**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND EMPLOYEE
JOB SATISFACTION IN A COLORADO NONPROFIT ORGANIZATION**

**A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Management**

By

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to test the theory of servant leadership that relates servant leadership (independent or predictor variable) to job satisfaction (dependent or outcome variable) for employees in a Colorado nonprofit organization. There were five key findings for this study using the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) to measure both servant leadership and job satisfaction: (a) the OLA overall mean score (252.59) with item mean score (4.21) for servant leadership and the associated organizational health level (Org 5, Servant, Excellent Health), (b) the overall mean score (27.01) with item mean score (4.50) for job satisfaction and the associated organizational health level (Org 6, Servant, Optimal Health), (c) the statistically significant Pearson's correlation coefficient between servant leadership and job satisfaction ($r = .680$, $p < .001$, 2-tailed), (d) the coefficient of determination for servant leadership and job satisfaction ($r^2 = .463$), (e) and the statistically significant Pearson's correlation coefficient between the demographic category level in organization and job satisfaction ($r = -.225$, $p = .033$, 2-tailed). These key findings are consistent with the findings in past research with some of the highest scores for servant leadership and job satisfaction from the OLA survey. The high scores for servant leadership and job satisfaction from the OLA survey, coupled with the statistically significant correlations between job satisfaction and servant leadership and job satisfaction and level in the organization, indicate that servant leadership is a prominent variable affecting job satisfaction. Based on this overall conclusion, leaders in nonprofit organizations could focus on implementing servant leadership principles and behaviors in their respective organizations, with the associated increasing levels of job satisfaction and positive organizational outcomes.

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my lovely wife, Mary, and our wonderful son, David. I also

dedicate this dissertation to my fabulous parents, Bud and Marie Henning.

Acknowledgements

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Chapter One

Chapter One is organized by the following sections: (a) Topic Overview/ Background, (b) Problem Opportunity Statement, (c) Purpose Statement, (d) Research Question, (e) Hypothesis, (f) Theoretical Perspectives/Conceptual Framework, (g) Assumptions/Biases, (h) Significance of the Study, (i) Delimitations, (j) Limitations, (k) Definition of Terms, (l) General Overview of the Research Design, (m) Summary of Chapter One, and (n) Organization of Dissertation.

Topic Overview/Background

This study seeks to determine the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a nonprofit organization, specifically in the state of Colorado in the United States. This research includes the problem of low levels of job satisfaction in the United States (Cheng, Kan, Levanon, & Ray, 2014; Ray & Rizzacasa, 2012; Ray, Rizzacasa, & Levanon, 2013). These low levels of job satisfaction affect workers in all types of organizations, including nonprofit organizations (Bolton, 2011). There are several negative consequences associated with low levels of job satisfaction in employees (Aazami, Shamsuddin, Akmal, & Azami, 2015; Alsaraireh, Quinn Griffin, Ziehm, & Fitzpatrick, 2014; Buky Folami, Asare, Kwesiga, & Bline, 2014; Diestel, Wegge, & Schmidt, 2014; Fiori, Bollmann, & Rossier, 2015; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Reisel, Probst, Swee-Lim, Maloles, & König, 2010; Spector, 1997). While there are many variables that affect employee job satisfaction, leadership style is a prominent one (Bogan, 2004; Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Schneider & George, 2011; Society for Human Resource Management, 2015). Servant leadership is one leadership style that emphasizes followers' needs over leaders' needs (Greenleaf, 1996, 1998, 2002;

Russell & Stone, 2002). This leadership style appears to be appropriate for many nonprofit organizations (Ebener & O'Connell, 2010; Schneider & George, 2011; Spears, 2004).

Based on the researcher's personal experiences providing thousands of hours of volunteer service to nonprofit organizations over the last 5 years, the researcher is interested in research about nonprofit organizations. Since the basic purpose of most nonprofit organizations is generally service to other people, it makes sense that servant leadership may be appropriate for nonprofit organizations (Ebener & O'Connell, 2010; Schneider & George, 2011). Therefore, the research reflects a problem or opportunity in the field of management: to test the theory of servant leadership that relates servant leadership to job satisfaction for employees in a Colorado nonprofit organization.

Problem Statement

Job satisfaction in the United States is near the lowest level ever recorded (Cheng et al., 2014; Ray & Rizzacasa, 2012; Ray et al., 2013). According to The Conference Board's *Job Satisfaction: 2014 Edition* report, in 2013, 47.7% of workers were satisfied with their jobs (Cheng et al., 2014). Therefore, the majority of American workers were not satisfied with their jobs, amounting to tens of millions of workers dissatisfied with their jobs. This makes 8 straight years that less than half of American workers were satisfied with their jobs (Cheng et al., 2014). The rise in percentage of workers satisfied with their jobs in 2013 compared to 2012 was 0.4%, i.e., from 47.3% in 2012 to 47.7% in 2013 (Cheng et al., 2014). The lowest level ever recorded was 42.6% in 2010 and the highest level ever recorded was 61.1% in 1987, the first year the survey was conducted (Cheng et al., 2014; Ray & Rizzacasa, 2012).

Further, nonprofit organizations are not immune from low job satisfaction in their employees. Surveys conducted with nonprofit workers in the New York and Washington D.C. metropolitan areas revealed that 70% of workers found their jobs disappointing or only somewhat fulfilling (Bolton, 2011). One of the top reasons for the low job satisfaction was lack of respect, trust, and support by management (Bolton, 2011).

While research has been conducted on the effects of servant leadership on employee job satisfaction in nonprofit organizations (Amadeo, 2008; Drury, 2004; Thompson, 2002), such research has not been conducted in a nonprofit organization in Colorado. Since Colorado Springs is the 42nd largest city in the United States (United States Census Bureau, 2015), and since there are about 1,300 nonprofit organizations in the Colorado Springs area (Center for Nonprofit Excellence, 2014, 2015), it is a suitable location for an empirical study at a nonprofit organization. Therefore, the gap in the literature is the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a nonprofit organization in Colorado, specifically an education nonprofit organization at the elementary and secondary levels. The research in the area of this gap will yield a small but valuable contribution to the body of knowledge by providing another empirical study about the theory of servant leadership and its application in nonprofit organizations, the third largest industry in the United States (Salamon, Sokolowski, & Geller, 2012).

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this research is to test the theory of servant leadership (Berger, 2014; Greenleaf, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011) that relates servant leadership (independent or predictor variable) to job satisfaction (dependent or outcome variable) for employees in a Colorado nonprofit organization (Creswell, 2014; Field, 2013).

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Research Question

The research question is what is the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization?

Hypothesis

The hypothesis is there is a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization. The null hypothesis and alternate hypothesis can be stated in this way:

H_0: There is no relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization (null hypothesis).

H_1: There is a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization (alternate hypothesis).

For the 30 previous studies using a quantitative methodology on this research topic, 29 revealed a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, amounting to 97% of the studies (Amadeo, 2008; Anderson, 2005; Barnes, 2011; Berry, 2014; Caffey, 2012; Cerit, 2009; Chambliss, 2013; Chu, 2008; Chung, Jung, Kyle, & Petrick, 2010; Drury, 2004; Eliff, 2014; English, 2011; Erickson, 2013; Farris, 2011; Hebert, 2003; Inbarasu, 2008; Johnson, 2008; Jordan, 2015; Kong, 2007; McDonnell, 2012; McKenzie, 2012; Miears, 2004; Persaud, 2015; Rubino, 2012; Svoboda, 2008; Thompson, 2002; Van Tassell, 2006; Washington, 2007; Wilson, 2013). Only one study did not reveal a statistically significant relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, amounting to 3% of the studies (Brown, 2014). However, in this study, research participants perceived their leader negatively on four of the six servant leadership dimensions of the Organizational Leadership Assessment

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(OLA) survey used to measure servant leadership: (a) values people, (b) displays authenticity, (c) provides leadership, and (d) shares leadership (Brown, 2014; Laub, 1999). Therefore, the overwhelming majority of 30 empirical studies using a quantitative methodology revealed a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, regardless of the multiple instruments used to measure servant leadership (seven different instruments) and the multiple instruments used to measure job satisfaction (10 different instruments). This result also occurred regardless of the geographic location or the industry studied.

Theoretical Perspectives/Conceptual Framework

A theory should describe the causal relationships of a certain phenomenon, including predictions about outcomes when certain variables are involved (Sutton & Staw, 1995). Servant leadership is a recognized theory of leadership, with various models describing the antecedents, characteristics, and outcomes of servant leadership (Northouse, 2013; Parris & Peachey, 2013; Russell & Stone, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011). Robert Greenleaf is credited with starting the modern servant leadership movement in the 1970s (Andersen, 2009; Jones, 2011; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011). Additionally, servant leadership is a style of leadership that puts other people's needs before the leader's needs (Greenleaf, 2002; Russell & Stone, 2002). In his seminal work on servant leadership, Greenleaf (2002) described how the servant leader concept was conceived in the midst of the social turmoil of the late 1960s and early 1970s, where authoritarian leadership was often used.

Further, there are multiple definitions of job satisfaction and there are multiple theories of job satisfaction (Dormann & Zapf, 2001; Dugguh & Ayaga, 2014; Hackman

& Oldham, 1976; Herzberg, 1968; Hoppock, 1935; Locke, 1976; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Empirical research over the last several decades has helped to clarify the phenomenon of job satisfaction, the factors affecting job satisfaction, and the outcomes of job satisfaction (Henne & Locke, 1985; Herzberg, 1968; Hoppock, 1935; Spector, 1997; Wegge, Dick, Fisher, West, & Dawson, 2006; Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999). Finally, this research has identified some of the relationships among the various job satisfaction theories and other variables, such as leadership style (Schneider & George, 2011). Chapter 2 provides an in-depth description of the conceptual framework for this research, including the interrelationships among the various components of the study.

Assumptions/Biases

Over the last 5 years, the researcher has provided thousands of hours of volunteer service to various nonprofit organizations. During this time, the researcher observed a wide range of experiences for employees in nonprofit organizations, from very poor to very satisfying. Further, the researcher observed that leaders of nonprofit organizations can have considerable influence on the job satisfaction of their employees. Therefore, based on servant leadership theory (Greenleaf, 2002; Northouse, 2013; Russell & Stone, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011) and past research, the researcher has the assumption that servant leadership behaviors will relate positively to employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization. However, the researcher needs to be careful how this assumption affects his role as the researcher.

Significance of the Study

The United States has a substantial national problem of low job satisfaction among workers, with less than half of American workers satisfied with their jobs for 8

straight years (Cheng et al., 2014). These low levels of job satisfaction also affect

employees in nonprofit organizations (Bolton, 2011), the third largest industry in the

United States (Salamon et al., 2012). This study examines the relationship between

servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization. If

there is a positive relationship between the two variables, then applying this leadership

style in nonprofit organizations could be of interest to leaders and employees in similar

nonprofit organizations throughout the state of Colorado and the United States (Center

for Nonprofit Excellence, 2014; Roeger et al., 2012; Salamon et al., 2012).

Delimitations

There are 10.7 million paid workers in U.S. nonprofit organizations (Salamon et

al., 2012); over 142,000 nonprofit workers in Colorado (Center for Nonprofit Excellence,

2014); and under 18,000 nonprofit workers in the Colorado Springs area (Center for

Nonprofit Excellence, 2014). This study will be conducted in one of the hundreds of

nonprofit organizations in the Colorado Springs area (Center for Nonprofit Excellence,

2014, 2015). There are several types of nonprofit organizations in this region (e.g.,

hospitals, education, social assistance, nursing homes, and civic associations); however,

this study will focus on only one of these types of nonprofit organizations, education, the

second largest category of nonprofit organizations based on percentage of employees

(Salamon et al., 2012).

Further, there are several variables that affect employee job satisfaction (e.g.,

benefits, contingent rewards, communication, coworkers, leadership style, pay,

promotion opportunities, nature of work, and work conditions) (Bolton, 2011; Dugguh &

Ayaga, 2014; Herzberg, 1968, 1974; Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Society for Human

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Resource Management, 2015); however, this study will focus on only one of these variables, leadership style. The particular leadership style is servant leadership based on the theory of servant leadership (Greenleaf, 2002).

Limitations

First, there is a limitation for this study with the relatively small target population and sample size found within one nonprofit organization in Colorado Springs, restricting generalizability. Second, there is a limitation for this study with the use of quantitative surveys to capture data about complex phenomena such as servant leadership and job satisfaction. Servant leadership has many attributes that are difficult to capture in 60 Likert-style items on a survey. Participants may desire to elaborate on their answers but are unable to do so with the survey tool. Third, there is a limitation for this study with the use of quantitative surveys to capture the true perspectives of participants. Participants may feel uncomfortable providing honest answers if they have negative perceptions about the organization that they sense could be in any way traced back to them.

Definition of Terms

Job satisfaction: Job satisfaction is "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job and job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300).

Servant leadership: Servant leadership is "an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interest of the leader" (Laub, 1999, p. 81).

General Overview of the Research Design

Since hundreds of studies have been completed on servant leadership, the theory and research on this leadership style are moving beyond nascent to intermediate

(Edmondson & McManus, 2007; Sutton & Staw, 1995; Weick, 1995). Many of these studies used a quantitative methodology to further the mounting theory on servant leadership, since there was sufficient theory to identify related variables and to predict certain outcomes and relationships (Cerit, 2009; Chung et al., 2010; Jones, 2011; Schneider & George, 2011). In fact, 30 of 31 previous empirical studies directly related to the research topic of the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction used a quantitative methodology. Therefore, the quantitative research tradition applies to this study. This research will use a quantitative nonexperimental, cross-sectional research design for collecting survey data to calculate potential bivariate correlations between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, including regression analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Creswell, 2014; Joyner, Rouse, & Glatthorn, 2013).

There are about 19,000 nonprofit organizations employing over 142,000 workers in Colorado, equaling 8% of the workforce in the state (Center for Nonprofit Excellence, 2014). These Colorado nonprofit organizations earn $17 billion in revenue and hold over $30 billion in assets (Center for Nonprofit Excellence, 2014). There are about 1,300 nonprofit organizations operating in the Pikes Peak (Colorado Springs) region that employ over 18,000 workers nationally (Center for Nonprofit Excellence, 2014). This study involves a population of 130 employees (83 full-time employees and 47 part-time employees) at an education nonprofit organization in Colorado. This organization is a private kindergarten through 12th grade school with over 800 students. The Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), a 66-item measurement instrument, with

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60 servant leadership items and six job satisfaction items, was selected for this research (Laub, 1999).

Summary of Chapter One

This chapter included an overview of the research topic and an examination of the problem. This examination of the problem led to a specific purpose statement, research question, and hypothesis. Additionally, this chapter included a brief description of the theoretical perspectives for the research. This chapter also addressed assumptions and biases, the significance of the study, delimitations, limitations, and definitions of key terms. Finally, this chapter included a general overview of the research design for the study.

Organization of Dissertation

This dissertation is organized by the following chapters: (a) Chapter One: Introduction, (b) Chapter Two: Literature Review, (c) Chapter Three: Methods, (d) Chapter Four: Findings, and (e) Chapter Five: Discussion and Conclusion. Chapter One provided an introduction to the dissertation research. Chapter Two identifies and substantiates a gap in the body of knowledge that will be addressed by the study, and includes a conceptual framework which informs the research design. Chapter Three describes the applicable research tradition and the research design for the study. Chapter Four includes a presentation of the collected data and discussion of findings. Chapter Five includes further interpretation of the findings, as related to the research question and hypotheses, and applicable conclusions.

Chapter Two

This study seeks to determine the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a nonprofit organization, specifically in the state of Colorado in the United States. This research includes the problem of low levels of job satisfaction in the United States (Cheng, Kan, Levanon, & Ray, 2014; Ray & Rizzacasa, 2012; Ray, Rizzacasa, & Levanon, 2013). These low levels of job satisfaction affect workers in all types of organizations, including nonprofit organizations (Bolton, 2011). There are several negative consequences associated with low levels of job satisfaction in employees (Aazami, Shamsuddin, Akmal, & Azami, 2015; Alsaraireh, Quinn Griffin, Ziehm, & Fitzpatrick, 2014; Buky Folami, Asare, Kwesiga, & Bline, 2014; Diestel, Wegge, & Schmidt, 2014; Fiori, Bollmann, & Rossier, 2015; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Reisel, Probst, Swee-Lim, Maloles, & König, 2010; Spector, 1997). While there are many variables that affect employee job satisfaction, leadership style is a prominent one (Bogan, 2004; Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Schneider & George, 2011; Society for Human Resource Management, 2015). Servant leadership is one leadership style that emphasizes followers' needs over leaders' needs (Greenleaf, 1996, 1998, 2002; Russell & Stone, 2002). This leadership style appears to be appropriate for many nonprofit organizations (Ebener & O'Connell, 2010; Schneider & George, 2011; Spears, 2004).

Job satisfaction is near record low levels in the United States, affecting tens of millions of American workers, with the majority of workers dissatisfied with their jobs for 8 straight years (Cheng et al., 2014). These low levels of job satisfaction also affect millions of workers in nonprofit organizations, the third largest industry in the United

States (Bolton, 2011; Salamon et al., 2012). Past research indicated that low job satisfaction can result in increased levels of employee absenteeism, grievance expression, job stress, tardiness, and turnover and decreased levels of employee mental health, morale, organizational commitment, physical health, and productivity, negatively impacting organizations (Aazami et al., 2015; Alsaraireh et al., 2014; Buky Folami et al., 2014; Diestel et al., 2014; Fiori et al., 2015; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Reisel et al., 2010; Spector, 1997). When an employee leaves an organization, a new employee must be recruited, hired, and trained for the job. This turnover can be a time consuming and costly process (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000; Buky Folami et al., 2014).

There are many variables that affect employee job satisfaction, but one of the prominent variables is leadership style (Bogan, 2004; Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Schneider & George, 2011; Society for Human Resource Management, 2015). In fact, past research indicated that leadership and job satisfaction are the most effective predictors of employee intentions to leave nonprofit organizations (Schneider & George, 2011). Since the basic purpose of most nonprofit organizations is generally service to other people, it follows that servant leadership may be appropriate for nonprofit organizations (Ebener & O'Connell, 2010; Schneider & George, 2011). Servant leadership could lead to increased job satisfaction for nonprofit employees (Drury, 2004; Schneider & George, 2011).

Chapter Two is organized by the following sections: (a) Review and Discussion of the Literature, (b) Job Satisfaction, (c) Brief Overview of Leadership, (d) Servant Leadership, (e) Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction, (f) Gap in the Literature, (g) Conceptual Framework, and (h) Summary of Literature Review.

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Review and Discussion of the Literature

This study includes the following major elements: job satisfaction, servant leadership, and the nonprofit industry. The remainder of this chapter is a review and discussion of the existing literature, including the gap in the literature and a conceptual framework that describes the interrelationships among the major elements of this research.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been studied for decades (Herzberg, 1968; Hoppock, 1935; Spector, 1997). According to Dormann and Zapf (2001), job satisfaction is one of the best researched constructs in organizational psychology. In fact, Spector (1997) asserted that job satisfaction has been studied more than any other variable in organizations. However, in spite of this research, the majority of American workers are not satisfied with their jobs, amounting to tens of millions of workers dissatisfied with their jobs (Cheng et al., 2014). Past research indicated that low job satisfaction can result in increased levels of employee absenteeism, grievance expression, job stress, tardiness, and turnover and decreased levels of employee mental health, morale, organizational commitment, physical health, and productivity, negatively impacting organizations (Aazami et al., 2015; Alsaraireh et al., 2014; Buky Folami et al., 2014; Diestel et al., 2014; Fiori et al., 2015; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Reisel et al., 2010; Spector, 1997). In fact, past research indicated that leadership and job satisfaction are the most effective predictors of employee intentions to leave nonprofit organizations (Schneider & George, 2011).

National overview of job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction in the United States is near the lowest level ever recorded (Cheng et al., 2014; Ray & Rizzacasa, 2012; Ray et al., 2013). According to The Conference Board's *Job Satisfaction: 2014 Edition* report, in 2013, 47.7% of workers were satisfied with their jobs (Cheng et al., 2014). Therefore, the majority of American workers were not satisfied with their jobs, amounting to tens of millions of workers dissatisfied with their jobs. This makes 8 straight years that less than half of American workers were satisfied with their jobs (Cheng et al., 2014). The rise in percentage of workers satisfied with their jobs in 2013 compared to 2012 was 0.4%, i.e., from 47.3% in 2012 to 47.7% in 2013 (Cheng et al., 2014). The lowest level ever recorded was 42.6% in 2010 and the highest level ever recorded was 61.1% in 1987, the first year the survey was conducted (Cheng et al., 2014; Ray & Rizzacasa, 2012).

Nonprofit organizations are not immune from low job satisfaction in their employees. Surveys conducted with nonprofit workers in the New York and Washington D.C. metropolitan areas revealed that 70% of workers found their jobs disappointing or only somewhat fulfilling (Bolton, 2011). One of the top reasons for the low job satisfaction was lack of respect, trust, and support by management for employees (Bolton, 2011).

