10.1177/0149206310380462

### Op**X-**Instituut!

## Lean leadership of higher management



van Dierendonck, D., & Nuijten, I. (2011). The Servant Leadership Survey: Development and Validation of a Multidimensional Measure. J Bus Psychol, 26(3), 249-267. doi:10.1007/s10869-010-9194-1

Vidal, M. (2007). Lean production, worker empowerment, and job satisfaction: A qualitative analysis and critique. Critical Sociology, 33(1-2), 247-278.

Waldman, D. A. (1993). A theoretical consideration of leadership and total quality management. The Leadership Quarterly, 4(1), 65-79. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(93)90004-D

Ward, A., Liker, J. K., Cristiano, J. J., & Sobek II, D. K. (1995). The second Toyota paradox: How delaying decisions can make better cars faster. Sloan management review, 36(3), 43-61.

Wellins, R. S., Byham, W. C., & Wilson, J. M. (1991). Empowered teams. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Womack, J. P., & Jones, D. T. (1996). Lean thinking: banish waste and create wealth in your corporation: Simon and Schuster.

Womack, J. P., Jones, D. T., & Roos, D. (1990). Machine that changed the world: Simon and Schuster.

Worley, J. M., & Doolen, T. L. (2006). The role of communication and management support in a

lean manufacturing implementationnull. Management Decision, 44(2), 228-245. doi:10.1108/00251740610650210

Wu, C. W., & Chen, C. L. (2006). An integrated structural model toward successful continuous improvement activity. Technovation, 26(5–6),

doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.technovation.20 05.05.002

Yoshida, D. T., Sendjaya, S., Hirst, G., & Cooper, B. (2014). Does servant leadership foster creativity and innovation? A multi-level mediation study of identification and prototypicality. Journal of Business Research, 67(7), 1395-1404.

doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2013.08.013

Yukl, G. (1989). Managerial leadership: A review of theory and research. Journal of Management, 15(2), 251-289.

Zu, X., Robbins, T. L., & Fredendall, L. D. (2010). Mapping the critical links between organizational culture and TQM/Six Sigma practices. International Journal of Production Economics, 123(1), 86-106. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpe.2009.07.009

 $\label{thm:condition} \textbf{Table 3. Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix with Cronbach's alpha on the diagonal.}$ 

			G D		2	2		_	_	-	0				10	10			1.0	1.7	10
		Mean	S.D.	I	2	3	SL	5	6	7	8	9	TL	11	12	13	14	EL	16	17	18
1	SL: Empowerment	3.97	.56	.81																	
2	SL: Standing Back	3.16	.82	.570**	.69																
3	SL: Humility	3.43	.79	.668**	.691**	.92															
SL	Servant Leadership	3.52	.66	.827**	.846**	.875**	.84														
5	TL: Vision	3.74	.78	.446**	.365**	.515**	.530**	.85													
6	TL: Inspiring Communication	3.76	.78	.641**	.592**	.740**	.766**	.468**	.68												
7	TL: Intellectual Stimulation	3.69	.70	.684**	.602**	.712**	.781**	.532**	.825**	.82											
8	TL: Supportive Leadership	3.55	.74	.699**	.639**	.781**	.811**	.357**	.644**	.597**	.77										
9	TL: Personal Recognition	3.66	.73	.588**	.509**	.718**	.718**	.325**	.637**	.597**	.633**	.78									
TL	Transformational Leadership	3.67	.60	.757**	.689**	.856**	.892**	.688**	.890**	.881**	.811**	.785**	.87								
11	EL: Leading by Example	3.69	.70	.526**	.537**	.668**	.676**	.535**	.575**	.552**	.571**	.503**	.700**	.90							
12	EL: Participative Decision	3.73	.63	.690**	.605**	.799**	.799**	.372**	.641**	.598**	.727**	.634**	.738**	.544**	.80						
13	EL: Informing	3.69	.73	.568**	.532**	.694**	.756**	.666**	.611**	.667**	.531**	.542**	.767**	.579**	.532**	.87					
14	EL: Showing Concern	3.54	.72	.512**	.472**	.709**	.680**	.328**	.555**	.539**	.619**	.512**	.645**	.513**	.679**	.462**	.71				
EL	Empowering Leadership	3.66	.57	.711**	.659**	.848**	.863**	.584**	.738**	.738**	.750**	.677**	.874**	.816**	.840**	.806**	.821**	.84			
16	Contingent Punishment Behavior	3.66	.69	.344**	.204**	.413**	.397**	.305**	.343**	.474**	.143	.357**	.407**	.239**	.294**	.442**	.174*	.362**	.87		
17	Trust in/Loyalty to the Leader	4.01	.61	.675**	.491**	.735**	.752**	.512**	.613**	.602**	.706**	.548**	.740**	.548**	.642**	.592**	.585**	.726**	.276**	.806	
18	Lean Championship	2.99	.95	.206**	.098	.146	.196*	.042	.219**	.232**	.105	.223**	.223**	.056	.116	.187*	.110	.149	.029	.146	.667
19	Improvement Stimulation	3.58	.68	.344**	.159*	.275**	.276**	.301**	.306**	.339**	.191*	.246**	.341**	.219**	.282**	.398**	.195**	.326**	.220**	.287**	.366**
20	CI-Culture	3.37	.77	.258**	.149	.287**	.257**	.191*	.317**	.319**	.202**	.234**	.329**	.165*	.299**	.320**	.249**	.320**	.267**	.316**	.271**
21	Visual Management Tools	1.79	1.10	012	209*	095	086	012	019	.008	167*	.057	024	118	073	.120	016	040	.097	093	.344**
22	Pull Control Tools	1.24	.64	.083	085	.019	.040	021	.005	.076	.040	.107	.048	046	.069	.134	.074	.065	.053	050	.314**
23	Improvement Tools	2.03	1.06	.054	110	078	039	010	020	.005	013	.003	.006	067	085	.113	108	056	056	036	.422**
24	Kaizen Improvement Tools	1.57	.92	059	176*	058	112	105	.000	029	007	.047	018	032	057	.092	023	016	001	025	.370**
25	Lean Tools	1.66	.68	.081	063	.094	.112	.021	.064	.059	.058	.149	.090	024	.086	.265**	.088	.111	.054	013	.514**
26	Setup Reduction	2.59	.79	.037	100	.069	.039	.122	.039	.145	020	.088	.101	.059	.009	.217*	.047	.106	.102	.001	.274**
27	Visual Management	2.75	.95	003	162*	002	031	.007	.042	.043	097	019	.010	063	108	.161*	036	015	.083	050	.350**
28	Pull Control Practice	2.52	.94	.055	132	068	089	.030	.077	.087	038	.067	.110	004	038	.022	.045	.009	.096	013	.396**
29	Good Housekeeping	2.15	1.03	.023	246**	098	146	.002	025	014	005	.047	.027	044	033	.037	032	042	.013	.006	.477**
30	Group Technology	3.37	.80	.052	063	.001	.008	.211**	.001	.042	060	063	.046	.122	.031	.118	.028	.093	.009	.051	.279**
31	Lean Practices	2.67	.70	.054	238*	016	045	.110	.001	.070	074	.075	.100	.032	036	.159	032	.035	.091	.006	.493**
32	LEAN	2.22	.70	.176	051	.193	.199	.133	.128	.158	.084	.228	.187	.101	.187	.336**	.205	.253*	.201	.106	.575**
33	Size	2.99	.88	.089	055	.107	.052	047	.123	.102	.089	.125	.093	.133	.144	.027	.169*	.152*	.019	.113	.106
34	Hierarchical position	.86	.57	.043	.029	004	.019	.077	.101	.082	001	.050	.069	.015	.030	.073	029	.021	.052	.051	.125
35	Tenure	3.73	3.08	.058	.052	055	.008	035	022	052	.011	011	035	084	013	017	.038	025	131	012	.040
36	Education	5.65	.63	078	113	124	136	.016	146*	109	123	026	074	.041	136	060	121	081	029	124	062