Theoretical perspectives.

Similar to leadership, there are numerous definitions of job satisfaction and no universal consensus for a single definition. For example, Hoppock (1935) provided one of the earliest definitions of job satisfaction: "any combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say, 'I

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am satisfied with my job' " (Hoppock, p. 47). Some 40 years later, Locke (1976) provided one of the most cited definitions in the literature for job satisfaction: "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job and job experiences" (p. 1300). Additionally, Spector (Spector, 1997) provided another definition for job satisfaction more than 20 years after Locke's definition: "Job satisfaction is simply how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. It is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs" (p. 2). Further, multiple theories have been developed to explain the phenomenon of job satisfaction (Dugguh & Ayaga, 2014). A theory should describe the causal relationships of a certain phenomenon, including predictions about outcomes when certain variables are involved (Sutton & Staw, 1995).

Herzberg (1968) developed the motivator-hygiene theory of job satisfaction (also known as the two-factor theory), which theorized that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction were determined by two primary factors: (a) motivation factors for job satisfaction and (b) hygiene factors for job dissatisfaction (Dugguh & Ayaga, 2014). Herzberg (1968) asserted that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction were not opposites but rather separate concepts; with the opposite of job satisfaction being no job satisfaction and the opposite of job dissatisfaction being no job dissatisfaction (Dugguh & Ayaga, 2014). Therefore, the objective would be to maximize factors that increase job satisfaction and to minimize factors that increase job dissatisfaction, thereby increasing job satisfaction and decreasing job dissatisfaction. Herzberg (1968, 1974) identified the motivation factors associated with job satisfaction that were distinctly separate from the hygiene factors associated with job dissatisfaction: (a) motivation factors (achievement,

recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth) and (b) hygiene factors (company policy and administration, supervision, relationship with supervisor, work conditions, salary, relationship with peers, personal life, relationship with subordinates, status, and security) (Dugguh & Ayaga, 2014). Finally, Herzberg (1968) described the motivator factors as intrinsic to the job and the hygiene factors as extrinsic to the job (Dugguh & Ayaga, 2014).

Hackman and Oldham (Hackman & Oldham, 1974, 1975, 1976) developed the Job Characteristics Model which theorized that job satisfaction is determined by the characteristics of a job, specifically five core job characteristics (autonomy, feedback from job skill variety, task identity, and task significance) that affect three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness of work, experienced responsibility for outcomes of work, and knowledge of the actual results of the work activities) (Dugguh & Ayaga, 2014; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hackman, Pearce, & Wolfe, 1978). Hackman and Oldham (1976) also acknowledged that the personal attributes of a worker had an impact on how the worker would respond to a job (Dugguh & Ayaga, 2014).

Weiss and Cropanzano (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) developed the Affective Events Theory of job satisfaction which theorized that the affective responses to work events influence a person's work attitudes such as job satisfaction (Dugguh & Ayaga, 2014; Wegge et al., 2006). This results in two categories of behaviors (a) affect driven behaviors and (b) judgment driven behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Affect driven behaviors occur directly from affective reactions to work events, based on emotions and mood, and are not mediated by a person's work attitudes (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). However, judgment driven behaviors are mediated by a person's work attitudes, based on

a cognitive component (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Finally, the Affective Events Theory acknowledges that affective reactions do not stay the same all of the time, but rather fluctuate based on moods and emotions at the time of an affective reaction (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Weiss et al., 1999).

Some authors have theorized that a dispositional approach to job satisfaction, where job satisfaction is largely determined by the characteristics of an individual, explains the observation that individuals in the same job may have differing levels of job satisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Klinger, 2008; Staw, Bell, & Clausen, 1986). Additionally, Judge et al. (1998) extended the research in this area by identifying four dispositional variables predicted to affect levels of job satisfaction: (a) self-esteem, (b) self-efficacy, (c) locus of control, and (d) neuroticism. A meta-analysis of dispositional factors affecting job satisfaction revealed indirect approaches accounted for about 30% of the variance in job satisfaction while direct approaches accounted for about 10 to 20% of the variance in job satisfaction (Dormann & Zapf, 2001).

In summary, there are multiple definitions of job satisfaction and there are multiple theories of job satisfaction (Dormann & Zapf, 2001; Dugguh & Ayaga, 2014; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Herzberg, 1968; Locke, 1976; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Empirical research over the last several decades has helped to clarify the phenomenon of job satisfaction, the factors affecting job satisfaction, and the outcomes of job satisfaction (Henne & Locke, 1985; Herzberg, 1968; Spector, 1997; Wegge et al., 2006; Weiss et al., 1999). Further, this research has identified some of the relationships among the various job satisfaction theories and other variables, such as leadership style (Schneider & George, 2011).

Factors affecting job satisfaction.

There is no single, universal list of factors affecting job satisfaction found in the literature. Herzberg's (1968, 1974) research identified the motivation factors associated with job satisfaction that were distinctly separate from the hygiene factors associated with job dissatisfaction: (a) motivation factors (achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and growth) and (b) hygiene factors (company policy and administration, supervision, relationship with supervisor, work conditions, salary, relationship with peers, personal life, relationship with subordinates, status, and security) (Dugguh & Ayaga, 2014). Factors associated with leadership style fell into the hygiene factors category with company policy and administration, supervision, and relationship with supervisor related to leadership style. In Herzberg's (1968) research, respondents expressed extreme job dissatisfaction with company policy and administration about 35% of the time, extreme job dissatisfaction with supervision about 20% of the time, and extreme job dissatisfaction with relationship with supervisor about 10% of the time. These three factors associated with leadership style accounted for the vast majority of extreme dissatisfaction with job events (about 65%), when compared with the remaining hygiene factors (work conditions, salary, relationship with peers, personal life, relationship with subordinates, status, and security), which added together accounted for about 35% of the frequency for factors leading to extreme dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1968). This list of factors affecting job satisfaction was developed decades ago; however, several of these factors are also mentioned in more current literature.

For example, Rad and De Moraes (2009) identified the following factors affecting job satisfaction for employees in public hospitals: (a) communication, (b) contingent

rewards, (c) coworkers, (d) fringe benefits, (e) nature of work, (f) pay, (g) promotion, (h) supervision, and (i) work conditions. Further, Dugguh and Ayaga's (2014) review of the literature revealed factors affecting job satisfaction in three distinct categories: (a) environmental (e.g., communication overload, communication under-load, superior-subordinate communications, employee recognition programs, and financial reward programs), (b) individual (e.g., positive emotions, negative emotions, positive moods, negative moods, genetics, and personality), and (c) psychological (e.g., work life, family life, and community life).

In survey studies conducted in nonprofit organizations, the following factors affected job satisfaction: (a) respect, trust, and support by management, (b) a compelling mission, (c) recognition and reward for hard work and outstanding performance, (d) pay, and (e) office politics (Bolton, 2011). The Society for Human Resource Management (2015) survey on job satisfaction studied 43 aspects of employee job satisfaction, identifying the top factors affecting job satisfaction in order of importance. Of note, the following factors affecting job satisfaction directly involved leadership, in order of importance: (1) respectful treatment of all employees at all levels (72%); (2) trust between employees and senior management (64%); (6) relationship with immediate supervisor (58%); (7) immediate supervisor's respect for my ideas (56%); (8) management's recognition of employee job performance (55%); (8) communication between employees and senior management (55%); (10) management's communication of organization's goals and strategies (52%) (Society for Human Resource Management, 2015). This study shows the prominent role that leadership plays in employee job satisfaction.

Outcomes of job satisfaction.

In his book on job satisfaction, Spector (1997) identified several potential effects or outcomes of job satisfaction: (a) job performance, (b) organizational citizenship behavior, (c) withdrawal behavior (absence, turnover), (d) burnout, (e) physical health and psychological well-being, (f) counterproductive behavior, and (g) life satisfaction. These outcomes are important to organizations operating effectively and efficiently; therefore, leaders in organizations have a vested interest in maximizing employee job satisfaction to potentially maximize organizational performance (Spector, 1997).

All of the factors affecting job satisfaction can have an effect on the outcomes of job satisfaction such as levels of (a) absenteeism, (b) grievance expression, (c) job stress, (d) mental health, (e) morale, (f) organizational commitment, (g) physical health, (h) productivity, (i) tardiness, and (j) turnover (Aazami et al., 2015; Alsaraireh et al., 2014; Buky Folami et al., 2014; Diestel et al., 2014; Fiori et al., 2015; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Reisel et al., 2010; Spector, 1997). For example, poor relationships with supervisors may result in increased levels of employee absenteeism, grievance expression, job stress, tardiness, and turnover and decreased levels of employee mental health, morale, organizational commitment, physical health, and productivity. Additionally, organizational leaders not recognizing good employee performance may result in increased levels of employee absenteeism, grievance expression, job stress, tardiness, and turnover and decreased levels of employee mental health, morale, organizational commitment, physical health, and productivity.

Nonprofit Industry

National overview of nonprofit industry.

The nonprofit industry is a powerful force in the United States. It is the third largest industry, behind retail trade and manufacturing, and accounts for 9.2% of the nation's wages and salaries, employing 10.7 million paid workers (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2015c; Salamon et al., 2012). In 2015, there were 1,532,250 nonprofit organizations comprised of 1,061,916 public charities (69% of total), 102,055 private foundations (7% of total), and 368,279 other types of nonprofit organizations (24% of total) (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2015c). This amounts to about 1 nonprofit organization for every 175 Americans (Roeger et al., 2012). About 60% of counties in the United States have less than 100 registered nonprofit organizations and 1% of counties have 5,000 or more registered nonprofit organizations (Roeger et al., 2012). The nonprofit industry includes more than 30 types of legal entities in the Internal Revenue Code for organizations classified as 501(c) organizations (Roeger et al., 2012).

In 2012, nonprofit organizations contributed $887.3 billion to the United States economy, amounting to 5.4% of the national gross domestic product (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014). Also, in 2012, nonprofit industry revenues totaled $2.26 trillion, expenses totaled $2.03 trillion, and assets totaled $4.84 trillion (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014). Further, in 2013, there were 62.7 million volunteers accounting for 8.1 billion hours of service that produced an estimated value of $163 billion (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014). Additionally, in 2013, 25.4% of the adult population in the United States volunteered with a nonprofit organization for an average of 129 hours per volunteer (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014).

The nonprofit industry is comprised of the following categories based on percentage of employees: (a) hospitals: 37%, (b) education: 15%, (c) social assistance: 13%, (d) nursing homes: 11%, (e) ambulatory health: 9%, (f) civic associations: 7%, (g) other: 4%, (h) arts: 3%, and (i) professional services: 2% (Salamon et al., 2012). Consequently, many (a) child care providers, (b) counselors, (c) doctors, (d) executives, (e) musicians, (f) researchers, (g) teachers, and (h) others have careers in the nonprofit industry (Roeger et al., 2012).

In 2010, the education portion of public charities accounted for 18% of all public charities, 16% of total revenue for all public charities, and 30% of assets for all public charities (public charities account for 69% of nonprofit organizations) (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2015c; Roeger et al., 2012). Additionally, in 2010, education public charities reported $248.0 billion in revenue, $241.6 billion in expenses, and $806.4 billion in total assets (Roeger et al., 2012). Education public charities are comprised of (a) elementary and secondary education (20% in number, 16% in revenue, 16% in expenses, and 11% in assets), (b) higher education (3% in number, 64% in revenue, 64% in expenses, and 63% in assets), (c) student services and organizations (12% in number, 2% in revenue, 2% in expenses, and 6% in assets), and (d) other education, including adult continuing education, libraries, parent-teacher groups, and special education (65% in number, 18% in revenue, 18% in expenses, and 20% in assets) (Roeger et al., 2012). Finally, in 2010, education public charities received revenue from the following sources: (a) fees for services and goods from private sources (61%), (b) private contributions (17%), (c) government grants (12%), (d) investment income (6%), (e) fees for services

and goods from government sources (3%), and (f) other income (2%) (Roeger et al.,
2012).

The 10 largest public charities in the United States, based on total assets, are (1)
President and Fellows of Harvard College (MA) = $72.8 billion; (2) Kaiser Foundation
Hospitals (OR) = $39.7 billion; (3) Stanford University Board of Trustees (CA) = $31.5
billion; (4) Yale University (CT) = $28.9 billion; (5) Trustees of Princeton University
(NJ) = $22.2 billion; (6) Howard Hughes Medical Institute (MD) = $19.7 billion; (7)
Kaiser Foundation Health Plan (OR) = $16.3 billion; (8) Trustees of Columbia University
in the City of New York (NY) = $14.6 billion; (9) Partners Healthcare System (MA) =
$13.4 billion; and (10) Dignity Health (CA) = $12.6 billion (National Center for
Charitable Statistics, 2015a). This list displays the prominent role of medical and
educational institutions in the nonprofit industry for the United States.

Colorado overview of nonprofit industry.

There are about 19,000 nonprofit organizations employing over 142,000 workers
in Colorado, equaling 8% of the workforce in the state (Center for Nonprofit Excellence,
2014). These Colorado nonprofit organizations earn $17 billion in revenue and hold over
$30 billion in assets (Center for Nonprofit Excellence, 2014). There are about 1,300
nonprofit organizations operating in the Pikes Peak (Colorado Springs) region that
employ over 18,000 workers nationally (Center for Nonprofit Excellence, 2014). About
80% of the nonprofit organizations in the Colorado Springs area have annual revenues
less than $1 million (Center for Nonprofit Excellence, 2014).

From 2000 to 2010, the 10 states with the highest growth in total revenue reported
by public charities (69% of nonprofit organizations) included Colorado at number ten: (1)

Arizona, (2) Idaho, (3) California, (4) Wyoming, (5) Wisconsin, (6) Louisiana, (7)

Nevada, (8) Kentucky, (9) Minnesota, and (10) Colorado (Roeger et al., 2012). Further,

from 2000 to 2010, the 10 states with the highest growth in expenses reported by public

charities (69% of nonprofit organizations) included Colorado at number nine: (1)

Arizona, (2) Idaho, (3) Wyoming, (4) California, (5) Virginia, (6) Wisconsin, (7)

Louisiana, (8) Nevada, (9) Colorado, and (10) Minnesota (Roeger et al., 2012). Finally,

from 2000 to 2010, the 10 states with the highest growth in assets reported by public

charities (69% of nonprofit organizations) included Colorado at number nine: (1)

Louisiana, (2) Delaware, (3) Arizona, (4) Wyoming, (5) Utah, (6) Wisconsin, (7)

California, (8) Idaho, (9) Colorado, and (10) Alaska (Roeger et al., 2012). Therefore,

from 2000 to 2010, Colorado experienced significant growth in total revenue, expenses,

and assets for its public charities in comparison to other states in America.

      The 10 largest public charities in Colorado, based on total assets, are (1) Catholic

Health Initiatives (Englewood, CO) = $6.6 billion; (2) Healthone (Glendale, CO) = $2.4

billion; (3) Catholic Health Initiatives Colorado (Englewood, CO) = $1.7 billion; (4)

Sisters of Charity of Leavenworth Health System (Denver, CO) = $1.4 billion; (5)

Portercare Adventist Health System (Englewood, CO) = $1.4 billion; (6) Colorado

Seminary (Denver, CO) = $1.3 billion; (7) University of Colorado Foundation (Denver,

CO) = $1.3 billion; (8) Children's Hospital Colorado (Aurora, CO) = $1.3 billion; (9)

Poudre Valley Health Care (Fort Collins, CO) = $1.0 billion; and (10) Exempla (Wheat

Ridge, CO) = $1.0 billion (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2015b). This list

displays the prominent role of medical and educational institutions in the nonprofit

industry for the state of Colorado.

In summary, the nonprofit industry is an influential force in the United States. There are hundreds of thousands of executive leaders in nonprofit organizations who can benefit from research that helps them to improve job satisfaction in their employees. In particular, research that reveals how leadership style can positively influence employee job satisfaction may benefit numerous leaders in nonprofit organizations throughout the United States.

Brief Overview of Leadership

There are hundreds of definitions of leadership and no universal consensus for a single definition (Northouse, 2013). In his book on leadership, Northouse (2013) provided this definition: "Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 5). From this perspective, leadership includes four major elements: (a) a process that transpires between a leader and followers, (b) involves influence between a leader and followers, (c) occurs in groups with a leader and followers, and (d) focuses on common goals for a leader and followers (Northouse, 2013). Based on this definition, leadership has existed throughout the history of human beings, from gathering food for tribal groups to selling products and services for multinational corporations.

There are several approaches to and theories of leadership. One of the first approaches was the trait approach to leadership. The trait approach theorized that leaders have unique traits that they are born with and that these traits could be identified to differentiate between leaders and followers (Northouse, 2013). Numerous studies were conducted during the 20th century, which never identified the definitive list of traits unique to all leaders (Northouse, 2013). One example of the trait approach is the Great

Man Theory offered by Thomas Carlyle in 1840, where great men arise at the appropriate time to lead in their particular generation (Carlyle, 2010). However, even after thorough research from Stogdill (1948) to Goleman et al. (2002), there still is no universal set of traits that distinguishes leaders from followers (Northouse, 2013).

In contrast, the skills approach theorized that leaders were made not born (Northouse, 2013). This approach focused on the skills required to become effective leaders and that these skills could be learned and further developed (Northouse, 2013). This approach was thoroughly studied during the second half of the 20th century; however, like the trait approach to leadership, researchers were unable to identify the definitive list of skills that predicted effective leadership in all cases (Northouse, 2013). One example of the skills approach is the three-skill approach offered by Katz (1955), which included technical, human-relation, and conceptual skills for leaders. A second example of the skills approach is the skills-based model of leadership offered by Mumford et al. (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000), which included (a) problem solving skills and (b) social judgment and social skills to drive leadership performance.

The style approach to leadership theorized that leadership could best be explained by what a leader does as opposed to who a leader is based on a set of leadership traits or leadership skills (Northouse, 2013). From this perspective, there is a distinctive difference between the style approach to leadership and the traits and skills approaches to leadership (Northouse, 2013). During the second half of the 20th century, researchers identified two primary types of behaviors that leaders used to influence their followers: task behaviors and relationship behaviors (Northouse, 2013). The style approach can be

thought of as a continuum where the emphasis could be solely on task behaviors at one extreme and relationship behaviors at the other extreme, with a multitude of combinations between the two extremes. One example of the style approach is the managerial grid developed by Blake and Mouton (1964), which provided a model for explaining five management styles, using a scale of 1 to 9 for concern for production coupled with concern for people: (a) 9,1 (exacting taskmaster): high concern for production coupled with a low concern for people, (b) 1,9 (leads by following): low concern for production coupled with high concern for people, (c) 1,1 (out of it): low concern for production coupled with low concern for people, (d) 5,5 (balancing act): moderate concern for production coupled with moderate concern for people, and (e) 9,9 (accomplishment and contribution): high concern for production coupled with high concern for people.

Further, the situational approach to leadership theorized that a leader could use more than one style of leadership based on the circumstances within an organization (Northouse, 2013). The situational approach provides flexibility for a leader to be more directive or more supportive with followers based on their levels of competence and commitment (Northouse, 2013). This approach recognizes that there may not be a single leadership style that is best for all situations. One example of the situational approach is the Situational Leadership Model, originally developed by Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard, which includes four levels of employee development and four leadership styles to address employee development, based on supportive behavior on one axis and directive behavior on the other axis: (a) style 1: directing (high directive and low supportive behavior), (b) style 2: coaching (high directive and high supportive behavior),

(c) style 3: supporting (high supportive and low directive behavior), and (d) style 4: delegating (low supportive and low directive behavior) (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993).

With the moral failings of many corporate leaders near the end of the 20th century and the beginning of the 21st century, the ethical approach to leadership theorized that moral principles applied to leadership and how leaders related to their followers and their organizations (Northouse, 2013; Parris & Peachey, 2013). Specifically, the five principles of ethical leadership are (a) respect others, (b) serve others, (c) show justice, (d) manifest honesty, and (e) build community (Northouse, 2013). Of the many leadership styles identified through the years, there are three styles that clearly included the ethical dimension: (a) transformational leadership, (b) authentic leadership, and (c) servant leadership (Northouse, 2013). Transformational leadership focuses on the leadership process and how leaders inspire followers to be more productive based on addressing the needs and motivations of followers (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2013). Authentic leadership focuses on the leader and follower relationship that must be transparent, ethical, and addresses the values and needs of followers (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Northouse, 2013). In contrast with transformational leadership and authentic leadership, servant leadership focuses on leaders being sensitive to the needs of followers and empowering them to reach their full potential (Greenleaf, 1996, 1998, 2002; Northouse, 2013; van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015).

In summary, there are numerous definitions for leadership and there are numerous approaches to and theories of leadership (Northouse, 2013). Empirical research over the last century has helped to clarify the antecedents and outcomes of the various leadership

theories (Northouse, 2013). Further, this research has identified some of the relationships among the various leadership theories and the outcomes, such as employee job satisfaction (Northouse, 2013).

Servant Leadership

Theoretical perspectives.