		Mean	S.D.	19	20	21	22	23	24	Lean Tools	26	27	28	29	30	Lean Practices	LEAN	33	34	35
19	Improvement Stimulation	3.58	.68	.78																
20	CI-Culture	3.37	.77	.687**	.75															
21	Visual Management Tools	1.79	1.10	.261**	.184*	.71														
22	Pull Control Tools	1.24	.64	.126	.248**	.422**	.71													
23	Kaizen Improvement Tools	2.03	1.06	.340**	.240**	.335**	.370**	.81												
24	Kaizen Improvement Tools	1.57	.92	.071	.048	.552**	.480**	.320**	.68											
25	Lean Tools	1.66	.68	.266**	.283**	.764**	.741**	.659**	.772**	.69										
26	Setup Reduction	2.59	.79	.415**	.371**	.423**	.372**	.238*	.312**	.432**	.85									
27	Visual Management	2.75	.95	.401**	.354**	.646**	.404**	.363**	.457**	.597**	.527**	.74								
28	Pull Control Practice	2.52	.94	.247**	.203*	.449**	.505**	.254**	.485**	.499**	.543**	.576**	.85							
29	Good Housekeeping	2.15	1.03	.216**	.209**	.488**	.659**	.396**	.686**	.733**	.392**	.468**	.596**	.89						
30	Group Technology	3.37	.80	.240**	.147	.319**	.194*	.133	.316**	.341**	.322**	.419**	.320**	.281**	.70					
31	Lean Practices	2.67	.70	.410**	.373**	.678**	.657**	.399**	.694**	.779**	.720**	.831**	.840**	.799**	.628**	.82				
32	LEAN	2.22	.70	.585**	.719**	.687**	.716**	.537**	.653**	.866**	.610**	.755**	.661**	.761**	.492**	.876**	.87			
33	Size	2.99	.88	.081	.125	012	008	.136	.011	.100	137	.107	.020	027	.048	.030	.098	-		
34	Hierarchical position	.86	.57	.264**	.161*	.102	051	005	.042	.031	.165	.121	035	.071	$.160^{*}$	.108	.057	.021	-	
35	Tenure	3.73	3.08	.055	.012	.070	.106	008	054	.072	045	.012	032	001	068	062	003	195**	$.142^{*}$	-
36	Education	5.65	.63	060	072	039	.020	010	.047	.051	037	033	.031	.056	.098	.095	.068	.260**	.049	.001





#### APPENDIX A: SURVEY ITEMS & RELIABILITY AND ITEM STATISTICS

#### A.1. Lean practices

#### Set-up-reduction (SR)

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

In this business unit (location, department)...

employees are trained to reduce set-up time SR2 we have a structured method to reduce set-up time SR3 we continuously try to reduce set-up time

#### Visual management (VM)

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

In this business unit (location, department)...

signs, symbols and lines are used to indicate how process run, where material deliveries take place, what the walking paths are and where stock locations are.

VM2 a visual control system is present at the workplace that provides information about the production, quality and / or

VM3 information screens (that can been seen by everyone) are present that show performances (daily or weekly

performance).

VM4 up-to-date work instructions are present in any workplace and visualized by using characters (symbols), photos, and procedures. - not included in the final scale to increase AVE

#### Pull control (PC)

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

In this business unit (location, department)...

we have a method to keep the work in progress in the primary processes low and evenly (so that work flow and peaks

are avoided). - not included in the final scale to increase AVE

PC2 we work with pull-control, in which production is initiated from a real customer order.

PC3 we use a pull-control system

PC4 work at a particular machine / workstation is triggered by a pull-signal from a subsequent

machine / workstation.

#### Good housekeeping (GH)

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

In this business unit (location, department)...

GH1 all employees know what the 5S method.

GH2 for every workstation / workplace it is made clear what resources and tools are needed and what is actually

'unnecessary' to have present at the workplace. - not included in the final scale

GH3 everyone in the organization knows why 5S has been introduced and applied

GH4 all 'unnecessary' items removed (such as unused tools, rejected materials or scrap, personal materials, outdated

information). - not included in the final scale to increase AVE

#### Group technology (GT)

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

In this business unit (location, department)...

resources and/or workstations are grouped in such a way that each product family can be produced in a continuous GT1

flow - not included in the final scale to increase AVE

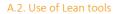
GT2 products and/or services are grouped by routing and/or similar process steps. products and/or services are grouped according similar activities and actions to produce the products and/or GT3

Table A.1. Reliability and item statistics for second order measurement model of Lean practices (Chi-square = 95,715, df. = 60, p = .002, CFI = 0.962, IFI = 0.963, TLI/NNFI = 0.994, NFI = 0.908, RMSEA = 0.055).

	Cronbach alpha for scale	Alpha if item deleted	Item-to- total correlatio n	Mean	SD	Item loadings	Average Variance s Extracte d
Set-up Reduction	0.846						0.610
SRC1		0.750	.752	2.59	.902	0.775	
SRC2		0.835	.665	2.49	.964	0.747	
SRC3		0.773	.727	2.69	.911	0.82	
Visual	0.735						0.521
VMC1		0.667	.445	2.57	1.177	0.589	
VMC2		0.571	.597	2.73	1.100	0.776	
VMC3		0.556	.611	2.73	1.176	0.784	
Pull Control	0.848						0.663
PCC2		0.724	.650	2.56	1.192	0.775	
PCC3		0.675	.755	2.51	1.009	0.875	
PCC4		0.712	.674	2.36	1.052	0.789	
Good	0.891						0.802
GHC1			.635	1.86	1.014	0.886	
GHC3			.626	2.05	.989	0.905	
Group Tech	0.700						0.538
GTC2			.528	3.37	.953	0.754	
GTC3			.527	3.38	.930	0.712	
LeanInfra							0.511
Chi-square =	CFI	0,962		Set-up Red	luction	0.739	
<i>df.</i> = 60	IFI	0,963		•	nagement (VMC)	0.831	
p = ,002	TLI/NNFI	0,994		Pull Contro	ol (PCC)	0.763	
	NFI	0,908		Good Hous	sekeeping (GHC)	0.654	
	RMSEA	0,055		Group Tec	hnology (GTC)	0.557	







Rage: 5-point Likert scale and the answering option 'Do not know'

1 – No, not at all, 2 – Yes, but only rarely, 3 – Yes, occasionally, 4 - Yes, on a regular basis, 5 – Yes, extensively

In this business unit (location, department) we make use of...

Visual management tools

VMT1 glass walls and/or white boards with performance indicators

VMT2 value stream maps on the shop floor and/or within the office

VMT3 visual quality control charts - not included in the final scale to increase AVE

Pull control tools

PCT1 kanban cards (system) PCT2 two-bin cards (system)

PCT3 takt times

Kaizen improvement tools

KIT1 PDCA improvement cycle

 ${\it KIT2} \qquad {\it Large kaizen events (kaizen improvement sessions that take longer than 1 day)}$ 

KIT3 Small kaizen bubbles (improvement sessions that take no longer than 1 day)

Root-cause analysis tools

RCT1 Fish-bone diagram (cause-and-effect diagrams)

RCT2 5Why's method

Table A.2. Reliability and item statistics for second order measurement model of Use of Lean Tools (chi-square = 32.682, df. = 31, p = .384, CFI = 0.997, IFI = 0.997, TLI/NNFI = 0.994, NFI = 0.943, RMSEA = 0.017).

	Cronbach		Item-to-total			
	alpha for scale	Alpha if item deleted	correlation	Mean	SD	Item loadings
Visual management tools	0.708					
VMT1			.504	2.06	1.517	0.754
VMT2			.504	1.8	1.222	0.673
Pull control tools	0.709					
PCT1		0.548	.582	1.27	.837	0.780
PCT2		0.635	.514	1.22	.832	0.753
PCT3		0.666	.487	1.27	.797	0.721
Kaizen improvement tools	0.808					
KIT1		0.888	.527	2.95	1.506	0.567
KIT2		0.617	.779	1.79	1.276	0.939
KIT3		0.703	.694	1.86	1.288	0.856
Root-cause analysis tools	0.684					
RCT1			.537	1.61	1.011	0.594
RCT2			.537	1.65	1.307	0.976
LeanTools	CFI	0,997				
Chi-square = 32,682	IFI	0,997		Visual manager	ment tools	0.872
<i>df.</i> = 31	TLI/NNFI	0,994		Pull control too	ols	0.878
p = ,384	NFI	0,943		Kaizen tools		0.586
	RMSEA	0,017		Root-cause ana	lysis toolsInstr.	0.825

CI-Culture – adapted from Huang, Rode & Schroeder (2011)

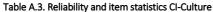
Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

management is actively engaged in continuous improvement.