Robert Greenleaf is credited with starting the modern servant leadership movement in the 1970s (Andersen, 2009; Jones, 2011; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011). Servant leadership is a recognized theory of leadership (Northouse, 2013; Parris & Peachey, 2013). Additionally, servant leadership is a style of leadership that puts other people's needs before the leader's needs (Greenleaf, 2002; Russell & Stone, 2002). In his seminal work on servant leadership, Greenleaf (2002) described how the servant leader concept was conceived in the midst of the social turmoil of the late 1960s and early 1970s, where authoritarian leadership was often used.

Greenleaf (1991, 2008) described two extremes, with leader-first at one extreme and servant-first at the other extreme. A servant leader is a servant first and this servant nature cannot be taken away (Greenleaf, 1991, 2008). A servant leader brings this servant nature into the leadership role and it affects the behavior of the leader towards their followers (Greenleaf, 1991, 2008). Greenleaf (2002) also asserted that servant leadership requires tolerance for imperfection since there are no perfect people.

Further, Greenleaf described some of the characteristics of a servant leader. First, a servant leader listens to understand the problem (Greenleaf, 1991, 2008, 2002). This requires acceptance of and empathy for others to truly listen with the intent to serve others (Greenleaf, 2002). Greenleaf (2002) also identified foresight, awareness,

persuasion, conceptualizing, healing, and community as other characteristics of servant leadership.

After years of reflecting on Greenleaf's original writings, Spears (2004) identified the central characteristics of servant leadership: (a) listening, (b) empathy, (c) healing, (d) awareness, (e) persuasion, (f) conceptualization, (g) foresight, (h) stewardship, (i) commitment to people's development, and (j) building community. To better understand Spears' perspective, it is important to note that he served as the president and CEO of the Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant-Leadership (Spears, 2004). Based on the existing literature, Russell and Stone (2002) concluded servant leadership included the following functional and accompanying attributes: functional attributes of (a) vision, (b) honesty, (c) integrity, (d) trust, (e) service, (f) modeling, (g) pioneering, (h) appreciation of others, and (i) empowerment and accompanying attributes of (a) communication, (b) credibility, (c) competence, (d) stewardship, (e) visibility, (f) influence, (g) persuasion, (h) listening, (i) encouragement, (j) teaching, and (k) delegation.

However, this displays the fact that there is not a consensus on the attributes and characteristics of servant leadership. Further, one claim about servant leadership is that there is limited empirical research to support the theory of servant leadership (Andersen, 2009; Northouse, 2013; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011). After more than 40 years, there is still no consensus on the definition of servant leadership and the theory related to servant leadership (Berger, 2014; van Dierendonck, 2011). To support this point, van Dierendonck (2011) identified seven different measurement instruments for the construct of servant leadership, again revealing the lack of consensus on the theory and attributes of servant leadership: (a) Laub (1999); (b) Wong & Davey (2007);

(c) Barbuto and Wheeler (2006); (d) Dennis and Bocarnea (2005); (e) Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008); (f) Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora (2008); and (g) van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011).

Despite this lack of consensus, various authors have recommended the use of servant leadership in the nursing profession (Waterman, 2011), educational settings (Cerit, 2009; C. Crippen, 2005; C. L. Crippen, 2006; Hawkins, 2009; Stramba, 2003), public governmental agencies (Chung et al., 2010; Reinke, 2004), religious institutions (Ebener & O'Connell, 2010), and corporate businesses (Barnabas, Anbarasu, & Paul, 2010; Hu & Liden, 2011; Jones, 2011; Spears, 2004). These recommendations suggest that servant leadership is a viable alternative to use as a style of leadership in many different types of organizations and settings (Parris & Peachey, 2013).

Different authors have provided models of servant leadership and additional enhancements to servant leadership theory. For example, Russell and Stone (2002) developed a practical model of servant leadership which included values (core beliefs, principles); accompanying attributes (communication, credibility, competence, stewardship, visibility, influence, persuasion, listening, encouragement, teaching, delegation); functional attributes (vision, honesty, integrity, trust, service, modeling, pioneering, appreciation of others, empowerment); leading to organizational culture, employee attitudes and work behaviors, and organizational performance. In this model, job satisfaction fits into the employee attitudes and work behaviors.

In contrast, van Dierendonck (2011) developed a conceptual model of servant leadership which included the antecedents of culture, need to serve and motivation to lead, and individual characteristics; servant leadership characteristics (empowering and

developing people, humility, authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, providing direction, stewardship); leading to high quality leader-follower relationship and psychological climate; in turn leading to self-actualization with follower job attitudes (commitment, empowerment, job satisfaction, engagement), performance (organizational citizenship, behavior, team effectiveness), and organizational outcomes (sustainability, corporate social responsibility). In this model, job satisfaction fits into the follower job attitudes.

In further contrast, Northouse (2013) developed a model of servant leadership which included antecedent conditions (context and culture, leader attributes, follower receptivity), servant leader behaviors (conceptualizing, emotional healing, putting followers first, helping followers grow and succeed, behaving ethically, empowering, creating value for the community), leading to outcomes (follower performance and growth, organizational performance, societal impact). In this model, job satisfaction fits into the outcomes.

From a theoretical perspective, these models would predict that job satisfaction is positively affected by servant leadership, regardless of the differences among the models (Northouse, 2013; Russell & Stone, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011). The mechanism that allows servant leadership to positively influence employee attitudes, such as job satisfaction, is a leader's commitment to servant leadership attitudes and behaviors (Northouse, 2013; Parris & Peachey, 2013). A servant leader's attitude is to serve their followers and their highest priority needs (Greenleaf, 2002; van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015; van Dierendonck, Stam, Boersma, de Windt, & Alkema, 2014). Greenleaf (2002) contended that the best test of this servant leadership is the growth of

followers which, in turn, makes them (a) freer, (b) healthier, (c) more autonomous, (d) wiser, and (e) more likely to become servants of others also.

Based on the servant leadership characteristics (listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to people's development, building community), servant leaders manifest behaviors that allow followers to achieve their full potential (Northouse, 2013; Spears, 2004; van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015). For example, servant leaders listen to their followers to better understand their needs and goals and then commit to their personal and professional development (Northouse, 2013; van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015). Servant leaders use their power judiciously to serve the needs of others and, therefore, focus on persuasion rather than coercion or control (Spears, 2004). This leadership approach builds trust between the leader and their followers and empowers the followers to be more autonomous (Parris & Peachey, 2013; Russell & Stone, 2002). Consequently, as predicted by the various models, servant leadership should positively influence job satisfaction in employees as they personally and professionally develop and grow (Northouse, 2013; Russell & Stone, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011).

Finally, the research is showing a positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction (Barnes, 2011; Caffey, 2012; Cerit, 2009; Drury, 2004; Johnson, 2008; Jones, 2011; McDonnell, 2012; Miears, 2004; Schneider & George, 2011). This should be expected considering the attributes of servant leadership such as (a) vision, (b) honesty, (c) integrity, (d) trust, (e) service, (f) modeling, (g) pioneering, (h) appreciation of others, and (i) empowerment (Russell & Stone, 2002; Spears, 2004; van Dierendonck, 2011; Wong & Davey, 2007). These attributes have the potential to positively affect

employee job satisfaction, in particular, through trust, service, and empowerment. Therefore, servant leadership behaviors have the potential to positively affect employee job satisfaction.

Criticisms of servant leadership.

Anderson (2009) asserted that the primary purpose of managers in most private and public organizations is to achieve organizational goals whereas the primary purpose of the servant leader is to address the needs of the people in those organizations over organizational goals. Consequently, Anderson (2009) further asserted that several issues needed to be addressed to advance the theory of servant leadership: (a) a definition of servant leadership, (b) clarification on whether servant leadership is a behavioral pattern or a personality trait, (c) clarification on whether servant leadership is a matter of kind or a matter of degree, (d) a scientifically developed and tested instrument for servant leadership, and (e) investigation of the effects of servant leadership on organizational outcomes.

Additionally, Northouse (2013) identified several criticisms of servant leadership: (a) the contradictory title of servant and leadership can lead to the perception of a fanciful or whimsical theory, (b) researchers have been unable to reach consensus on a common definition or theoretical framework, (c) this theory has a utopian sound that conflicts with other more traditional approaches to leadership, and (d) it is not clear why conceptualizing is a defining characteristic of the theory.

First, concerning the issue of a universally accepted definition for servant leadership, this is similar to saying leadership cannot be effectively studied since there is no universally accepted definition. In fact, there are hundreds of definitions of leadership;

however, empirical studies of leadership continue unabated (Northouse, 2013). While it would certainly be more convenient and tidy if there was a single, universally accepted definition of servant leadership, complex phenomena such as leadership, servant leadership, and job satisfaction rarely experience this universal acceptance because researchers are often focused on certain facets of the phenomena. However, this does not mean that the phenomena cannot be studied, but rather that it is more difficult to study the phenomena.

Second, concerning the issue of a scientifically developed and tested instrument for servant leadership, van Dierendonck (2011) identified seven different measurement instruments for the construct of servant leadership: (a) Laub (1999); (b) Wong & Davey (2007); (c) Barbuto and Wheeler (2006); (d) Dennis and Bocarnea (2005); (e) Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008); (f) Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora (2008); and (g) van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011). For the 31 studies identified for this dissertation that researched the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, 30 used a quantitative methodology in some portion of the study, with 22 using the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), developed by Laub, to measure servant leadership. This amounts to almost 75% of the studies using the same measurement instrument, so there is some consensus forming around the OLA instrument for servant leadership. For the remaining eight studies that used a quantitative methodology to measure the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction, six different measurement instruments were used to capture data about servant leadership: (a) Servant Leadership Assessment Instrument (SLAI) (b) Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale (SLBS), (c) Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ), (d) Servant Leadership Survey

(SLS), (e) Chung et al. two dimensional measure of servant leadership, and (f) the Liden et al. multidimensional measure of servant leadership. Therefore, the scientifically developed and tested OLA developed by Laub was used in a large majority of the studies conducted to research the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction.

Third, concerning the issue of investigation of the effects of servant leadership on organizational outcomes, one outcome identified in the various servant leadership models is employee job attitudes, including employee attitudes about job satisfaction and the related organizational outcomes from those attitudes (Northouse, 2013; Russell & Stone, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011). For the 30 previous studies using a quantitative methodology to research the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, 29 showed a positive relationship between the two variables, regardless of the organizational setting. Therefore, the research is revealing a consistent pattern for one organizational outcome from the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction. As a note of caution, this relationship is correlational rather than causal and any conclusions drawn should take this into consideration.

Fourth, concerning the issues of the contradictory title of servant and leadership possibly leading to the perception of a fanciful or whimsical theory and the theory of servant leadership having a utopian sound that conflicts with other more traditional approaches to leadership, the theory of servant leadership has now been around for decades and the philosophy for millennia (Greenleaf, 2002; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). The servant leadership theory certainly does contradict some other more traditional approaches to leadership, from the ethical aspects to the less authoritarian and more

participative approach (Northouse, 2013). In this sense, the theory of servant leadership can be considered counterintuitive, with power focused on persuasion rather than control and coercion (Northouse, 2013; Spears, 2004). There are other leadership styles that include a moralistic tone, e.g., authentic leadership and transformational leadership (Northouse, 2013); however, this does not appear to be sufficient justification for dismissing or ignoring the respective theories.

Fifth, concerning the issues of clarification on whether servant leadership is a behavioral pattern or a personality trait and clarification on whether servant leadership is a matter of kind or a matter of degree, these issues require additional research. Since there is no single arbiter of servant leadership theory, these types of issues must be addressed by the research community at large. While the various servant leadership measurement instruments attempt to measure perceived servant leadership behaviors (van Dierendonck, 2011), the question remains at what point do the accumulated servant leadership behaviors result in a servant leader? Additionally, was this servant leader infused with these servant leadership behaviors at birth or were the servant leader behaviors learned and developed? From a logical standpoint, if servant leadership is a personality trait instead of a behavioral pattern that can be learned and developed, then research is limited to identifying the characteristics of the personality trait versus discovering how to learn and develop servant leadership behaviors. This focus on servant leadership as a personality trait does not seem to be the case in the literature.

Finally, concerning the issue of the lack of clarity as to why conceptualizing is a defining characteristic of servant leadership theory, Northouse (2013) asserted that additional research is required to address why conceptualizing is essential to the theory of

servant leadership. Northouse (2013) acknowledged that conceptualizing is a fundamental aspect of many leadership styles but questioned why conceptualizing is central to the theory of servant leadership. From Spears' (2004) perspective, servant leaders think beyond the daily issues to address problems in the future and conceptualizing is a hallmark of balancing daily issues with future organizational needs.

In summary, not all questions have been answered about the theory of servant leadership and additional research is required to address the unresolved issues (Berger, 2014). However, this is true for many leadership styles and is not cause for dismissing or ignoring those leadership styles. Instead, this is cause for additional research about servant leadership to address the gaps in the existing literature (Berger, 2014). Research about the theory of servant leadership continues several decades after Greenleaf initially wrote about this leadership style and this continued research needs to focus on criticisms such as those expressed here.

Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction

A careful search of the literature revealed 31 empirical studies directly related to the research topic of the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, with the phrase servant leadership and the phrase job satisfaction in the document titles for all 31 studies. Two studies were found in journal articles between 2009 and 2010 (Cerit, 2009; Chung et al., 2010), and 29 studies were found in doctoral dissertations between 2002 and 2015, located in the ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global database (Amadeo, 2008; Anderson, 2005; Barnes, 2011; Berry, 2014; Brown, 2014; Burden, 2014; Caffey, 2012; Chambliss, 2013; Chu, 2008; Drury, 2004; Eliff, 2014; English, 2011; Erickson, 2013; Farris, 2011; Hebert, 2003; Inbarasu, 2008;

Johnson, 2008; Jordan, 2015; Kong, 2007; McDonnell, 2012; McKenzie, 2012; Miears, 2004; Persaud, 2015; Rubino, 2012; Svoboda, 2008; Thompson, 2002; Van Tassell, 2006; Washington, 2007; Wilson, 2013). For the 29 doctoral dissertations, 25 used a quantitative methodology, three used a mixed methods methodology including a quantitative component, and one study used a qualitative methodology (Burden, 2014). The qualitative study will be excluded from this discussion since the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction is not quantified in the same way as the quantitative studies, making direct comparisons more challenging. Therefore, for the 30 studies using a quantitative methodology, 18 were conducted in an educational setting (one of two journal articles and 17 of 28 doctoral dissertations for a total of 60% of the studies). The remaining 12 studies were conducted in (a) hospitals (2), (b) the National Park Service, (c) churches, (d) the high tech industry, (e) a call center, (f) an engineer society, (g) the hospitality industry, (h) the U.S. Navy, and (i) an assortment of organizational types. Additionally, these 30 quantitative studies were conducted in a wide variety of locations, from individual states in the United States to the country of Turkey.

For the 30 studies using a quantitative methodology, the most frequently used measure for servant leadership was the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), with 22 occurrences. Therefore, the OLA was used 73% of the time in these studies to measure servant leadership. The Servant Leadership Assessment Instrument (SLAI) was used three times to measure servant leadership (10% of the studies), and five other instruments were used one time each to measure servant leadership: (a) Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale (SLBS), (b) Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ), (c)

Servant Leadership Survey (SLS), (d) Chung et al. two dimensional measure of servant leadership, and (e) the Liden et al. multidimensional measure of servant leadership.

For the 30 studies using a quantitative methodology, the most frequently used measure for job satisfaction was the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), with 11 occurrences. Therefore, the OLA was used 37% of the time in these studies to measure job satisfaction (the OLA contains a section of six statements to measure job satisfaction). Also, the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS) was used eight times to measure job satisfaction (27% of the studies), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was used four times to measure job satisfaction (13% of the studies), and seven other instruments were used one time each to measure job satisfaction: (a) Job Descriptive Index (JDI), (b) Spector job satisfaction scale, (c) Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), (d) Teacher Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (TJSQ), (e) Servant Leadership Relational Assessment (SLRA), (f) Chung et al. measure of job satisfaction, and (g) Dolbier et al. single item survey.

In summary, for the 30 studies using a quantitative methodology, 29 revealed a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, amounting to 97% of the studies (Amadeo, 2008; Anderson, 2005; Barnes, 2011; Berry, 2014; Caffey, 2012; Cerit, 2009; Chambliss, 2013; Chu, 2008; Chung et al., 2010; Drury, 2004; Eliff, 2014; English, 2011; Erickson, 2013; Farris, 2011; Hebert, 2003; Inbarasu, 2008; Johnson, 2008; Jordan, 2015; Kong, 2007; McDonnell, 2012; McKenzie, 2012; Miears, 2004; Persaud, 2015; Rubino, 2012; Svoboda, 2008; Thompson, 2002; Van Tassell, 2006; Washington, 2007; Wilson, 2013). Only one study did not reveal a statistically significant relationship between servant leadership and employee job

satisfaction, amounting to 3% of the studies (Brown, 2014). However, in this study, research participants perceived their leader negatively on four of the six servant leadership dimensions of the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) survey used to measure servant leadership: (a) values people, (b) displays authenticity, (c) provides leadership, and (d) shares leadership (Brown, 2014; Laub, 1999). Therefore, the overwhelming majority of 30 empirical studies using a quantitative methodology revealed a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, regardless of the multiple instruments used to measure servant leadership (seven different instruments) and the multiple instruments used to measure job satisfaction (10 different instruments). This result also occurred regardless of the geographic location or the industry studied.

Research in non-educational settings.

A careful search of the literature revealed 12 quantitative empirical studies conducted in non-educational settings directly related to the research topic of the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, with the phrase servant leadership and the phrase job satisfaction in the document titles for all 12 studies. One study was found in a journal article (Chung et al., 2010), and 11 studies were found in doctoral dissertations between 2003 and 2015, located in the ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global database (Amadeo, 2008; Chu, 2008; Erickson, 2013; Hebert, 2003; Johnson, 2008; Jordan, 2015; Kong, 2007; McDonnell, 2012; Persaud, 2015; Washington, 2007; Wilson, 2013). For the 11 doctoral dissertations, 10 used a quantitative methodology and one used a mixed methods methodology including a quantitative component. These 12 studies were conducted in (a) hospitals (2), (b) the

National Park Service, (c) churches, (d) the high tech industry, (e) a call center, (f) an engineer society, (g) the hospitality industry, (h) the U.S. Navy, and (i) an assortment of organizational types. Additionally, these studies were conducted in a wide variety of geographic locations in the United States.

For the 12 studies using a quantitative methodology, the most frequently used measure for servant leadership was the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), with nine occurrences. Therefore, the OLA was used 75% of the time in these non-educational studies to measure servant leadership. Three other instruments were used one time each to measure servant leadership: (a) Servant Leadership Assessment Instrument (SLAI), (b) Chung et al. two dimensional measure of servant leadership, and (c) the Liden et al. multidimensional measure of servant leadership.

For the 12 studies using a quantitative methodology, the most frequently used measure for job satisfaction was the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS), with five occurrences. Therefore, the MCMJSS was used 42% of the time in these non-educational studies to measure job satisfaction. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was used three times to measure job satisfaction (25% of the time), the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) was used two times to measure job satisfaction (17% of the time), and two other instruments were used one time each to measure job satisfaction: (a) Spector job satisfaction scale and (b) Chung et al. measure of job satisfaction.

In summary, for the 12 studies using a quantitative methodology in non-educational settings, 12 revealed a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, amounting to 100% of the studies. Therefore, all 12 empirical

studies using a quantitative methodology in non-educational settings revealed a positive

relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, regardless of the

multiple instruments used to measure servant leadership (four different instruments) and

the multiple instruments used to measure job satisfaction (five different instruments).

This result also occurred regardless of the geographic location or the industry studied.

Without an explicit statement by the researcher, it can be difficult to ascertain if a

study was conducted at a nonprofit organization in the non-educational settings.

However, two studies clearly involved nonprofit organizations (Amadeo, 2008;

Washington, 2007) and a third study involved churches (Kong, 2007), typically included

in the Internal Revenue Code classification for 501(c)(3) nonprofit organizations (Roeger

et al., 2012). First, Amadeo (2008) conducted a study in the northwestern United States

involving a target population of about 1,600 registered nurses, with 815 registered nurses

invited to participate and 313 registered nurses completing usable surveys (38.4%

response rate). Amadeo (2008) used the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) to

measure both servant leadership and job satisfaction for registered nurses in two

nonprofit acute care hospitals. The results of this particular study revealed a strong

correlation between perceived servant leader behaviors and registered nurse job

satisfaction in the two nonprofit acute care hospitals (r = .83, p < .001) (Amadeo, 2008).

Second, Washington (2007) conducted a study in the southern United States

involving a target population of 473 employees in five profit and nonprofit organizations

(community foundation, daycare, newspaper, and two municipal public works facilities in

different states), with 207 employees completing usable surveys (43.8% response rate).