CI2 there is a culture of continuous improvement.

CI3 continuous improvement is an important value that characterizes our culture.





	Cronbach alpha for scale	Alpha if item deleted	Item-to-total correlation	Mean	SD
CI-Culture	.75				
CI1		.77	.48	3.76	.81
CI2		.63	.62	3.20	.97
CI3		.56	.67	3.14	1.04

#### A.3. Lean Championship and improvement stimulation by management

Lean Championship – adapted from Flynn et al. (1999) and Douglas & Judge (2001).

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

LC1 upper management is a true ambassador of Operational Excellence / Lean management.

LC2 upper management shows championship to implement Operational Excellence / Lean management.

LC3 upper management advocates the use of the principles of Lean management.

Improvement stimulation – adapted from Flynn et al. (1999)

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

IS1 we receive timely feedback from management as we put forward ideas for improvement.

IS2 bringing forward suggestions for improvement is actively encouraged by management.

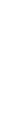
IS3 direct staff is actively involved in minor improvements.

IS4 higher management actively encourages employees to continuously improve their work.

IS5 direct staff is actively involved in major improvement projects (consisting of several improvement workshops).

Table A.4. Reliability and item statistics for first order measurement model of Lean Championship and improvement stimulation by management ( $\chi^2$  = 24.064, df = 13, p = .031, CFI = .964, IFI = .966, TLI/NNFI = .922, NFI = .928, RMSEA = .070).

			item-to-			14	Average
	alpha for scale	item deleted	total correlation	Mean	SD	Item Ioadings	Variances Extracted
Lean Championship	.67	ucicteu	COTTCIACION	IVICAII	30	loadings	.45
LC1		.65	.44	2.88	1.42	.54	
LC2		.50	.54	2.82	1.08	.86	
LC3		.58	.48	3.28	1.14	.55	
Improvement stimulation improvement tools	.78						.47
IS1		.77	.44	3.36	.86	.58	
IS2		.71	.63	3.75	.89	.77	
IS3		.73	.55	3.71	.96		
IS4		.71	.64	3.76	.87	.83	
IS5		.76	.50	3.32	1.07	.50	







Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

TI V1 Upper management has a long-term vision

TLV2 Upper management has a clear sense of where he/she wants our organization to be in 5 years. TLV3 Upper management has a clear understanding of where we are going with our organization. TLV4 Upper management has no idea where the organization is going (R) – not included in the final scale.

TL: Inspiring communication

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

Upper management says things that make employees proud to be a part of this organization. TLIC1

TLIC2 Upper management encourages people to see changing environments as situations full of opportunities.

TL: Intellectual stimulation

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

Upper management has challenged me to rethink some of my basic assumptions about my work.

THS2 Upper management has ideas that have forced me to rethink some things that I have never questioned before.

TLIS3 Upper management challenges me to think about old problems in new ways.

TL: Supportive leadership

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

Upper management behaves in a manner which is considerate of my personal needs.

TLS2 Upper management sees that the interests of employees are given due consideration.

TLS3 Upper management considers my personal feelings before acting.

TL: Personal recognition

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

TLP1 Upper management commends me when I do a better than average job.

TLP2 Upper management personally compliments me when I do outstanding work. TLP3

Upper management acknowledges improvement in my quality of work.

Table A.5. Reliability and item statistics for first order measurement model of Transformational Leadership ( $\chi^2 = 132.262$ , df = 67, p = .000, CFI = .948, IFI = .950, TLI/NNFI = .919, NFI = .903, RMSEA = .070).

		Alpha if	Item-to-				Average
	Cronbach alpha	item	total			ltem	Variances
	for scale	deleted	correlation	Mean	SD	loadings	Extracted
TL: Vision	.85						.69
TLV1		.76	.75	3.80	.99	.87	
TLV2		.72	.79	3.56	1.04	.87	
TLV3		.86	.64	3.82	.87	.70	
TL: Inspiring communication	.68						.51
TLIC1			.52	3.7	.94	.69	
TLIC2			.52	3.9	.84	.74	
TL: Intellectual stimulation improvement	.82						.61
TLIS1		.78	.65	3.7	.63	.76	
TLIS2		.77	.65	3.5	.64	.77	
TLIS3		.71	.72	3.6	1.00	.82	
TL: Supportive leadership	.77						.53
TLS1		.63	.45	3.6	.86	.77	
TLS2		.72	.49	3.6	.89	.69	
TLS3		.70	.53	3.5	.93	.72	
TL: Personal recognition	.78						.56
TLP1		.71	.61	3.73	.80	.72	
TLP2		.63	.68	3.84	.92	.79	
TLP3		.75	.57	3.41	.89	.73	





Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

Upper management gives us the information to do our work well.

SLE2 Upper management gives us the authority to take decisions which make work easier.

SLE3 Upper management encourages us to use our talents.

SLE4 Upper management helps me to further develop myself.

SLE5 Upper management enables us to solve problems instead of just telling us what to do - not included.

SLE6 Upper management offers abundant opportunities to learn new skills.

#### SL: Humility

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

SLH1 Upper management learns from the different views and opinions of others.

SLH2 Upper management learns from criticism.

SLH3 Upper management is open about their limitations and weaknesses.

SLH4 If people express criticism, upper management tries to learn from it. SI H5 Upper management is prepared to express their feelings.

SLH6 Upper management admits mistakes.

#### SL: Standing back

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

Upper management appears to enjoy subordinate's success more than their own success.

Alpha if

SLS2 Upper management stays in the background and gives credits to others.

Cronhach

Table A.6. Reliability and item statistics for first order measurement model of Servant Leadership ( $\chi^2$  = 115.138, df = 62, p = .000, CFI = .956, IFI = .957, TLI/NNFI = .936, NFI = .912, RMSEA = .066). Item-to-

	Crombach	Аірпа п	item-to-				Average	
	alpha for	item	total			Item	Variances	
	scale	deleted	correlation	Mean	SD	loadings	Extracted	
SL: Humility	.92						.61	
SLH1		.91	.79	3.59	.96	.80		
SLH2		.90	.82	3.54	.90	.82		
SLH3		,91	.76	3.39	1.02	.74		
SLH4		.90	.82	3.50	.88	.87		
SLH5		.91	.73	3.29	.96	.70		
SLH6		.91	.75	3.28	.85	.75		
SL: Empowerment	.81						.47	
SLE1		.79	.52	3.83	.80	.59		
SLE2		.79	.53	4.19	.66	.60		
SLE3		.77	.60	4.07	.75	.72		
SLE4		.73	.69	3.80	.92	.83		
SLE6		.76	.63	4.00	.74	.67		
SL: Standing back	.69						.56	
SLS1			.53	3.39	1.01	.88		
SLS2			.53	2.93	.86	.59		



Average



#### EL: Informing

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

ELI1 Upper management clearly explains company decisions.
ELI2 Upper management clearly explains company goals.
ELI3 Upper management explains rules and expectations.

ELI4 Upper management explains decisions and actions.

#### EL: Leading by example

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

ELL1 Upper management sets a good example how to behave.

ELL2 Upper management leads by example.

#### EL: Participative decision making

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

ELP1 Upper management encourages employees to express ideas/suggestions.
 ELP2 Upper management listens to ideas and suggestions from subordinates.
 ELP3 Upper management gives all employees a chance to voice their opinions.
 ELP4 Upper management considers ideas from employees even when they disagree.

#### EL: Showing concern / Interacting with the Team

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

ELS1 Upper management takes the time to discuss subordinate's concerns patiently.

ELS2 Upper management stays in touch and gets along with all his/her subordinates.

ELS3 Upper management finds time to chat with employees.