Therefore, this study was not limited exclusively to nonprofit organizations, but rather a

combination of profit and nonprofit organizations. Washington (2007) used the Liden et al. multidimensional measure of servant leadership to measure servant leadership and the Spector job satisfaction scale to measure job satisfaction in five profit and nonprofit organizations. The results of this particular study revealed a positive relationship between perceived servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in the five profit and nonprofit organizations ($r = .52$, $p < .01$) (Washington, 2007).

Third, Kong (2007) conducted a study in Tarrant County, Texas, involving a target population of 145 multi-staff Southern Baptist Convention churches (pastors and ministers), with 102 survey packets sent to pastors and ministers of qualified churches and 72 pastors and 73 ministers completing usable surveys (70.6% response rate and 71.6% response rate, respectively). Kong (2007) used the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) to measure servant leadership and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ short-form) to measure job satisfaction in Tarrant County, Texas, Southern Baptist Convention multi-staff churches. The results of this particular study revealed a significant, positive relationship between the pastor's perception of the servant leadership tendency in their church and the pastor's job satisfaction ($n = 72$, $r = .577$, $p < .0005$, 1-tailed) and a significant, positive relationship between the minister's perception of the servant leadership tendency in their church and the minister's job satisfaction ($n = 73$, $r = .650$, $p < .0005$, 1-tailed) (Kong, 2007).

These three studies indicated that there was a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in disparate nonprofit organizations, from churches to hospitals. This positive relationship occurred even when two different measurement tools were used to measure servant leadership and three different

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measurement tools were used to measure job satisfaction. Finally, this result also occurred regardless of the geographic location; northwestern United States, southern United States, and Tarrant County, Texas.

Research in educational settings.

A careful search of the literature revealed 18 quantitative empirical studies conducted in an educational setting directly related to the research topic of the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, with the phrase servant leadership and the phrase job satisfaction in the document titles for all 18 studies. One study was found in a journal article (Cerit, 2009), and 17 studies were found in doctoral dissertations between 2002 and 2014, located in the ProQuest Dissertations and Theses Global database (Anderson, 2005; Barnes, 2011; Berry, 2014; Brown, 2014; Caffey, 2012; Chambliss, 2013; Drury, 2004; Eliff, 2014; English, 2011; Farris, 2011; Inbarasu, 2008; McKenzie, 2012; Miears, 2004; Rubino, 2012; Svoboda, 2008; Thompson, 2002; Van Tassell, 2006). For the 17 doctoral dissertations, 15 used a quantitative methodology and two used a mixed methods methodology including a quantitative component. The 18 quantitative empirical studies in an educational setting were conducted at the following levels: (a) higher education, both public and private (7 for 39% of 18 studies), (b) public elementary schools (3 for 17% of 18 studies), (c) public kindergarten through high school (3 for 17% of 18 studies), (d) public high schools (2 for 11% of 18 studies), (e) public middle schools (1 for 6% of 18 studies), (f) private high schools through higher education (1 for 6% of 18 studies), and (g) virtual educators (1 for 6% of 18 studies). Additionally, these studies were conducted in a wide variety of locations, from individual states in the United States to the country of Turkey.

For the 18 studies using a quantitative methodology, the most frequently used measure for servant leadership was the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), with 13 occurrences. Therefore, the OLA was used 72% of the time in these educational studies to measure servant leadership. The Servant Leadership Assessment Instrument (SLAI) was used two times to measure servant leadership (11% of the studies), and three other instruments were used one time each to measure servant leadership: (a) Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale (SLBS), (b) Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ), and (c) Servant Leadership Survey (SLS).

For the 18 studies using a quantitative methodology, the most frequently used measure for job satisfaction was the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), with nine occurrences. Therefore, the OLA was used 50% of the time in these educational studies to measure job satisfaction (the OLA contains a section of six statements to measure job satisfaction). Also, the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS) was used three times to measure job satisfaction (17% of the studies), and six other instruments were used one time each to measure job satisfaction: (a) Job Descriptive Index (JDI), (b) Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), (c) Teacher Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (TJSQ), (d) Servant Leadership Relational Assessment (SLRA), (e) Dolbier et al. single item survey, and (f) Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ).

In summary, for the 18 studies using a quantitative methodology in educational settings, 17 revealed a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, amounting to 94% of the studies. Only one study did not reveal a statistically significant relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, amounting to 6% of the studies (Brown, 2014). However, in this study, research

participants perceived their leader negatively on four of the six servant leadership

dimensions of the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) survey used to measure

servant leadership: (a) values people, (b) displays authenticity, (c) provides leadership,

and (d) shares leadership (Brown, 2014; Laub, 1999). Therefore, the overwhelming

majority of 18 empirical studies using a quantitative methodology in educational settings

revealed a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job, regardless

of the multiple instruments used to measure servant leadership (five different

instruments) and the multiple instruments used to measure job satisfaction (eight different

instruments). This result also occurred regardless of the geographic location or the level

of educational setting.

Without an explicit statement by the researcher, it can be difficult to ascertain if a

study was conducted at a nonprofit organization in the educational settings. For the seven

studies conducted at the higher education level, five were clearly conducted at private

educational institutions which could be nonprofit organizations (Drury, 2004; Inbarasu,

2008; Rubino, 2012; Thompson, 2002; Van Tassell, 2006). After additional investigation,

two of the studies were definitively conducted at 501(c)(3) nonprofit organizations

(Drury, 2004; Thompson, 2002). In all five studies, there was a positive relationship

between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction.

Since the research for this dissertation is for a kindergarten through 12th grade

(elementary and secondary) education nonprofit organization in Colorado, the closest

study to this research was conducted in a large private religious education organization

including high school (secondary) and higher education levels (Anderson, 2005).

Anderson (2005) conducted a study in the Rocky Mountain Region (Utah) involving a

population of 254 administrators and 457 full-time teachers from the Church Educational

System (CES) of The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (LDS Church), with

550 people invited to participate and 145 administrators and 285 full-time teachers

completing usable surveys (78.2% response rate). Anderson (2005) used the

Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) to measure both servant leadership and job

satisfaction for CES administrators and full-time teachers in six Utah counties. The

results of this particular study revealed a significant positive correlation between

perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction for administrators and full-time

teachers of the CES in six Utah counties (Anderson, 2005).

Therefore, of the 30 studies using a quantitative methodology to investigate the

relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, there is only one

study that comes close to the planned research for this dissertation at a kindergarten

through 12th grade (elementary and secondary) education nonprofit organization in

Colorado (Anderson, 2005). However, the Anderson (2005) study did not involve the

elementary level. Consequently, a gap in the literature has been discovered.

Gap in the Literature

While research has been conducted on the effects of servant leadership on

employee job satisfaction in nonprofit organizations (Amadeo, 2008; Drury, 2004;

Thompson, 2002), such research has not been conducted in a nonprofit organization in

Colorado. Since Colorado Springs is the 42nd largest city in the United States (United

States Census Bureau, 2015), and since there are about 1,300 nonprofit organizations in

the Colorado Springs area (Center for Nonprofit Excellence, 2014, 2015), it is a suitable

location for an empirical study. Therefore, the gap in the literature is the relationship

between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a nonprofit organization in Colorado, specifically an education nonprofit organization at the elementary and secondary levels. The research in the area of this gap will yield a small but valuable contribution to the body of knowledge by providing another empirical study about the theory of servant leadership and its application in nonprofit organizations, the third largest industry in the United States (Salamon et al., 2012).

Conceptual Framework

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
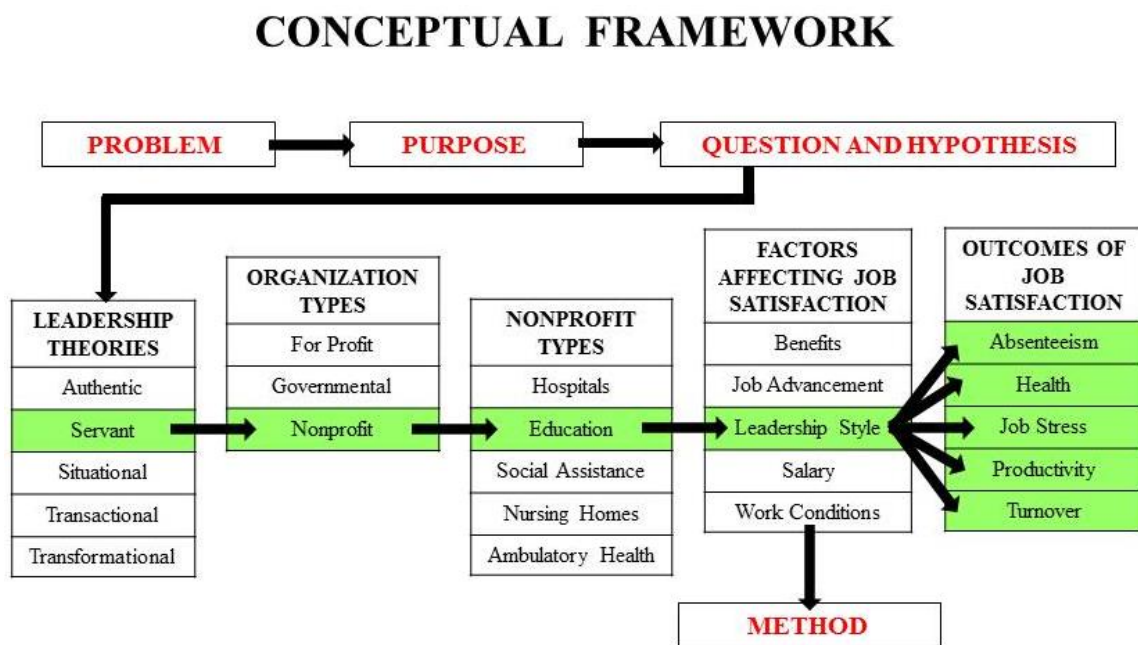
Figure 1. Conceptual framework.

Figure 1 starts with the problem for the research which is near record low levels of job satisfaction in the United States, affecting tens of millions of American workers, with the majority of workers dissatisfied with their jobs for 8 straight years (Cheng et al., 2014). This low job satisfaction also affects millions of workers in nonprofit organizations, the third largest industry in the United States (Bolton, 2011; Salamon et

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al., 2012). The purpose of this research study is to test the theory of servant leadership that relates servant leadership to job satisfaction for employees in a Colorado nonprofit organization. The research question is what is the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization? The hypothesis is there is a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization.

Figure 1 also shows the interrelationships among the various components of the study. The tables in this diagram are not intended to be exhaustive but rather to be representative (i.e., some leadership theories versus all leadership theories, some types of organizations versus all types of organizations, some types of nonprofit organizations versus all types of nonprofit organizations). There are many leadership theories available to study, including authentic leadership, situational leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership (Northouse, 2013). The leadership theory selected for this study is servant leadership (highlighted in green in the figure), since the theory of servant leadership includes attributes and a fundamental approach that cares deeply for the interests of employees in an organization (Russell & Stone, 2002; Spears, 2004; van Dierendonck, 2011; Wong & Davey, 2007). If an employee has low job satisfaction, a servant leader will investigate the reasons why and attempt to improve the employee's job satisfaction where possible (Northouse, 2013; van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2015).

There are multiple organization types and the type of organization selected for this study is nonprofit organizations, since it is the third largest industry in the United States and affects millions of employees (Salamon et al., 2012). There are many types of nonprofit organizations with the top five based on percentage of employees: (a) hospitals:

37%, (b) education: 15%, (c) social assistance: 13%, (d) nursing homes: 11%, and (e) ambulatory health: 9% (Salamon et al., 2012). The particular study for this dissertation will be conducted at a private kindergarten through 12th grade education institution (highlighted in green in the figure). Education is the second largest category in the nonprofit industry based on percentage of employees (Salamon et al., 2012). Additionally, of the 1,061,916 public charities in the United States (69% of nonprofit organizations), 18% were education public charities, with 20% of these education public charities falling into the elementary and secondary education category (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2015c; Roeger et al., 2012). Finally, within a specific Colorado education nonprofit organization, employee job satisfaction will be measured. While there are many variables that can affect employee job satisfaction, including benefits, job advancements, salary, and work conditions, the variable selected for this study is leadership style, specifically servant leadership. The various outcomes of job satisfaction, including absenteeism, grievance expression, job stress, mental health, morale, organizational commitment, physical health, productivity, tardiness, and turnover, should be affected by the levels of demonstrated servant leadership in a Colorado nonprofit organization. Therefore, a positive relationship is predicted between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado education nonprofit organization.

Summary of Literature Review

Low levels of employee job satisfaction continue to be a problem for many profit and nonprofit organizations, with several negative consequences (Aazami et al., 2015; Alsaraireh et al., 2014; Bolton, 2011; Buky Folami et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2014; Diestel et al., 2014; Fiori et al., 2015; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Rad & De Moraes, 2009;

Reisel et al., 2010; Spector, 1997). While there are many factors that influence employee

job satisfaction, leadership style is a prominent variable known to influence employee job

satisfaction (Bogan, 2004; Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Schneider & George, 2011; Society

for Human Resource Management, 2015) and, consequently, several outcomes of job

satisfaction (Lok & Crawford, 2004; Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Reisel et al., 2010). The

results of recent research (2002 through 2015) indicated that a particular style of

leadership, servant leadership, showed a positive relationship with employee job

satisfaction in a variety of organizational settings (Amadeo, 2008; Anderson, 2005;

Barnes, 2011; Berry, 2014; Caffey, 2012; Cerit, 2009; Chambliss, 2013; Chu, 2008;

Chung et al., 2010; Drury, 2004; Eliff, 2014; English, 2011; Erickson, 2013; Farris, 2011;

Hebert, 2003; Inbarasu, 2008; Johnson, 2008; Jordan, 2015; Kong, 2007; McDonnell,

2012; McKenzie, 2012; Miears, 2004; Persaud, 2015; Rubino, 2012; Svoboda, 2008;

Thompson, 2002; Van Tassell, 2006; Washington, 2007; Wilson, 2013). However, there

was no empirical research conducted exclusively in Colorado nonprofit organizations, in

particular, at elementary and secondary education institutions. This research seeks to

extend past research by studying the relationship between servant leadership and

employee job satisfaction in a Colorado education nonprofit organization.

The research methodology for this study is explored in the next chapter of the

dissertation. The theory on servant leadership has developed since its inception by Robert

Greenleaf in the 1970s (Greenleaf, 2002); however, there are multiple researchers and

authors who have asserted that the state of theory on servant leadership is limited

(Andersen, 2009; Berger, 2014; Northouse, 2013; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; van

Dierendonck, 2011). Edmondson and McManus (2007) articulated the concept of

methodological fit as a continuum, with the status of existing theory and research as nascent at one extreme of the continuum and mature at the other extreme of the continuum. If the status of existing theory and research is near the middle of the continuum, it can be considered intermediate (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). For nascent theory and research, a qualitative approach may be appropriate; for mature theory and research, a quantitative approach may be appropriate; and for intermediate theory and research, a mixed methods approach may be appropriate, including both quantitative and qualitative methods (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). Since hundreds of studies have been completed on servant leadership, the theory and research on this leadership style are moving beyond nascent to intermediate. Many of these studies used a quantitative methodology to further the mounting theory on servant leadership, since there was sufficient theory to identify related variables and to predict certain outcomes and relationships (Cerit, 2009; Chung et al., 2010; Jones, 2011; Schneider & George, 2011).

Chapter Three

Chapter Three presents the method to be used in the research as well as supporting information. Chapter Three is organized by the following sections: (a) Research Tradition, (b) Research Question and Hypothesis, (c) Research Design, and (d) Summary of Chapter Three. The Research Design section includes the following subsections: (a) Population and Sample, (b) Sampling Procedure, (c) Instrumentation, (d) Validity, (e) Reliability, (f) Data Collection, (g) Data Analysis, and (h) Ethical Considerations.

The purpose of this research is to test the theory of servant leadership (Berger, 2014; Greenleaf, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011) that relates servant leadership (independent or predictor variable) to job satisfaction (dependent or outcome variable) for employees in a Colorado nonprofit organization (Creswell, 2014; Field, 2013). A careful search of the literature revealed 31 empirical studies directly related to the research topic of the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, with the phrase servant leadership and the phrase job satisfaction in the document titles for all 31 studies. Of these 31 empirical studies, 30 used a quantitative methodology.

Research Tradition

The theory on servant leadership has developed since its inception by Robert Greenleaf in the 1970s (Greenleaf, 2002); however, there are multiple researchers and authors who have asserted that the state of theory on servant leadership is limited (Andersen, 2009; Berger, 2014; Northouse, 2013; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011). Edmondson and McManus (2007) articulated the concept of

methodological fit in management research as a continuum, with the status of existing

theory and research as nascent at one end of the continuum and mature at the other end of

the continuum. If the status of existing theory and research is near the middle of the

continuum, it can be considered intermediate (Edmondson & McManus, 2007). For

nascent theory and research, a qualitative approach may be appropriate; for mature theory

and research, a quantitative approach may be appropriate; and for intermediate theory and

research, a mixed methods approach may be appropriate, including both quantitative and

qualitative methods (Edmondson & McManus, 2007).

Since hundreds of studies have been completed on servant leadership, the theory

and research on this leadership style are moving beyond nascent to intermediate. Many of

these studies used a quantitative methodology to further the mounting theory on servant

leadership, since there was sufficient theory to identify related variables and to predict

certain outcomes and relationships (Cerit, 2009; Chung et al., 2010; Jones, 2011;

Schneider & George, 2011). In fact, 30 of 31 previous empirical studies directly related

to the research topic of the relationship between servant leadership and employee job

satisfaction used a quantitative methodology. Therefore, the quantitative research

tradition applies to this study.

Joyner et al. (2013) identified the following features about the quantitative

research perspective: (a) comes from the positivist epistemology where there is an

objective reality that can be measured by numbers and (b) uses concepts such as variable,

hypothesis, controls, reliability, validity, and statistical significance. Further, Bryman and

Bell (2011) noted that the quantitative research tradition included the following contrasts

with the qualitative research tradition: (a) numbers versus words; (b) point of view of

researcher versus point of view of participants; (c) researcher is distant versus researcher is close; (d) theory and concepts tested in research versus theory and concepts emergent from data; (e) static versus process; (f) structured versus unstructured; (g) hard, reliable data versus rich, deep data; and (h) artificial settings versus natural settings.

The quantitative research tradition has origins in the positivist and postpositivist epistemology with the following major elements: (a) determination, (b) reductionism, (c) empirical observation and measurement, and (d) theory verification (Creswell, 2014). First, the postpositivist view posits that causes may determine effects; therefore, research needs to examine probable causes that determine those effects (Creswell, 2014). Second, the postpositivist view reduces ideas into smaller parts to study; therefore, research needs to examine variables that make up hypotheses about a phenomenon (Creswell, 2014). Third, the postpositivist view contends that there is an objective reality in the world; therefore, research needs to measure that objective reality with quantifiable numeric measurements of participant behavior and attitudes (Creswell, 2014). Fourth, the postpositivist view maintains that there are theories that apply to the world; therefore, research needs to examine these theories to verify and refine the understanding of the world (Creswell, 2014).

Consequently, this study used the quantitative research tradition by testing the theory of servant leadership to ascertain if there was a relationship between the variables of servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization. This study used numeric measurements, based on quantitative survey instruments, to assess the perspectives of research participants. Therefore, the focus of this research study was consistent with the focus of the quantitative research tradition on (a)

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measurement, (b) causality, (c) generalization, and (d) replication (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

Research Question and Hypothesis

The research question for this study is what is the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization? The hypothesis is there is a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization. The null hypothesis and alternate hypothesis can be stated in this way:

H_0: There is no relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization (null hypothesis).

H_1: There is a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization (alternate hypothesis).

For the 30 previous studies using a quantitative methodology on this research topic, 29 revealed a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, amounting to 97% of the studies (Amadeo, 2008; Anderson, 2005; Barnes, 2011; Berry, 2014; Caffey, 2012; Cerit, 2009; Chambliss, 2013; Chu, 2008; Chung et al., 2010; Drury, 2004; Eliff, 2014; English, 2011; Erickson, 2013; Farris, 2011; Hebert, 2003; Inbarasu, 2008; Johnson, 2008; Jordan, 2015; Kong, 2007; McDonnell, 2012; McKenzie, 2012; Miears, 2004; Persaud, 2015; Rubino, 2012; Svoboda, 2008; Thompson, 2002; Van Tassell, 2006; Washington, 2007; Wilson, 2013). Only one study did not reveal a statistically significant relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, amounting to 3% of the studies (Brown, 2014). However, in this study, research participants perceived their leader negatively on four of the six

servant leadership dimensions of the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) survey used to measure servant leadership: (a) values people, (b) displays authenticity, (c) provides leadership, and (d) shares leadership (Brown, 2014; Laub, 1999). Therefore, the overwhelming majority of 30 empirical studies using a quantitative methodology revealed a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, regardless of the multiple instruments used to measure servant leadership (seven different instruments) and the multiple instruments used to measure job satisfaction (10 different instruments). This result also occurred regardless of the geographic location or the industry studied.

Research Design

This study used a quantitative nonexperimental, cross-sectional research design for collecting survey data to calculate potential bivariate correlations between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, including regression analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Creswell, 2014; Joyner et al., 2013).

Population and sample.

This study involved a population of 130 employees (83 full-time employees and 47 part-time employees) at an education nonprofit organization in Colorado. This organization is a private kindergarten through 12th grade school with over 800 students. Using the G*Power software program, an a priori power analysis indicated that to achieve a power of .80 with alpha = .05 (two tail) and a medium effect size of .30 required a total sample size of 84 (Faul et al., 2009; Faul et al., 2007; Field, 2013; Huck, 2012). Assuming a random sample, the Raosoft (2004) online sample size calculator

recommended a minimum sample size of 98 for a population of 130, a confidence level

of 95%, a margin of error of 5%, and a response distribution of 50%.

When making these calculations, the objective is to reduce the possibility of Type

I and Type II errors. Type I errors refer to rejecting H_0 when the null hypothesis is true

and Type II errors refer to not rejecting H_0 when the null hypothesis is false (Huck,

2012). For the power analysis above using the G*Power software program, the alpha (i.e.,

the level of significance) was set at .05 to specify the probability of making a Type I

error. Further, the power level was set at .80 to specify the probability of not making a

Type II error (Huck, 2012).

Sampling procedure.

This study involved a population of 130 employees at an education nonprofit

organization in Colorado with a minimum sample size of 98 to meet the requirements of

the G*Power a priori power analysis and the Raosoft sample size calculation (Raosoft,

2004). Since the population was so small, all 130 employees in this nonprofit

organization were invited to participate in the study, with the end result being based on a

nonprobability convenience sample of those who were available and willing to participate

(Bryman & Bell, 2011; Creswell, 2014; Huck, 2012).

Instrumentation.

Van Dierendonck (2011) identified seven different measurement instruments for

the construct of servant leadership: (a) Laub (1999): Organizational Leadership

Assessment (OLA)(Laub, 1999); (b) Wong & Davey (2007): Servant Leadership Profile

(SLP) (Wong & Davey, 2007); (c) Barbuto and Wheeler (2006): Servant Leadership

Questionnaire (SLQ) (Barbuto & Wheeler, 2006); (d) Dennis and Bocarnea (2005):

Servant Leadership Assessment Instrument (SLAI) (Dennis & Bocarnea, 2005); (e) Liden, Wayne, Zhao, and Henderson (2008): multidimensional measure of servant leadership (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008); (f) Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora (2008): Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale (SLBS) (Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008); and (g) van Dierendonck and Nuijten (2011): Servant Leadership Survey (SLS) (van Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011). Dr. James Laub developed the OLA in 1999 (Laub, 1999); therefore, it is the first and oldest of the seven different measurement instruments identified by van Dierendonck (2011). Further, based on the review of the literature for the research topic of the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, the OLA is by far the most widely used measurement instrument for servant leadership and the most widely used measurement instrument for job satisfaction.

For the 30 previous studies using a quantitative methodology on this research topic, the most frequently used measure for servant leadership was the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), with 22 occurrences (Amadeo, 2008; Anderson, 2005; Brown, 2014; Cerit, 2009; Chambliss, 2013; Chu, 2008; Drury, 2004; Eliff, 2014; Hebert, 2003; Inbarasu, 2008; Johnson, 2008; Jordan, 2015; Kong, 2007; McDonnell, 2012; McKenzie, 2012; Miears, 2004; Persaud, 2015; Rubino, 2012; Svoboda, 2008; Thompson, 2002; Van Tassell, 2006; Wilson, 2013). Therefore, the OLA was used 73% of the time in these studies to measure servant leadership. The Servant Leadership Assessment Instrument (SLAI) was used three times to measure servant leadership (10% of the studies) (Caffey, 2012; Erickson, 2013; Farris, 2011), and five other instruments were used one time each to measure servant leadership: (a) Servant Leadership Behaviour Scale (SLBS) (Barnes, 2011), (b) Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) (English,

2011), (c) Servant Leadership Survey (SLS) (Berry, 2014), (d) Chung et al. two dimensional measure of servant leadership (Chung et al., 2010), and (e) the Liden et al. multidimensional measure of servant leadership (Washington, 2007).

For the 30 previous studies using a quantitative methodology on this research topic, the most frequently used measure for job satisfaction was the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), with 11 occurrences (Amadeo, 2008; Anderson, 2005; Chambliss, 2013; Drury, 2004; Eliff, 2014; Inbarasu, 2008; McKenzie, 2012; Miears, 2004; Rubino, 2012; Svoboda, 2008; Wilson, 2013). Therefore, the OLA was used 37% of the time in these studies to measure job satisfaction (the OLA contains a section of six statements to measure job satisfaction). Also, the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS) was used eight times to measure job satisfaction (27% of the studies) (Brown, 2014; Cerit, 2009; Chu, 2008; Erickson, 2013; Farris, 2011; Hebert, 2003; Johnson, 2008; McDonnell, 2012), the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was used four times to measure job satisfaction (13% of the studies) (Jordan, 2015; Kong, 2007; Persaud, 2015; Thompson, 2002), and seven other instruments were used one time each to measure job satisfaction: (a) Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Van Tassell, 2006), (b) Spector Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) (Washington, 2007), (c) Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) (Barnes, 2011), (d) Teacher Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (TJSQ) (Barnes, 2011), (e) Servant Leadership Relational Assessment (SLRA) (Caffey, 2012), (f) Chung et al. measure of job satisfaction (Chung et al., 2010), and (g) Dolbier et al. single item survey (Berry, 2014).

The results from the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) survey include six dimensions of servant leadership (values people, develops people, builds

community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership); six levels of organizational health (toxic, poor, limited, moderate, excellent, and optimal); and job satisfaction (below average, average, and above average) for three levels of the organization (top leadership, management/supervisors, and workforce) (Laub, 1999, 2016a, 2016b). As an added benefit to the organization being studied, the OLAgroup prepares a report that (a) compares the studied organization with other organizations, (b) identifies servant leadership perceptions among the organization's leadership and workforce, (c) identifies job satisfaction levels among the organization's leadership and workforce, and (d) provides recommendations to improve the organization, where applicable (Laub, 2016b). For these reasons, the OLA was selected for this research study to measure both the servant leadership variable and the job satisfaction variable (see Appendix E).

Finally, the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) includes three segments in the survey instrument: (a) Section 1(items 1-21) applies to the entire organization including workers, managers/supervisors, and top leadership; (b) Section 2 (items 22-54) applies to the leadership of the organization including managers/supervisors and top leadership; and (c) Section 3(items 55-66) applies to the survey participant and their role in the organization (Laub, 1998). Items 1-60 measure servant leadership in six different subscales (values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership) and items 61-66 measure job satisfaction (Laub, 1998, 1999).

Validity.

In quantitative research, validity refers to accurately measuring the desired variable (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Creswell, 2014; Field, 2013; Huck, 2012). If a desired variable is not accurately measured, then it does not have validity. If a desired variable is accurately measured, then researchers can make appropriate inferences from scores on a measurement instrument, since the instrument has validity (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Creswell, 2014; Field, 2013). In this case, the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) survey included both the servant leadership variable and the job satisfaction variable. Laub developed the OLA measurement instrument using the Delphi method, including 14 experts in the field of servant leadership (Laub, 1999). These experts completed a three-part Delphi process (a) to identify the characteristics of servant leadership and then (b) to develop the 60 servant leadership items in the OLA and the six job satisfaction items in the OLA, for a 66-item measurement instrument (Laub, 1999).

Laub conducted a review of the literature that revealed numerous characteristics of servant leadership (Laub, 2000). For the first of three parts to the Delphi process, the 14 experts on servant leadership were asked to identify at least 10 characteristics of servant leadership and to then review the characteristics of servant leadership found in the literature to determine if any of these characteristics should be added to their individual lists (Laub, 1999). For the second of three parts to the Delphi process, the 14 experts were asked to review the compiled lists from round one with 67 items and to rank the items (ranks included essential, necessary, desirable, and unnecessary) (Laub, 1999). The experts were also asked to include additional characteristics if appropriate and three more were added at this point for a total of 70 items. For the third of three parts to the

Delphi process, the median and interquartile range of total response for each item were computed to identify the characteristics of servant leadership that were necessary or essential for describing a servant leader (Laub, 1999). Laub conducted a sign test on the interquartile ranges from rounds two and three which indicated that the 14 experts had moved to consensus on the items providing validation of the constructs for servant leadership (Laub, 1999).

Using the results from the Delphi method, Laub developed the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) with 74 servant leadership items and six job satisfaction items, with a Likert scale for each item, without using the words servant or servant leadership in the instrument (Laub, 1999). Using factor analysis, these 74 items could be placed into six potential subscore groups and two additional subscore groups (a) for assessing the organization and (b) for assessing the organization's leadership (Laub, 1999).

Laub conducted a pre-field test, with 22 people who were adult learners at two different colleges, and, after adjustments, conducted a field test with 828 participants from 41 different organizations in various states throughout the United States and the Netherlands (Laub, 1999). By identifying and eliminating the items with lower item-to-test correlations, the instrument items were reduced from 74 to 60 items about servant leadership, while still maintaining instrument validity (Laub, 1999). This reduction allows for participants to take a shorter Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA). It is important to note that there were no other servant leadership measurement instruments at this time with which to make comparisons or to establish concurrent validity (Field, 2013; Laub, 1999). The OLA has subsequently been used in numerous empirical studies,

further substantiating the validity and reliability of the instrument (Amadeo, 2008; Anderson, 2005; Brown, 2014; Cerit, 2009; Chambliss, 2013; Chu, 2008; Drury, 2004; Eliff, 2014; Hebert, 2003; Inbarasu, 2008; Johnson, 2008; Jordan, 2015; Kong, 2007; McDonnell, 2012; McKenzie, 2012; Miears, 2004; Persaud, 2015; Rubino, 2012; Svoboda, 2008; Thompson, 2002; Van Tassell, 2006; Wilson, 2013).

Further, Thompson (2002) conducted a Pearson correlation to determine the relationship between the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) job satisfaction score and the previously validated Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) short form score, with a resulting significant positive relationship between the two measures, $r(114) = .721$, $p < .01$, two tails. The r-squared, coefficient of determination, between the OLA job satisfaction and the MSQ short form was .52, indicating that 52% of the variability was explained by the relationship (Thompson, 2002). Therefore, due to the significant positive relationship between the OLA job satisfaction items and the previously validated MSQ short form, Thompson (2002) concluded the OLA was appropriate to measure job satisfaction. This validity has been repeated 11 times after Thompson's research where the OLA was used to measure the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction (Amadeo, 2008; Anderson, 2005; Chambliss, 2013; Drury, 2004; Eliff, 2014; Inbarasu, 2008; McKenzie, 2012; Miears, 2004; Rubino, 2012; Svoboda, 2008; Wilson, 2013).

Reliability.

In quantitative research, reliability refers to producing consistent results when measuring a desired variable (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Creswell, 2014; Field, 2013; Huck, 2012). If a desired variable is not consistently measured, then it is does not have

reliability. If a desired variable is consistently measured, then researchers can make appropriate inferences from scores on a measurement instrument, since the instrument has reliability (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Creswell, 2014; Field, 2013). It is important to note that an instrument can be highly reliable and yet not be valid (it does not accurately measure the desired variable). However, an instrument must have reliability to achieve validity (Huck, 2012).

For the 80-item Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) used during the field test (74 servant leadership items and six job satisfaction items), Laub's research resulted in an estimated reliability of .98 using Cronbach's alpha (Laub, 1999). Using Cronbach's alpha, the six-item job satisfaction portion of the OLA obtained an estimated reliability of .81 (Laub, 1999). When the 74 servant leadership items were reduced, the remaining 60 servant leadership items obtained an estimated reliability of .98 again, using Cronbach's alpha (Laub, 1999). Further, the six subscores of the OLA achieved the following estimated reliability using Cronbach's alpha: (a) values people = .91, (b) develops people = .90, (c) builds community = .90, (d) displays authenticity = .93, (e) provides leadership = .91, and (f) shares leadership = .93 (Laub, 1999). Finally, the two additional subscores achieved the following estimated reliability using Cronbach's alpha: (a) organization assessment = .95 and (b) leadership assessment = .98 (Laub, 2000).

To further support the reliability of the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), Miears' (2004) research resulted in an estimated reliability of .987 using Cronbach's alpha for the overall OLA (educational version). The six subscores of the OLA achieved the following estimated reliability using Cronbach's alpha: (a) values people = .925, (b) develops people = .936, (c) builds community = .919, (d) displays

authenticity = .935, (e) provides leadership = .935, and (f) shares leadership = .945

(Miears, 2004).

Additionally, calculating Pearson's correlation resulted in a significant (p < .01)

positive correlation of .635 between the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA)

servant leadership score and the job satisfaction score (Laub, 1999). This positive

correlation supports Laub's observation that the higher the score on the OLA (higher

perception of servant leadership characteristics in the organization), the higher the level

of job satisfaction (Laub, 1999). Laub also conducted an item analysis of the OLA, when

it was reduced to 60 items for servant leadership, with the lowest item-to-test correlation

of .41 and the highest item-to-test correlation of .79, indicating that all of the

measurement items had a strong correlation with the overall instrument (Laub, 1999).

Data collection.

This study used the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), developed by

Dr. James Laub in 1999, to measure both the servant leadership perceptions in the

organization and the job satisfaction of the research participants (Laub, 1999). This study

used the following strategy to collect data from the OLA surveys, after obtaining written

permission from the organizational leader. Hard copy surveys were provided in large

envelopes to a representative at the Colorado nonprofit organization that agreed to

participate. Each of the 130 envelopes included (a) an informed consent form for a

participant to sign prior to taking the OLA survey, (b) a demographic form for a

participant to fill out prior to taking the OLA survey (includes age, gender, and full-time

or part-time employee), and (c) one copy of the OLA survey for a participant to

complete. The organization's representative provided one large envelope to each

participant with written instructions to anonymously provide some basic demographic information and then take the OLA survey. The representative collected each survey for the organization, in an individually sealed envelope, and the researcher collected all completed surveys after a specified time period.

The signed informed consent forms were separated from each participant envelope and stored confidentially in a secure location. Then the anonymously filled out demographic forms and completed Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) surveys were assigned an individual number for tracking purposes, one number for each demographic form and survey. This approach allowed the researcher to double check entered data and to review data should the need arise. All of this collected data is stored confidentially in a secure location, separate from the signed informed consent forms.

Data analysis.

Data was collected by incorporating anonymous demographic data and responses to the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) quantitative survey measuring both servant leadership behavior and participant job satisfaction. The data from these documents were transferred into the IBM SPSS Statistics Version 24 program. Next, the applicable descriptive data and regression analysis calculations were generated to determine the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. This included determining whether or not there was a correlation, and if there was, if the correlation was positive or negative between the study variables.

Ethical considerations.

The Belmont Report provided basic ethical principles when dealing with human subjects (National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical

Behavioral Research, 1979). According to the report, there are three basic ethical principles: (a) respect for persons, (b) beneficence, and (c) justice (The National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, 1979). First, respect for persons included two basic ideas: (a) individuals are autonomous and (b) individuals with diminished autonomy should be protected (The National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, 1979). Second, beneficence included two basic ideas: (a) do not harm and (b) maximize possible benefits and minimize possible harms (The National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, 1979). Third, justice included five basic ideas: (a) to each person an equal share, (b) to each person according to individual need, (c) to each person according to individual effort, (d) to each person according to societal contribution, and (e) to each person according to merit (The National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, 1979). Therefore, justice has to do with who receives the benefits of the research and who bears the burdens of the research (National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical Behavioral Research, 1979).

Based on these basic ethical principles when dealing with human subjects, Bryman and Bell (2011) identified four main areas of ethical issues: (a) harm to participants, (b) lack of informed consent, (c) invasion of privacy, and (d) deception. Additionally, they provided other considerations for ethical issues: (a) data protection, (b) reciprocity between researcher and participants, and (c) declaration of funding sources and support (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Further, Creswell (2014) identified six ways to

ensure ethical behavior during the data collection phase: (a) respect the site, and disrupt as little as possible, (b) make sure that all participants receive the benefits, (c) avoid deceiving participants, (d) respect potential power imbalances, (e) avoid exploitation of participants, and (f) avoid collecting harmful information.

Based on the human subject protection concerns expressed above, there are four measures that were put in place to protect participants during the research for this study: (a) no harm to participants, (b) informed consent, (c) no invasion of privacy, and (d) no deception. Informed consent was central to implementing these human subject protection measures. Informed consent was obtained with a signature on an informed consent form prior to participants taking the surveys. Further, the informed consent form included (a) the purpose of the research study, (b) disclosure of how participants were asked to participate, (c) risks and benefits of being involved in the study, (d) how anonymity and confidentiality were addressed, (e) that participation was voluntary and participants could withdraw at any time for any reason, and (f) the name of a contact person to answer any questions (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Therefore, this study met all Colorado Technical University Institutional Review Board requirements for research dealing with human subjects.

Summary of Chapter Three

Chapter Three included the appropriate research tradition, the research question and hypothesis, and the research design for the dissertation. Based on the review of the literature for the research topic of the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) was by far the most widely used measurement instrument for servant leadership and the most widely

used measurement instrument for job satisfaction. Consequently, the OLA was selected for this study.

Finally, this study involved a population of 130 employees (83 full-time employees and 47 part-time employees) at an education nonprofit organization in Colorado, the second largest category of nonprofit organizations based on percentage of employees. This organization is a private kindergarten through 12th grade school with over 800 students. This study used a quantitative nonexperimental, cross-sectional research design for collecting survey data to calculate potential bivariate correlations between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, including regression analysis.

Chapter Four includes a presentation of the data and discussion of findings. It also includes participant demographics. For this study, Chapter Four includes a description of the data obtained during the collection phase. This includes tables and figures to bring further clarity to the collected data. Additionally, the findings will be applied to the research question and hypothesis.

Chapter Four

Chapter Four presents the research findings. Chapter Four is organized by the following sections: (a) Participant Demographics, (b) Presentation of the Data, (c) Presentation and Discussion of Findings, and (d) Summary of Chapter.

The research for this study was conducted at an education nonprofit organization in Colorado, the second largest category of nonprofit organizations based on percentage of employees (Salamon et al., 2012). This organization is a private kindergarten through 12th grade school with over 800 students. The organization has a population of 130 employees with (a) 92 females (70.8%) and 38 males (29.2%) and (b) 83 full-time employees (63.8%) and 47 part-time employees (36.2%). All 130 employees were invited to participate in the research.

Participant Demographics

This study used the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) survey instrument, developed by Dr. James Laub in 1999, to measure both the servant leadership perceptions in the organization and the job satisfaction levels of the research participants (Laub, 1999). From the population of 130 employees, there were 93 voluntary participants for a response rate of 71.5%. However, three participants did not complete all items in their assessments, with two participants each leaving one item without a response and one participant leaving three items without a response. Consequently, a total of 90 complete surveys were used for the study. The 90 participants had the following demographic data: (a) 65 females (72.2%) and 25 males (27.8%); (b) 3 ages 18-29 (3.3%), 41 ages 30-49 (45.6%), and 46 ages 50 and above (51.1%); (c) 73 full-time employees (81.1%) and 17 part-time employees (18.9%); and (d) 12 in top leadership

(executive staff and principals) (13.3%), 51 in management (faculty member) (56.7%),

and 27 in workforce (support staff) (30.0%). Table 1 displays the participant

demographic data including a cumulative percent for each category.

Table 1

Participant Demographic Data (N = 90)

Variable	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative percent
Gender			
Female	65	72.2%	72.2%
Male	25	27.8%	100%
Age			
18 – 29	3	3.3%	3.3%
30 – 49	41	45.6%	48.9%
50 and above	46	51.1%	100%
Employee			
Full-time	73	81.1%	81.1%
Part-time	17	18.9%	100%
Level in organization			
Top leadership	12	13.3%	13.3%
Management (faculty member)	51	56.7%	70.0%
Workforce (support staff)	27	30.0%	100%

Additionally, females (92) comprised 70.8% of the population of 130 employees

and males (38) comprised 29.2% of the population. Females (65) comprised 72.2% of the

sample of 90 participants and males (25) comprised 27.8% of the sample. Therefore, the

percentage of females in the sample (72.2%) was similar to the percentage of females in the population (70.8%). The percentage of males in the sample (27.8%) was similar to the percentage of males in the population (29.2%).

Further, full-time employees (83) comprised 63.8% of the population of 130 employees and part-time employees (47) comprised 36.2% of the population. Full-time employees (73) comprised 81.1% of the sample of 90 participants and part-time employees (17) comprised 18.9% of the sample. Therefore, the percentage of full-time employees in the sample (81.1%) was 17.3 percentage points higher than the percentage of full-time employees in the population (63.8%). The percentage of part-time employees in the sample (18.9%) was 17.3 percentage points lower than the percentage of part-time employees in the population (36.2%).