Table A.7. Reliability and item statistics for first order measurement model of Servant Leadership ( $\chi^2$  = 125.418, df = 45, p = .000, CFI = .950, IFI = .952, TLI/NNFI = .923, NFI = .912, RMSEA = .075).

	Cronbach	Alpha II	item-to-				Average
	alpha for	item	total			Item	Variances
	scale	deleted	correlation	Mean	SD	loadings	Extracted
EL: Informing	.87						.63
ELI1		.79	.81	3.72	.86	.88	
ELI2		.83	.73	3,67	.87	.83	
ELI3		.83	.71	3.57	.87	.76	
ELI4		.87	.62	3.79	.85	.68	
EL: Leading by example	.90						.83
ELL1			.82	3.49	.96	.91	
ELL2			.82	3.53	.91	.91	
EL: Participative decision making	.80						.50
ELP1		.74	.62	3.88	.79	.75	
ELP2		.71	.69	3.90	.77	.78	
ELP3		.76	.60	3.76	.75	.67	
ELP4		.78	.55	3.39	.86	.61	
EL: Showing concern	.71						.46
ELS1		.62	.54	3.87	.79	.66	
ELS2		.66	.49	3.52	.96	.72	
ELS3		.57	.56	2.23	.97	.66	





Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

CPB1 Upper management shows displeasure when work is below acceptable standards.

CPB2 Upper management lets us quickly know when performance is poorly.

CPB3 Upper management would reprimand subordinates if the work was below standard.

CPB4 When my work is not up to par, my manager points it out to me.

Table A.8. Reliability and item statistics for first order measurement model of T Contingent Punishment Behavior ( $\chi^2$  = 8.431, df = 2, p = .015, CFI = .982, IFI = .982, TLI/NNFI = .908, NFI = .977, RMSEA = .127).

	Cronbach	Alpha if	Item-to-				Average
	alpha for	item	total			Item	Variances
	scale	deleted	correlation	Mean	SD	loadings	Extracted
Contingent Punishment Behavior	.87						.62
CPB1		.85	.67	3.78	.76	.72	
CPB2		.83	.74	3.64	.88	.79	
CPB3		.83	.74	3.72	.78	.81	
CPB4		.82	.75	3.50	.83	.83	

#### A.8. Trust in/Loyalty to the Leader - Podsakoff et al. (1990)

Range: strongly disagree – strongly agree (5-point Likert scale)

TLL1 I feel quite confident that upper management will always try to treat me fairly.

TLL2 I have complete faith in the integrity of upper management.

TLL3 I have a clear sense of lovalty toward upper management.

TLL3 I have a clear sense of loyalty toward upper management.

TLL4 I would support upper management in almost any situation.

Table A.9. Reliability and item statistics for first order measurement model of Trust in/Loyalty to the Leader

	Cronbach	Alpha if	Item-to-				Average
	alpha for	item	total			Item	Variances
	scale	deleted	correlation	Mean	SD	loadings	Extracted
Trust in/Loyalty to the Leader	.81						.52
TLL1		.85	.67	3.79	.90	.93	
TLL2		.83	.74	3.99	.83	.88	
TLL3		.83	.74	4.26	.58	.51	
TLL4		.82	.75	3.99	.70	.42	





Author: Marcel van Assen (1969) (marcel@opx-instituut.nl) is a management consultant at OpX-Consultants BV and senior trainer at OpX-Instituut. His consulting and training experience covers various operations management, innovation/strategic management and change- & implementation issues. Marcel van Assen is also a distinguished professor of Operational Excellence for Services at Tias, School for Business and Society of Tilburg University and Technical University of Eindhoven, where he's responsible for various courses, workshops and master classes with respect to Operational Excellence.

He holds a M.Sc. in mechanical engineering from the University of Twente, a M.Sc. in strategy and organization from the Open University, and a Ph.D. in business administration from the Rotterdam School of Management, Erasmus University Rotterdam. He is coauthor of various articles and books.

OpX-Instituut / OpX-Consultants BV

KvK· 58403027

BTW: NL8530.24.418B01 B: Kruisbes 3, 7559RK Hengelo P: Postbus 8026, 7550KA Hengelo

T: 074-8512819