Finally, 70.7% of the females in the population participated in the study and 65.8% of the males in the population participated in the study. In contrast, 88.0% of the full-time employees in the population participated in the study, whereas 36.2% of the part-time employees in the population participated in the study. The part-time employees in the population participated at a much lower rate than the full-time employees in the population. Table 2 displays the similarity in participation by gender and the disparity in participation by employee.

Table 2

Percent Participation of Sample to Population for Gender and Employee

Variable	Sample frequency	Population frequency	Percent participation
Gender			
Female	65	92	70.7%
Male	25	38	65.8%
Employee			
Full-time	73	83	88.0%
Part-time	17	47	36.2%

Presentation of the Data

The researcher received permission from Dr. Laub to use the OLA (see Appendix A) and permission from the organizational leader to use the site to conduct the research (see Appendix B). On March 14, 2016, the researcher provided 130 large envelopes to a representative at the Colorado nonprofit organization. Each envelope included (a) important instructions, (b) an informed consent form for a participant to sign prior to taking the OLA survey (see Appendix C), (c) a demographic information form for a participant to fill out prior to taking the OLA survey (including gender, age, full-time or part-time employee, and level in the organization) (see Appendix D), and (d) one copy of the OLA survey for a participant to complete (see Appendix E). The organization's representative distributed the large envelopes so that each participant received a large envelope with written instructions to anonymously provide some basic demographic information and then take the OLA survey. The representative collected each completed

survey for the organization, in an individually sealed envelope, and the researcher collected all completed surveys.

The researcher separated the signed informed consent form from each participant envelope to store confidentially in a secure location. Then each participant's anonymously filled out demographic information form and completed OLA survey were assigned an individual case number (from 1 – 93) for tracking purposes. This approach allowed the researcher to (a) associate the collected data with an individual case (from 1 – 93), (b) double check entered data for each individual case (a filled in demographic information form and a completed OLA survey), and (c) to review data by individual case should the need arise in the future. All of this collected data was stored confidentially in a secure location, separate from the signed informed consent forms.

First, the researcher entered the data collected from the completed hard copy OLA surveys into the OLAgroup database. Second, the researcher received an OLA raw data report (in Microsoft Excel format) from the OLAgroup. Third, the researcher imported the raw data report content into the IBM SPSS Statistics Version 24 program for data analysis.

OLA survey results.

The OLA survey includes 60 items to measure servant leadership (divided into 6 subscores (a) values people, (b) develops people, (c) builds community, (d) displays authenticity, (e) provides leadership, and (f) shares leadership) and six items to measure job satisfaction (see Appendix E, Appendix F, and Appendix G). For each survey item, a participant selected a Likert-style response: (a) 1 = strongly disagree, (b) 2 = disagree, (c) 3 = undecided, (d) 4 = agree, and (e) 5 = strongly agree.

Since there were 90 complete OLA surveys for this study, with 60 items for servant leadership and six items for job satisfaction, there were 5,400 responses for the servant leadership items and 540 responses for the job satisfaction items, for a total of 5,940 responses to 66 survey items. Table 3 displays the frequencies of scores, percent, cumulative percent, overall mean score, and item mean score for the 60 servant leadership items and the six job satisfaction items.

Table 3

Distribution of Scores for Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction Items (N = 90)

Score	Servant leadership (60 items)			Job satisfaction (6 items)		
	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative percent	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative percent
1	30	0.6%	0.6%	3	0.6%	0.6%
2	164	3.0%	3.6%	6	1.1%	1.7%
3	650	12.0%	15.6%	23	4.3%	6.0%
4	2,355	43.6%	59.2%	193	35.7%	41.7%
5	2,201	40.8%	100%	315	58.3%	100%
Total	5,400			540		
Overall mean	252.59			27.01		
Item mean	4.21			4.50		

The item mean score was used to place organizations into six levels of organizational health based on OLA survey results: (a) Autocratic (Toxic Health), (b) Autocratic (Poor Health), (c) Negative Paternalistic (Limited Health), (d) Positive Paternalistic (Moderate Health), (e) Servant (Excellent Health), and (f) Servant (Optimal

Health). Appendix J provides more detailed descriptions of all six organizational health levels. This organization received an item mean score of 4.21 for the 60 servant leadership OLA survey items. Additionally, this organization received an item mean score of 4.50 for the six job satisfaction survey items.

Table 4 displays how the OLAgroup characterizes these item mean scores. For the 4.21 item mean score for the 60 servant leadership OLA survey items (see Table 3), this organization was in the score range of 4.0 – 4.49 for an Org 5 level identified as servant organization with excellent health. For the 4.50 item mean score for the six job satisfaction OLA survey items (see Table 3), this organization was in the score range of 4.5 – 5.00 for an Org 6 level identified as servant organization with optimal health. Therefore, this organization can be characterized as a servant organization with job satisfaction at the highest level of organizational health. It is important to note that the OLAgroup identifies the level of organizational health in its 26-page report for this study based on the responses of the workforce in the organization. For this study, the workforce responses resulted in an Org 5 level identified as servant organization with excellent health. For the workforce category, the mean score was 250.56 out of a maximum possible score of 300 and the item mean score was 4.18 out of a maximum possible item mean score of 5 (see Table 9).

Table 4

Score Ranges to Determine Six OLA Organizational Health Levels

Score range	Organization level	Title (description)
1.0 to 1.99	Org 1	Autocratic (toxic health)
2.0 to 2.99	Org 2	Autocratic (poor health)
3.0 to 3.49	Org 3	Negative paternalistic (limited health)
3.5 to 3.99	Org 4	Positive paternalistic (moderate health)
4.0 to 4.49	Org 5	Servant (excellent health)
4.5 to 5.00	Org 6	Servant (optimal health)

OLA survey subscore results.

The OLA survey has nine different subscores: (a) values people, (b) develops people, (c) builds community, (d) displays authenticity, (e) provides leadership, (f) shares leadership, (g) job satisfaction scale, (h) organization, and (i) leadership (see Appendix F, Appendix G, Appendix H, and Appendix I). Table 5 displays this organization's results for the nine subscores. The table identifies the nine OLA subscores and the specific items in the OLA survey used to measure the subscore. Additionally, the table identifies the overall mean score for each subscore and then an item mean score for each subscore. Table 4 displays the score ranges for item mean scores that can be used to identify the organizational health level.

Table 5

Nine OLA Survey Subscores (N = 90)

Subscore	Scores	
	Mean	Item mean
Values people (10 items: 1, 4, 9, 15, 19, 52, 54, 55, 57, 63)	43.52	4.35
Develops people (9 items: 20, 31, 37, 40, 42, 44, 46, 50, 59)	37.63	4.18
Builds community (10 items: 7, 8, 12, 13, 16, 18, 21, 25, 38, 47)	42.13	4.21
Displays authenticity (12 items: 3, 6, 10, 11, 23, 28, 32, 33, 35, 43, 51, 61)	50.43	4.20
Provides leadership (9 items: 2, 5, 14, 22, 27, 30, 36, 45, 49)	37.30	4.14
Shares leadership (10 items: 17, 24, 26, 29, 34, 39, 41, 48, 53, 65)	41.57	4.16
Job satisfaction scale (6 items: 56, 58, 60, 62, 64, 66)	27.01	4.50
Organization (22 items: 1 -21, 65)	93.74	4.26
Leadership (38 items: 22-55, 57, 59, 61, 63)	158.84	4.18

Based on Table 4, eight of nine item mean subscores in Table 5 were in the score range of 4.0 – 4.49 for an Org 5 level identified as servant organization with excellent health. One of nine item mean subscores, the job satisfaction scale, was in the score range of 4.5 – 5.00 for an Org 6 level identified as servant organization with optimal health.

Finally, Table 6 displays descriptive data for the nine OLA survey subscores, including Cronbach's alpha for estimated reliability of the respective subscores. For each subscore, the table includes (a) the number of survey items in the subscore, (b) the individual minimum score and the individual maximum score for a subscore, (c) the range between the minimum and maximum scores, (d) the overall mean score for the subscore, (e) the standard deviation for the subscore, (f) the item mean score for the

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subscore, and (g) the estimated reliability for the subscore using Cronbach's alpha. The

table also includes an entry for the servant leadership total score (60 items) which is a

combination of the six servant leadership subscores.

Table 6

Descriptive Data and Cronbach's Alpha for OLA Survey Subscores and Servant

Leadership Total (N = 90)

Variable	Items	Min	Max	Range	Mean	Std. dev.	Item mean	Alpha
Values people	10	28	50	22	43.52	5.117	4.35	.908
Develops people	9	15	45	30	37.63	5.345	4.18	.901
Builds community	10	27	50	23	42.13	5.484	4.21	.885
Displays authenticity	12	32	60	28	50.43	7.047	4.20	.928
Provides leadership	9	22	45	23	37.30	5.215	4.14	.899
Shares leadership	10	27	50	23	41.57	5.605	4.16	.903
Servant leadership total	60	152	300	148	252.59	32.019	4.21	.982
Job satisfaction scale	6	15	30	15	27.01	3.132	4.50	.857
Organization	22	68	110	42	93.74	10.679	4.26	.945
Leadership	38	81	190	109	158.84	22.129	4.18	.976

Note: The Servant Leadership Total row combines the data from the six servant
leadership subscores: (1) Values People, (2) Develops People, (3) Builds Community, (4)
Displays Authenticity, (5) Provides Leadership, and (6) Shares Leadership

Relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Table 7 displays Pearson's correlation coefficients between each of the six

subscores for servant leadership and job satisfaction and also between the servant

leadership total score and job satisfaction. The correlation coefficient between servant

leadership and job satisfaction was $r = .680$, $p < .001$ (2-tailed). Therefore, there was a

statistically significant positive relationship between servant leadership and job
satisfaction.

Table 7

*Pearson's Correlation Coefficients between Servant Leadership Subscores/Total Score
and Job Satisfaction (N = 90)*

Servant leadership subscores/total score	Job satisfaction
Values people	.684**
Develops people	.677**
Builds community	.651**
Displays authenticity	.617**
Provides leadership	.622**
Shares leadership	.624**
Servant leadership total	.680**

Note: ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Based on bivariate linear regression analysis, the r-square (coefficient of
determination) for servant leadership and job satisfaction is .463; therefore, servant
leadership shares 46.3% of the variability in job satisfaction, leaving 53.7% of the
variability still to be accounted for by other variables (Field, 2013). Table 8 displays the r
and r-square values for servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Table 8

Bivariate Linear Regression Analysis for Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction

					Model summary[b]				
						Change statistics			
Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate	R square change	F change	df1	df2	Sig F change
1	.680[a]	.463	.457	2.309	.463	75.761	1	88	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Servant Leadership
b. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Demographic category results.

Table 9 displays demographic category comparisons for the 60 servant leadership items in the OLA. For the gender category, the female mean score (253.60) and item mean score (4.23) were the highest (above the mean), and the male mean score (249.96) and item mean score (4.17) were the lowest (below the mean). A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test identified no statistically significant difference in mean scores between males and females: $F(1, 88) = .231$, $p = .632$. For the age category, the 50 and above mean score (255.80) and item mean score (4.26) were the highest (above the mean), followed by the 30 – 49 mean score (250.81) and the item mean score (4.18) (below the mean), and the 18 – 29 mean score (227.67) and item mean score (3.79) were the lowest (below the mean). The 18 – 29 item mean score (3.79) was the only item mean score below 4.00 in any demographic category. A one-way ANOVA test identified no statistically significant difference in mean scores between the different age groups: $F(2, 87) = 1.210$, $p = .303$. For the employee category, the part-time employee mean score (260.71) and item mean score (4.35) were the highest (above the mean), and the full-time employee mean score (250.70) and item mean score (4.18) were the lowest (below the

mean). A one-way ANOVA test identified no statistically significant difference in mean scores between full-time and part-time employees: $F(1, 88) = 1.352$, $p = .248$. Finally, for the level in the organization category, the top leadership mean score (269.67) and item mean score (4.49) were the highest (above the mean), followed by the workforce mean score (250.56) and item mean score (4.18) (below the mean), and the management mean score (249.65) and item mean score (4.16) were the lowest (below the mean). A one-way ANOVA test identified no statistically significant difference in mean scores between top leadership, management, and workforce: $F(2, 87) = 2.022$, $p = .139$.

Table 9

Demographic Category Comparisons for 60 Servant Leadership Items (N = 90)

	Frequency	Mean	Standard deviation	Item mean
Servant leadership total	90	252.59	32.019	4.21
Gender				
Female	65	253.60	30.832	4.23
Male	25	249.96	35.450	4.17
Age				
18 – 29	3	227.67	9.238	3.79
30 – 49	41	250.81	37.662	4.18
50 and above	46	255.80	26.610	4.26
Employee				
Full-time	73	250.70	33.063	4.18
Part-time	17	260.71	26.403	4.35
Level in organization				
Top leadership	12	269.67	21.487	4.49
Management	51	249.65	31.286	4.16
Workforce	27	250.56	35.717	4.18

Note: Maximum possible score of 300 for mean and 5 for item mean

Table 10 displays demographic category comparisons for the 6 job satisfaction scale items in the OLA. For the gender category, the female mean score (27.08) and item mean score (4.51) were the highest (above the mean), and the male mean score (26.84) and item mean score (4.47) were the lowest (below the mean). A one-way ANOVA test identified no statistically significant difference in mean scores between males and

females: $F(1, 88) = .102$, $p = .750$. For the age category, the 50 and above mean score (27.37) and item mean score (4.56) were the highest (above the mean), followed by the 30 – 49 mean score (26.83) and the item mean score (4.47) (below the mean), and the 18 – 29 mean score (24.00) and item mean score (4.00) were the lowest (below the mean). A one-way ANOVA test identified no statistically significant difference in mean scores between the different age groups: $F(2, 87) = 1.788$, $p = .173$. For the employee category, the part-time employee mean score (27.29) and item mean score (4.55) were the highest (above the mean), and the full-time employee mean score (26.95) and item mean score (4.49) were the lowest (below the mean). A one-way ANOVA test identified no statistically significant difference in mean scores between full-time and part-time employees: $F(1, 88) = .170$, $p = .682$. Finally, for the level in the organization category, the top leadership mean score (28.50) and item mean score (4.75) were the highest (above the mean), followed by the management mean score (27.10) and item mean score (4.52) (above the mean), and the workforce mean score (26.19) and item mean score (4.37) were the lowest (below the mean). The top leadership item mean score (4.75) was the highest item mean score in any demographic category. A one-way ANOVA test identified no statistically significant difference in mean scores between top leadership, management, and workforce: $F(2, 87) = 2.387$, $p = .098$.

Table 10

Demographic Category Comparisons for 6 Job Satisfaction Items (N = 90)

	Frequency	Mean	Standard deviation	Item mean
Job satisfaction total	90	27.01	3.132	4.50
Gender				
Female	65	27.08	3.109	4.51
Male	25	26.84	3.249	4.47
Age				
18 – 29	3	24.00	2.000	4.00
30 – 49	41	26.83	3.278	4.47
50 and above	46	27.37	2.984	4.56
Employee				
Full-time	73	26.95	3.227	4.49
Part-time	17	27.29	2.756	4.55
Level in organization				
Top leadership	12	28.50	2.316	4.75
Management	51	27.10	2.579	4.52
Workforce	27	26.19	4.095	4.37

Note: Maximum possible score of 30 for mean and 5 for item mean

Relationship between demographic categories and job satisfaction.

Table 11 displays the Pearson's correlation coefficients between each of the demographic categories and job satisfaction. The only demographic category with a statistically significant correlation was level in the organization where $r = -.225$, $p = .033$ (2-tailed). Therefore, there is a statistically significant negative relationship between level

in the organization and job satisfaction, i.e., when the level in the organization increases the job satisfaction increases. The levels in the organization (role) were listed in order from top leadership (value of 1) to management (value of 2) to workforce (value of 3) in the IBM SPSS Statistics Version 24 program. Had the level in the organization values been reversed in SPSS (i.e., top leadership value of 3 instead of value of 1), there would have been a statistically significant positive relationship between level in the organization and job satisfaction.

Table 11

Pearson's Correlation Coefficients between Demographic Category and Job Satisfaction (N = 90)

	Gender	Age	Employee	Level
Job satisfaction	-.034	.162	.044	-.225*
Sig. (2-tailed)	.750	.127	.682	.033

Note: * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Finally, there were two outliers in the research data. First, there was an outlier for servant leadership, case 72, where the servant leadership score was 152 out of 300 and the next closest score was 180. Second, there was an outlier for job satisfaction, case 22, where the job satisfaction score was 15 out of 30 and the next closest score was 19. Figure 4.1 displays the two outliers with the other 88 participant scores. After careful review, the outliers appeared to be legitimate inputs without errors. First, the servant leadership outlier included 14 out of 60 servant leadership responses with a score of 4 (i.e., agree), and a job satisfaction score of 19 out of 30. Second, the job satisfaction outlier included a score of 4 (i.e., agree) and a score of 5 (i.e., strongly agree) on two of

six job satisfaction responses, and a servant leadership score of 238 out of 300. By removing the two outliers, the following changes would occur: (a) mean servant leadership score from 252.59 to 253.90, (b) mean job satisfaction score from 27.01 to 27.24, (c) servant leadership skewness from -.406 to -.190 and kurtosis from -.009 to -.680, (d) job satisfaction skewness from -1.077 to -.609 and kurtosis from 1.277 to -.770, (e) Pearson's correlation coefficient between servant leadership and job satisfaction from $r = .680$, $p < .001$ (2-tailed) to $r = .694$, $p < .001$ (2-tailed), and (f) coefficient of determination between servant leadership and job satisfaction from $r^2 = .463$ to $r^2 = .481$. In light of these findings, and the legitimate responses for the two outliers, the researcher decided not to remove the outliers and not to transform the data for the study.
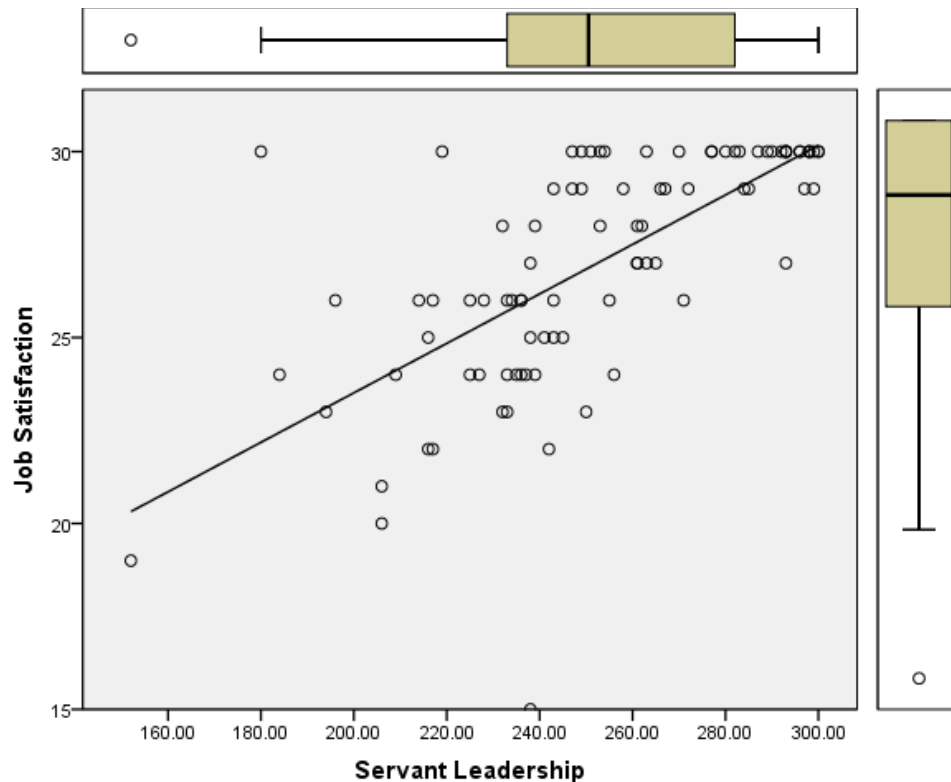
Figure 2. Scatterplot of servant leadership and job satisfaction with two outliers (N = 90).

Presentation and Discussion of Findings

There are multiple findings from the data analysis for this study. This chapter identifies five key findings from the research.

Recap of the data analysis process.

The researcher used the IBM SPSS Statistics Version 24 program to analyze the collected data. First, the researcher generated descriptive statistics and Cronbach's alpha for the nine OLA subscores and servant leadership total score. Second, the researcher generated Pearson's correlation coefficient between six servant leadership subscores and job satisfaction and then the servant leadership total score and job satisfaction. Third, the researcher generated descriptive statistics for the four demographic categories (in particular overall mean scores and item mean scores) and then used one-way ANOVA tests to determine if there were any statistically significant differences between mean scores in the demographic categories. Fourth, using bivariate linear regression analysis, the researcher generated the r-square (coefficient of determination) for servant leadership and job satisfaction to determine the percentage of variability in job satisfaction that is shared with servant leadership.

Discussion of findings.

The first finding was an OLA overall mean score of 252.59 for servant leadership (maximum possible score of 300), with an OLA overall item mean score of 4.21 for servant leadership (maximum possible score of 5) (see Table 3 and Table 6). The OLA overall mean score of 252.59 for servant leadership was calculated by the participant responses on 60 OLA items, with a possible score between 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree) for each item. The OLA overall item mean score of 4.21 for servant

90

leadership was calculated by dividing the overall mean score of 252.59 for servant

leadership by the 60 items. Based on the OLA overall item mean score of 4.21 for servant

leadership, this organization was in the score range of 4.0 – 4.49 for an Org 5 level

identified as servant organization with excellent health (see Table 4 and Appendix J). It is

important to note that the OLAgroup identifies the level of organizational health in its

26-page report for this study based on the responses of the workforce in the organization.

For this study, the workforce OLA overall mean score was 250.56 for servant leadership,

with an OLA overall item mean score of 4.18 (see Table 9). For this study, the workforce

responses resulted in an Org 5 level identified as servant organization with excellent

health (see Table 4 and Appendix J).

The second finding was an overall mean score of 27.01 for job satisfaction

(maximum possible score of 30), with an overall item mean score of 4.50 for job

satisfaction (maximum possible score of 5) (see Table 3 and Table 6). The overall mean

score of 27.01 for job satisfaction was calculated by the participant responses on six job

satisfaction items, with a possible score between 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly

agree) for each item. The overall item mean score of 4.50 for job satisfaction was

calculated by dividing the overall mean score of 27.01 for job satisfaction by the six

items. Based on the overall item mean score of 4.50 for job satisfaction, this organization

was in the score range of 4.5 – 5.00 for an Org 6 level identified as servant organization

with optimal health (see Table 4 and Appendix J). Therefore, for the variable of job

satisfaction, this organization can be characterized as a servant organization at the highest

level of organizational health, optimal health.

The third finding was a Pearson's correlation coefficient between servant leadership and job satisfaction (r = .680, p < .001, 2-tailed) (see Table 7 and Table 8). Therefore, there was a statistically significant positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction in this organization. Huck (2012) and Field (2013) identified general standards for judging the strength of relationships: (a) small (r = .1 and the effect explains 1% of the total variance), (b) medium (r = .3 and the effect explains 9% of the total variance), and (c) large (r = .5 and the effect explains 25% of the total variance). Both authors cautioned against accepting these general standards without delving deeper into the specific context of the research situation (Field, 2013; Huck, 2012). However, based on these general standards, the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction in this organization could be identified as a large effect size with .680 being well above the .5 guideline for a large effect size.

The fourth finding was a coefficient of determination for servant leadership and job satisfaction where r^2 = .463 (see Table 8). As just described, the effect from these variables explains 46.3% of the total variance and could be considered a large effect size.

The fifth finding was a Pearson's correlation coefficient between the demographic category level in organization and job satisfaction (r = -.225, p = .033, 2-tailed) (see Table 11). As the level in the organization increases from workforce to management to top leadership, the level of job satisfaction increases. Based on the general standards for judging the strength of relationships, this relationship could be identified as a small effect size (above .1 for small effect size and below .3 for medium effect size).

Research question.

The purpose of this research is to test the theory of servant leadership (Berger, 2014; Greenleaf, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011) that relates servant leadership (independent or predictor variable) to job satisfaction (dependent or outcome variable) for employees in a Colorado nonprofit organization (Creswell, 2014; Field, 2013). The research question is what is the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization? The hypothesis is there is a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization. The null hypothesis and alternate hypothesis can be stated in this way:

H_0: There is no relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization (null hypothesis).

H_1: There is a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization (alternate hypothesis).

Since the Pearson's correlation coefficient between servant leadership and job satisfaction was $r = .680$, $p < .001$, 2-tailed (see Table 7 and Table 8), there was a statistically significant positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction in this organization. This relationship can be identified as a large effect size, since it was above .5. Therefore, the null hypothesis for this study was rejected and the alternate hypothesis was accepted.

Summary of Chapter

This chapter provided participant demographics, presentation of the data, and presentation and discussion of the findings. There are five key findings presented in this

chapter: (a) the OLA overall mean score (252.59) with item mean score (4.21) for servant leadership and the associated organizational health level (Org 5, Servant, Excellent Health), (b) the overall mean score (27.01) with item mean score (4.50) for job satisfaction and the associated organizational health level (Org 6, Servant, Optimal Health), (c) the statistically significant Pearson's correlation coefficient between servant leadership and job satisfaction ($r = .680$, $p < .001$, 2-tailed), (d) the coefficient of determination for servant leadership and job satisfaction ($r^2 = .463$), (e) and the statistically significant Pearson's correlation coefficient between the demographic category level in organization and job satisfaction ($r = -.225$, $p = .033$, 2-tailed). Since there was a statistically significant positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction in this organization, the null hypothesis for this study was rejected and the alternate hypothesis was accepted. Chapter 5 presents a summary of the research findings and further interpretation of the findings, to include limitations of the study, implications of the study, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter Five

The purpose of this research was to test the theory of servant leadership (Berger, 2014; Greenleaf, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011) that relates servant leadership (independent or predictor variable) to job satisfaction (dependent or outcome variable) for employees in a Colorado nonprofit organization (Creswell, 2014; Field, 2013). This research used a quantitative nonexperimental, cross-sectional research design for collecting survey data to calculate bivariate correlations between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction, including regression analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Creswell, 2014; Joyner et al., 2013).

Prior to conducting the research, the researcher identified three study limitations. First, there was a limitation with the relatively small target population and sample size found within one nonprofit organization in Colorado, restricting generalizability. Second, there was a limitation with the use of quantitative surveys to capture data about complex phenomena such as servant leadership and job satisfaction. Third, there was a limitation with the use of quantitative surveys to capture the true perspectives of participants.

Additionally, there were four measures that were put in place to protect participants during the research for this study: (a) no harm to participants, (b) informed consent, (c) no invasion of privacy, and (d) no deception. Informed consent was central to implementing these human subject protection measures. Informed consent was obtained with a signature on an informed consent form prior to participants taking the surveys (see Appendix C). Further, the informed consent form included (a) the purpose of the research study, (b) disclosure of how participants were asked to participate, (c) risks and benefits of being involved in the study, (d) how anonymity and confidentiality were addressed, (e)

that participation was voluntary and participants could withdraw at any time for any reason, and (f) the name of a contact person to answer any further questions (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

Chapter Five presents a discussion about the research findings and conclusions for the study. Chapter Five is organized by the following sections: (a) Findings and Conclusions, (b) Limitations of the Study, (c) Implications for Practice, (d) Implications of Study and Recommendations for Future Research, (e) Reflections, and (f) Conclusion.

Findings and Conclusions

The research for this study was conducted at an education nonprofit organization in Colorado, the second largest category of nonprofit organizations based on percentage of employees (Salamon et al., 2012). This organization is a private kindergarten through 12th grade school with over 800 students. The organization has a population of 130 employees and all were invited to participate in the research with 93 participating voluntarily and 90 providing responses to all 66 items in the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA). There were five key findings presented in Chapter Four. There are several conclusions that can be drawn from these key findings.

Key finding 1.

For servant leadership, the OLA overall mean score was 252.59, with item mean score (4.21), and the associated organizational health level (Org 5, Servant, Excellent Health). Therefore, this organization is characterized as a servant leadership organization with excellent organizational health. There were 11 studies in the literature, in addition to Laub's (1999) original study, that used the OLA to measure both servant leadership and job satisfaction perceptions (Amadeo, 2008; Anderson, 2005; Chambliss, 2013; Drury,

2004; Eliff, 2014; Inbarasu, 2008; McKenzie, 2012; Miears, 2004; Rubino, 2012; Svoboda, 2008; Wilson, 2013). Table 12 displays the results from these studies, including the correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction (if the researcher provided the results), when a servant leadership mean score or item mean score was provided. If an overall servant leadership mean score or servant leadership item mean score was not provided, then the study was not included in this table. If the servant leadership item mean score was not provided, then the overall servant leadership mean score was divided by 60 items to obtain the servant leadership item mean score. Table 4 displays the score ranges for item mean scores that can be used to identify the organizational health level.

The first conclusion is that this organization's scores for servant leadership are consistent with scores in previous studies; in fact, the scores are among the highest in the literature. These scores are for an organization where the leaders and employees value and emphasize servant leadership.

Table 12

OLA Scores and Correlations from the Literature

Author (year)	Servant leadership			Job satisfaction		Correlation
	Mean	Item mean	Org. health level	Mean	Item mean	
Laub (1999)	223.79					r = .635, p < .01
Drury (2004)	224.65	3.74[a]	4	24.75	4.13[b]	r = .631, p < .001
Miears (2004)	211.43	3.52[a]	4	24.96	4.16[b]	r = .723, p < .01
Anderson (2005)	247.08	4.12[a]	5			positive for OLA subscores
Amadeo (2008)	210.73	3.51[a]	4		3.71	r = .83, p < .001
Inbarasu (2008)	216.45	3.74	4			r_s = .609, p < .01
Svoboda (2009)		3.67	4		4.03	r = .849, p < .01
McKenzie (2012)	226.34	3.77[a]	4		4.40	r = .59, p < .001
Wilson (2013)	230.82	3.85[a]	4	24.97	4.16[b]	r = .635, p < .001
Henning (2016)	252.59	4.21	5	27.01	4.50	r = .680, p < .001

Note: [a] Servant leadership mean score divided by 60 items to obtain item mean score
[b] Job satisfaction mean score divided by 6 items to obtain item mean score

Key finding 2.

For job satisfaction, the overall mean score was 27.01, with item mean score

(4.50), and the associated organizational health level (Org 6, Servant, Optimal Health).

Therefore, for the variable of job satisfaction, this organization is characterized as a

servant leadership organization with optimal organizational health. If the job satisfaction

item mean score was not provided, then the overall job satisfaction mean score was

divided by six items to obtain the job satisfaction item mean score in Table 12.

The second conclusion is that this organization's scores for job satisfaction are consistent with scores in previous studies; in fact, the scores are among the highest in the literature. These scores are for an organization where the leaders and employees value and emphasize servant leadership, demonstrating the positive correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Key finding 3 (research question and hypothesis).

The statistically significant Pearson's correlation coefficient between servant leadership and job satisfaction was $r = .680$, $p < .001$ (2-tailed). The research question was what is the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization? The hypothesis was there is a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization. The null hypothesis and alternate hypothesis can be stated in this way:

H_0: There is no relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization (null hypothesis).

H_1: There is a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization (alternate hypothesis).

Since the Pearson's correlation coefficient between servant leadership and job satisfaction was $r = .680$, $p < .001$ (2-tailed) (see Table 7, Table 8, and Table 12), there was a statistically significant positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction in this organization. This relationship could be identified as a large effect size, since it was above .5. Therefore, the null hypothesis for this study was rejected and the alternate hypothesis was accepted. Table 12 displays the correlation between servant

leadership and job satisfaction in the previous studies (if provided). In all cases, the effect size can be characterized as a large effect size above .5.

The third conclusion is that the correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction for this organization is consistent with values in previous studies. In fact, this study once again demonstrates the statistically significant positive correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction, this time in a new setting.

Key finding 4.

The coefficient of determination for servant leadership and job satisfaction was $r^2 = .463$. Using the correlations in Table 12, the r^2 can be calculated with values ranging from .348 to .721. Based on these studies, the fourth conclusion is that servant leadership shares between 34.8% and 72.1% of the variability in job satisfaction; meaning servant leadership is a prominent variable in relation to job satisfaction. Therefore, the r^2 value for this study of .463 is consistent with the r^2 values in previous studies.

Key finding 5.

The statistically significant Pearson's correlation coefficient between the demographic category level in organization and job satisfaction was $r = -.225$, $p = .033$ (2-tailed). The fifth conclusion is that the statistically significant negative correlation between the demographic category level in organization and job satisfaction for this organization is consistent with the finding identified in Laub's (1999) original study, $r = -.234$, $p < .01$.

Limitations of the Study

Prior to conducting the research, the researcher identified three study limitations. First, there was a limitation with the relatively small target population and sample size

found within one nonprofit organization in Colorado, restricting generalizability. Second, there was a limitation with the use of quantitative surveys to capture data about complex phenomena such as servant leadership and job satisfaction. Third, there was a limitation with the use of quantitative surveys to capture the true perspectives of participants.

Using the G*Power software program, a post hoc review of the a priori power analysis indicated that a sample size of 90 from the population of 130 achieved a power of .827 with alpha = .05 (two tail) and a medium effect size of .30. Further, assuming a random sample, a post hoc review using the Raosoft online sample size calculator indicated a sample size of 90 from the population of 130 achieved a confidence level of 95%, a margin of error of 5.75%, for a response distribution of 50%. When making the a priori calculations, the objective was to reduce the possibility of Type I and Type II errors. Type I errors refer to rejecting H_0 when the null hypothesis is true and Type II errors refer to not rejecting H_0 when the null hypothesis is false (Huck, 2012). For the power analysis using the G*Power software program, the alpha (i.e., the level of significance) was set at .05 to specify the probability of making a Type I error. Further, the power level was set at .80 to specify the probability of not making a Type II error (Huck, 2012). Therefore, it is appropriate to generalize the results from this sample to the population; however, these results are limited to this population versus a larger segment of the nonprofit industry.

Second, the limitation of using quantitative surveys to capture data about complex phenomena, such as servant leadership and job satisfaction, remains for this study. Third, the limitation of using quantitative surveys to capture the true perspectives of participants also still remains; however, there was a wide range of responses to the 60 items

measuring servant leadership (scores between 152 and 300) and the six items measuring job satisfaction (scores between 15 and 30). This seems to indicate the possibility of true responses for many of the participants. Finally, an additional limitation that emerged during this study was the convenience sample of voluntary participants versus a random sample. It is possible that the 90 participants from the population of 130 were the most willing to participate because they had more positive impressions of the organization whereas the remaining employees might have been less willing to participate due to more negative impressions of the organization. The wide range of responses for both servant leadership and job satisfaction seem to mitigate this limitation.

Implications for Practice

The United States has a substantial national problem of low job satisfaction among millions of workers, with less than half of American workers satisfied with their jobs for 8 straight years (Cheng et al., 2014). These low levels of job satisfaction also affect employees in nonprofit organizations (Bolton, 2011), the third largest industry in the United States (Salamon et al., 2012). Low levels of employee job satisfaction can wreak havoc on all types of organizations, including for profit corporations as well as nonprofit organizations (Bolton, 2011). The negative consequences include increased levels of employee absenteeism, grievance expression, job stress, tardiness, and turnover and decreased levels of employee mental health, morale, organizational commitment, physical health, and productivity, negatively impacting organizations (Aazami et al., 2015; Alsaraireh et al., 2014; Buky Folami et al., 2014; Diestel et al., 2014; Fiori et al., 2015; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Reisel et al., 2010; Spector, 1997). There are many variables that affect employee job satisfaction (including benefits,

job advancements, salary, and work conditions), but one of the prominent variables is leadership style (Bogan, 2004; Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Schneider & George, 2011; Society for Human Resource Management, 2015). Since leadership style is a known variable affecting employee job satisfaction, organizational leaders must be cognizant of how their style of leadership affects the job satisfaction of their employees (Bogan, 2004; Schneider & George, 2011; Society for Human Resource Management, 2015).

This study examined the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization. Since there was a statistically significant positive relationship between the two variables, then applying this leadership style in nonprofit organizations could be of interest to leaders and employees in similar nonprofit organizations throughout the state of Colorado and the United States (Center for Nonprofit Excellence, 2014; Roeger et al., 2012; Salamon et al., 2012). It is important to note that the key findings and resulting conclusions and interpretations for this study are based on correlational research versus causal research. Therefore, the implications for practice should be approached judiciously by nonprofit leaders.

The key findings and conclusions for this study are closely interrelated and can be considered as a whole versus isolated findings and conclusions. The high scores for servant leadership and job satisfaction from the OLA survey, coupled with the statistically significant correlations between job satisfaction and servant leadership and job satisfaction and level in the organization, indicate that servant leadership is a prominent variable affecting job satisfaction. Based on this overall conclusion, leaders in nonprofit organizations could focus on implementing servant leadership principles and behaviors in their respective organizations.

For example, the OLA survey measures six subscores or key areas of servant leadership: (a) values people, (b) develops people, (c) builds community, (d) displays authenticity, (e) provides leadership, and (f) shares leadership. If organizational leaders decided to improve development of their employees, they could focus on the nine items related to develops people in the OLA survey (see Appendix F): (a) view conflict as an opportunity to learn and grow, (b) create an environment that encourages learning, (c) practice the same behavior they expect from others, (d) lead by example by modeling appropriate behavior, (e) provide opportunities for all workers to develop to their full potential, (f) use their power and authority to benefit the workers, (g) build people up through encouragement and affirmation, (h) provide mentor relationships in order to help people grow professionally, and (i) I receive encouragement and affirmation from those above me in the organization. For some organizations, implementing these servant-leadership principles and behaviors will be challenging as some leaders may be uncomfortable building people up through encouragement and affirmation or leading by example by modeling appropriate behavior.

As another example, if organizational leaders decided to share more leadership with their employees, they could focus on the 10 items related to shares leadership in the OLA survey (see Appendix F): (a) are encouraged by supervisors to share in making important decisions, (b) allow workers to help determine where this organization is headed, (c) use persuasion to influence others instead of coercion or force, (d) give workers the power to make important decisions, (e) encourage each person to exercise leadership, (f) do not demand special recognition for being leaders, (g) seek to influence others out of a positive relationship rather than from the authority of their position, (h) are

humble – they do not promote themselves, (i) do not seek after special status or the "perks" of leadership, and (j) in this organization, a person's work is valued more than their title. Again, for some organizations, implementing these servant-leadership principles and behaviors will be challenging as some leaders may be uncomfortable giving workers the power to make important decisions or using persuasion to influence others instead of coercion or force.

However, the potential benefits may outweigh the discomfort of organizational leaders. As an example, for this study, the three items with the highest item mean scores were (a) item 9, are caring and compassionate towards each other, item mean score of 4.67; (b) item 62, I enjoy working in this organization, item mean score of 4.64; and (c) item 10, demonstrate high integrity and honesty, item mean score of 4.61 (see Appendix E). For item 9, the distribution of responses was 1 (strongly disagree) = 0, 2 (disagree) = 0, 3 (undecided) = 1, 4 (agree) = 28, and 5 (strongly agree) = 61. For item 62, the distribution of responses was 1 (strongly disagree) = 0, 2 (disagree) = 0, 3 (undecided) = 1, 4 (agree) = 30, and 5 (strongly agree) = 59. For item 10, the distribution of responses was 1 (strongly disagree) = 0, 2 (disagree) = 0, 3 (undecided) = 2, 4 (agree) = 31, and 5 (strongly agree) = 57. This means about two-thirds of the 90 participants provided a 5 response for these three items, with item mean scores in the score range of 4.5 – 5.00 for an Org 6 level identified as servant organization with optimal health (see Table 4). The organization in this study benefits from high levels of employee job satisfaction, e.g., high retention rates of employees, with 51.1% of participants (46 of 90) in the 50 and above age category (see Table 1). As the responses from item 62 show, employees enjoy working in this organization. Employees are positively affected by the high levels of

perceived servant leadership in this Colorado education nonprofit organization. These positive effects could potentially be duplicated in nonprofit organizations that implement servant leadership principles and behaviors, with the associated high levels of job satisfaction.

Implications of Study and Recommendations for Future Research

Servant leadership theorists and researchers have asserted that as perceptions of servant leadership increase, levels of job satisfaction increase (Laub, 1999; Northouse, 2013; Russell & Stone, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011). From a theoretical perspective, various servant leadership models predict that job satisfaction is positively affected by servant leadership, regardless of the differences among the models (Northouse, 2013; Russell & Stone, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011). The purpose of this study at a Colorado nonprofit organization was to test the theory of servant leadership (Berger, 2014; Greenleaf, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011) that relates servant leadership (independent or predictor variable) to job satisfaction (dependent or outcome variable) for employees in a Colorado nonprofit organization (Creswell, 2014; Field, 2013). As with past research, this study revealed a statistically significant positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction, with a large effect size. Since the basic purpose of most nonprofit organizations is generally service to other people, it makes sense that servant leadership may be appropriate for leaders in nonprofit organizations (Ebener & O'Connell, 2010; Schneider & George, 2011).

For recommendation for future research, the nonprofit industry is comprised of the following categories based on percentage of employees: (a) hospitals: 37%, (b) education: 15%, (c) social assistance: 13%, (d) nursing homes: 11%, (e) ambulatory

health: 9%, (f) civic associations: 7%, (g) other: 4%, (h) arts: 3%, and (i) professional services: 2% (Salamon et al., 2012). Amadeo (2008) used the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) to measure both servant leadership and job satisfaction for registered nurses in two nonprofit acute care hospitals. First, similar studies could be conducted in additional hospitals (the largest category of nonprofit organizations based on percentage of employees) with the entire population of the hospitals or certain portions of the population, e.g., doctors, nurses, or administrators.

Kong (2007) used the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) to measure servant leadership and the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ short-form) to measure job satisfaction in Tarrant County, Texas, Southern Baptist Convention multi-staff churches. Second, similar studies could be conducted in additional churches with the entire population of the churches or certain portions of the population, e.g., church employees, congregations, or church volunteers.

Third, similar studies could be conducted in additional education nonprofit organizations, from preschool through graduate programs, with the entire population of the schools or certain portions of the populations, e.g., administration, teachers, or volunteers.

Fourth, similar studies could be conducted in all of the remaining categories of nonprofit organizations: (c) social assistance: 13%, (d) nursing homes: 11%, (e) ambulatory health: 9%, (f) civic associations: 7%, (g) other: 4%, (h) arts: 3%, and (i) professional services: 2% (Salamon et al., 2012). For example, similar studies could be conducted with organizations such as the Red Cross for social assistance and Lions Club International for civic organizations.

Finally, for all of these recommendations for future research, servant leadership could be compared with other leadership styles to discover which leadership style may result in the stronger correlation with job satisfaction or other variables. This research would allow leaders in nonprofit organizations to benefit from the findings about the most effective leadership styles for their respective organizations.

Reflections

As a quantitative study, the research process was straightforward, including the required permissions, data collection, and data analysis. The researcher decided to use hard copy OLA surveys versus online surveys to increase the response rate with a survey available immediately rather than participants taking another step to go online and complete the survey. By using the IBM SPSS Statistics Version 24 program to analyze the collected data, the various calculations were straightforward: (a) descriptive statistics, (b) Cronbach's alpha for the nine OLA subscores and servant leadership total score, (c) Pearson's correlation coefficient between six servant leadership subscores and job satisfaction and then the servant leadership total score and job satisfaction, (d) one-way ANOVA tests to determine if there were any statistically significant differences between mean scores in the demographic categories, and (e) bivariate linear regression analysis to generate the r-square (coefficient of determination) for servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Based on previous research, and servant leadership and job satisfaction theory, the hypothesis for this dissertation was there is a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization. This hypothesis was accepted and the null hypothesis was rejected for this study.

Consequently, this observation did not change the researcher's thinking but rather substantiated the expected results. This observation has been seen numerous times, regardless of the servant leadership survey and job satisfaction survey used. This research adds one more study demonstrating the statistically significant positive relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction and the associated implications for practice.

Conclusion

The purpose of this research was to test the theory of servant leadership (Berger, 2014; Greenleaf, 2002; van Dierendonck, 2011) that relates servant leadership (independent or predictor variable) to job satisfaction (dependent or outcome variable) for employees in a Colorado nonprofit organization (Creswell, 2014; Field, 2013). The research question was what is the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization? The hypothesis was there is a positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a Colorado nonprofit organization.

There were five key findings for this study: (a) the OLA overall mean score (252.59) with item mean score (4.21) for servant leadership and the associated organizational health level (Org 5, Servant, Excellent Health), (b) the overall mean score (27.01) with item mean score (4.50) for job satisfaction and the associated organizational health level (Org 6, Servant, Optimal Health), (c) the statistically significant Pearson's correlation coefficient between servant leadership and job satisfaction ($r = .680$, $p < .001$, 2-tailed), (d) the coefficient of determination for servant leadership and job satisfaction ($r^2 = .463$), (e) and the statistically significant Pearson's correlation coefficient between

the demographic category level in organization and job satisfaction (r = -.225, p = .033, 2-tailed). These key findings are consistent with the findings in past research with some of the highest scores for servant leadership and job satisfaction from the OLA survey.

The key findings and conclusions for this study are closely interrelated and can be considered as a whole versus isolated findings and conclusions. The high scores for servant leadership and job satisfaction from the OLA survey, coupled with the statistically significant correlations between job satisfaction and servant leadership and job satisfaction and level in the organization, indicate that servant leadership is a prominent variable affecting job satisfaction. Based on this overall conclusion, leaders in nonprofit organizations could focus on implementing servant leadership principles and behaviors in their respective organizations, with the associated increasing levels of job satisfaction and positive organizational outcomes.

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Appendix A

Permission to Use Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA)

OLAgroup   www.olagroup.com

February 19, 2016

Paul Henning

Dear Paul,

I hereby give my permission for you to use the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) instrument in your research study. I am willing to allow you to utilize the instrument with the following understandings:

- You will use the OLA in its entirety, as it is, without any changes
- You will use a paper and pencil version of the OLA but will insure that all data will be entered into the online OLA site
- You will use this assessment only for your research study and will not sell or use it with any compensated management/curriculum development activities
- You will include the copyright statement on all copies of the instrument used for your dissertation
- You will provide a digital copy of your final dissertation as well as any future reports, articles or other publications that make use of the OLA data.
- You will allow me to post your research and dissertation on the OLAgroup website

Sincerely,

Jim Laub, Ed.D.
OLAgroup
18240 Lake Bend Drive
Jupiter, FL, 33458

I understand these conditions and agree to abide by these term and conditions

Paul Henning   Date: _2/23/2016_
Paul Henning

Appendix B

Letter of Permission to Use Site

February 23, 2016

Subject: Letter of Permission to Use Site

Dear Mr. Henning,

I grant permission for Paul Henning, a student in the Colorado Technical University Doctor of Management Degree program, to conduct doctoral dissertation research at our site. This includes employees of this institution taking the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) Survey, which should take between 15 and 30 minutes to complete. I understand participation in the study is voluntary and that participants may withdraw from the study at any time, even after initially indicating their willingness to participate in the study. Additionally, I understand data from study participants will be collected anonymously and then confidentially stored for 5 years, at which time the data will be destroyed.

Should the Colorado Technical University Institutional Review Board have any questions about this permission, I can be reached at the contact information provided below.

Sincerely,

Informed Consent Form

Informed Consent Form

Title of Study: Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) Survey

Researcher: Paul Henning

Contact Number: 719-570-7879

Purpose of the Study

You are invited to participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to assess perceptions of leadership throughout the organization.

Participants

You are being asked to participate in the study because you are an employee of the organization where your perceptions are critical for understanding organizational leadership.

Procedures

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following: Fill out a Demographic Information Form and complete the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) Survey.

Benefits of Participation

There may/may not be direct benefits to you as a participant in this study. However, we hope to learn more about organizational leadership and how this organization compares with other organizations that have previously taken the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) survey.

Risks of Participation

There are risks involved in all research studies. This study is estimated to involve minimal risk. An example of this risk is possibly feeling uncomfortable answering questions about your organization.

Cost/Compensation

This will be no financial cost to you to participate in this study. The assessment will take between 15 and 30 minutes to complete. You will not be compensated for your time. *Colorado Technical University will not provide compensation or free medical care for an unanticipated injury sustained as a result of participating in this research study.*

<u>Contact Information</u>

If you have any questions or concerns about the study, you may contact Paul Henning, paul.henning2@student.ctuonline.edu , 719-570-7879, or Dr. Ding, hding@ctuonline.edu, 719-217-6864. For questions regard the rights of research subjects, any complaints or comments regarding the manner in which the study is being conducted, you may contact Colorado Technical University – Doctoral Programs at 719-598-0200.

<u>Voluntary Participation</u>

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate in this study or in any part of this study. You may withdraw at any time without prejudice. You are encouraged to ask questions about this study at the beginning or at any time during the research study.

<u>Confidentiality</u>

The signed Informed Consent Forms will be separated from each participant envelope and stored confidentially in a secure location by the researcher. Then the information from the anonymously filled out Demographic Information Forms and completed Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) surveys will be used to analyze organizational leadership perceptions. All of this collected data will then be stored confidentially for 5 years in a secure location by the researcher (when all records will be destroyed), separate from the signed Informed Consent Forms.

<u>Participant Consent</u>

I have read the above information and agree to participate in this study. I am at least 18 years of age. A copy of this form has been given to me.

_____   _____

Signature of Participant   Date

_____

Participant Name (Please Print)

Demographic Information Form

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

Please fill out all items on the Demographic Information Form by placing an X in the appropriate places.

1. GENDER:

____ Female

____ Male

2. AGE:

____ 18 – 29

____ 30 – 49

____ 50 and above

3. FULL-TIME OR PART-TIME EMPLOYEE:

____ Full-Time

____ Part-time

4. LEVEL IN ORGANIZATION
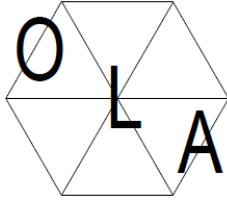
____ Top Leadership (Executive Staff and Principals)

____ Management (Faculty Member)

____ Workforce (Support Staff)

Appendix E

Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) Item Score Frequency and Average Score

OLA

Organizational Leadership Assessment

General Instructions

The purpose of this instrument is to allow organizations to discover how their leadership practices and beliefs impact the different ways people function within the organization. This instrument is designed to be taken by people at all levels of the organization including workers, managers and top leadership. As you respond to the different statements, please answer as to what you believe is generally true about your organization or work unit. Please respond with your own personal feelings and beliefs and not those of others, or those that others would want you to have. Respond as to how things *are* … not as they could be, or should be.

Feel free to use the full spectrum of answers (from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree). You will find that some of the statements will be easy to respond to while others may require more thought. If you are uncertain, you may want to answer with your first, intuitive response. Please be honest and candid. The response we seek is the one that most closely represents your feelings or beliefs about the statement that is being considered. There are three different sections to this instrument. Carefully read the brief instructions that are given prior to each section. Your involvement in this assessment is anonymous and confidential.

Before completing the assessment it is important to fill in the name of the organization or organizational unit being assessed. If you are assessing an organizational unit (department, team or work unit) rather than the entire organization you will respond to all of the statements in light of that work unit.

IMPORTANT ….. please complete the following

Write in the name of the organization or organizational unit (department, team or work unit) you are assessing with this instrument.

Organization (or Organizational Unit) **Name**: _____

Indicate **your present role/position** in the organization or work unit. Please **circle one**.

    1 = Top Leadership (top level of leadership)

    2 = Management (supervisor, manager)

    3 = Workforce (staff, member, worker)

Please provide your response to each statement by placing an **X** in <u>one</u> of the five boxes

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	**Strongly Agree**

<u>**Section 1**</u>   In this section, please respond to each statement as you believe it applies to <u>**the entire organization**</u> (or organizational unit) including workers, managers/supervisors and top leadership.

In general, people within this organization ….

		1	2	3	4	5	AVE
1	Trust each other	0	0	3	49	38	4.39
2	Are clear on the key goals of the organization	0	1	4	45	40	4.38
3	Are non-judgmental – they keep an open mind	0	1	13	52	24	4.10
4	Respect each other	0	0	6	41	43	4.41
5	Know where this organization is headed in the future	1	5	16	44	24	3.94
6	Maintain high ethical standards	0	1	4	26	59	4.59
7	Work well together in teams	0	2	6	36	46	4.40
8	Value differences in culture, race & ethnicity	1	2	9	39	39	4.26
9	Are caring & compassionate towards each other	0	0	1	28	61	4.67
10	Demonstrate high integrity & honesty	0	0	2	31	57	4.61
11	Are trustworthy	0	0	2	33	55	4.59
12	Relate well to each other	0	0	8	42	40	4.36
13	Attempt to work with others more than working on their own	3	9	22	39	17	3.64
14	Are held accountable for reaching work goals	0	2	14	46	28	4.11
15	Are aware of the needs of others	0	5	15	49	21	3.96
16	Allow for individuality of style and expression	0	3	8	41	38	4.27
17	Are encouraged by supervisors to share in making *important* decisions	2	4	24	39	21	3.81
18	Work to maintain positive working relationships	0	2	8	42	38	4.29
19	Accept people as they are	0	2	5	50	33	4.27
20	View conflict as an opportunity to learn & grow	0	4	20	46	20	3.91
21	Know how to get along with people	0	0	4	46	40	4.40

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree

Section 2   In this next section, please respond to each statement as you believe it applies to the **leadership** of the organization (or organizational unit) including managers/supervisors and top leadership

Managers/Supervisors and Top Leadership in this Organization	1	2	3	4	5	AVE
22 Communicate a clear vision of the future of the organization	1	3	8	47	31	4.16
23 Are open to learning from those who are *below* them in the organization	0	7	16	38	29	3.99
24 Allow workers to help determine where this organization is headed	2	12	31	28	17	3.51
25 Work alongside the workers instead of separate from them	0	10	16	35	29	3.92
26 Use persuasion to influence others instead of coercion or force	0	2	12	43	33	4.19
27 Don't hesitate to provide the leadership that is needed	0	2	7	38	43	4.36
28 Promote open communication and sharing of information	1	2	18	40	29	4.04
29 Give workers the power to make *important* decisions	1	14	31	28	16	3.49
30 Provide the support and resources needed to help workers meet their goals	0	11	11	45	23	3.89
31 Create an environment that encourages learning	1	2	5	40	42	4.33
32 Are open to receiving criticism & challenge from others	2	5	24	36	23	3.81
33 Say what they mean, and mean what they say	0	2	14	42	32	4.13
34 Encourage each person to exercise leadership	0	1	11	46	32	4.21
35 Admit personal limitations & mistakes	1	4	15	39	31	4.06
36 Encourage people to take risks even if they may fail	0	3	20	40	27	4.01
37 Practice the same behavior they expect from others	0	1	6	41	42	4.38
38 Facilitate the building of community & team	1	3	8	42	36	4.21
39 Do not demand special recognition for being leaders	0	0	2	43	45	4.48
40 Lead by example by modeling appropriate behavior	0	2	2	37	49	4.48
41 Seek to influence others from a positive relationship rather than from the authority of their position	0	1	7	40	42	4.37
42 Provide opportunities for all workers to develop to their full potential	1	5	14	40	30	4.03
43 Honestly evaluate themselves before seeking to evaluate others	1	1	25	37	26	3.96
44 Use their power and authority to benefit the workers	0	3	12	49	26	4.09
45 Take appropriate action when it is needed	0	0	9	45	36	4.30

	1	2	3	4	5
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	**Strongly Agree**

Managers/Supervisors and Top Leadership in this Organization	1	2	3	4	5	AVE
46 Build people up through encouragement and affirmation	0	2	8	34	46	4.38
47 Encourage workers to work *together* rather than competing against each other	0	1	6	40	43	4.39
48 Are humble – they do not promote themselves	0	0	1	34	55	4.60
49 Communicate clear plans & goals for the organization	1	1	13	43	32	4.16
50 Provide mentor relationships in order to help people grow professionally	5	7	25	33	20	3.62
51 Are accountable & responsible to others	2	3	10	39	36	4.16
52 Are receptive listeners	0	2	8	40	40	4.31
53 Do not seek after special status or the "perks" of leadership	0	0	7	30	53	4.51
54 Put the needs of the workers ahead of their own	0	2	11	39	38	4.26

Section 3   In this next section, please respond to each statement as you believe it is true about **you personally** and **your role** in the organization (or organizational unit).

In viewing my own role …	1	2	3	4	5	AVE
55 I feel appreciated by my supervisor for what I contribute	1	0	5	32	52	4.49
56 I am working at a high level of productivity	1	0	4	36	49	4.47
57 I am listened to by those *above* me in the organization	1	2	10	32	45	4.31
58 I feel good about my contribution to the organization	0	2	8	35	45	4.37
59 I receive encouragement and affirmation from those *above* me in the organization	0	1	8	34	47	4.41
60 My job is important to the success of this organization	0	1	0	42	47	4.50
61 I trust the leadership of this organization	1	1	7	35	46	4.38
62 I enjoy working in this organization	0	0	1	30	59	4.64
63 I am respected by those *above* me in the organization	0	1	6	33	50	4.47
64 I am able to be creative in my job	0	2	8	23	57	4.50
65 In this organization, a person's *work* is valued more than their *title*	0	2	7	34	47	4.40
66 I am able to use my best gifts and abilities in my job	2	1	2	27	58	4.53

Appendix F

Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) Six Servant Leadership Subscore Items

Values People Subscore (10 Items)

	Item #	Item
1	1	Trust each other
2	4	Respect each other
3	9	Are caring & compassionate towards each other
4	15	Are aware of the needs of others
5	19	Accept people as they are
6	52	Are receptive listeners
7	54	Put the needs of the workers ahead of their own
8	55	I feel appreciated by my supervisor for what I contribute
9	57	I am listened to by those *above* me in the organization
10	63	I am respected by those *above* me in the organization

Develops People Subscore (9 Items)

	Item #	Item
1	20	View conflict as an opportunity to learn & grow
2	31	Create an environment that encourages learning
3	37	Practice the same behavior they expect from others
4	40	Lead by example by modeling appropriate behavior
5	42	Provide opportunities for all workers to develop to their full potential
6	44	Use their power and authority to benefit the workers
7	46	Build people up through encouragement and affirmation
8	50	Provide mentor relationships in order to help people grow professionally
9	59	I receive encouragement and affirmation from those *above* me in the organization

Builds Community Subscore (10 Items)

	Item #	Item
1	7	Work well together in teams
2	8	Value differences in culture, race & ethnicity
3	12	Relate well to each other
4	13	Attempt to work with others more than working on their own
5	16	Allow for individuality of style and expression
6	18	Work to maintain positive working relationships
7	21	Know how to get along with people
8	25	Work alongside the workers instead of separate from them
9	38	Facilitate the building of community & team
10	47	Encourage workers to work *together* rather than competing against each other

Displays Authenticity Subscore (12 Items)

	Item #	Item
1	3	Are non-judgmental – they keep an open mind
2	6	Maintain high ethical standards
3	10	Demonstrate high integrity & honesty
4	11	Are trustworthy
5	23	Are open to learning from those who are *below* them in the organization
6	28	Promote open communication and sharing of information
7	32	Are open to receiving criticism & challenge from others
8	33	Say what they mean, and mean what they say
9	35	Admit personal limitations & mistakes
10	43	Honestly evaluate themselves before seeking to evaluate others
11	51	Are accountable & responsible to others
12	61	I trust the leadership of this organization

Provides Leadership Subscore (9 Items)

	Item #	Item
1	2	Are clear on the key goals of the organization
2	5	Know where this organization is headed in the future
3	14	Are held accountable for reaching work goals
4	22	Communicate a clear vision of the future of the organization
5	27	Don't hesitate to provide the leadership that is needed
6	30	Provide the support and resources needed to help workers meet their goals
7	36	Encourage people to take risks even if they may fail
8	45	Take appropriate action when it is needed
9	49	Communicate clear plans & goals for the organization

Shares Leadership Subscore (10 Items)

	Item #	Item
1	17	Are encouraged by supervisors to share in making *important* decisions
2	24	Allow workers to help determine where this organization is headed
3	26	Use persuasion to influence others instead of coercion or force
4	29	Give workers the power to make *important* decisions
5	34	Encourage each person to exercise leadership
6	39	Do not demand special recognition for being leaders
7	41	Seek to influence others out of a positive relationship rather than from the authority of their position
8	48	Are humble – they do not promote themselves
9	53	Do not seek after special status or the "perks" of leadership
10	65	In this organization, a person's *work* is valued more than their *title*

Appendix G

Job Satisfaction Scale Items

Job Satisfaction Scale (6 Items)

	Item #	Item
1	56	I am working at a high level of productivity
2	58	I feel good about my contribution to the organization
3	60	My job is important to the success of this organization
4	62	I enjoy working in this organization
5	64	I am able to be creative in my job
6	66	I am able to use my best gifts and abilities in my job

Appendix H

Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) Organization Subscore Items

Organization Subscore (22 Items)

	Item #	Item
1	1	Trust each other
2	2	Are clear on the key goals of the organization
3	3	Are non-judgmental – they keep an open mind
4	4	Respect each other
5	5	Know where this organization is headed in the future
6	6	Maintain high ethical standards
7	7	Work well together in teams
8	8	Value differences in culture, race & ethnicity
9	9	Are caring & compassionate towards each other
10	10	Demonstrate high integrity & honesty
11	11	Are trustworthy
12	12	Relate well to each other
13	13	Attempt to work with others more than working on their own
14	14	Are held accountable for reaching work goals
15	15	Are aware of the needs of others
16	16	Allow for individuality of style and expression
17	17	Are encouraged by supervisors to share in making *important* decisions
18	18	Work to maintain positive working relationships
19	19	Accept people as they are
20	20	View conflict as an opportunity to learn & grow
21	21	Know how to get along with people
22	65	In this organization, a person's *work* is valued more than their *title*

Appendix I

Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) Leadership Subscore Items

Leadership Subscore (38 Items)

	Item #	Item
1	22	Communicate a clear vision of the future of the organization
2	23	Are open to learning from those who are *below* them in the organization
3	24	Allow workers to help determine where this organization is headed
4	25	Work alongside the workers instead of separate from them
5	26	Use persuasion to influence others instead of coercion or force
6	27	Don't hesitate to provide the leadership that is needed
7	28	Promote open communication and sharing of information
8	29	Give workers the power to make *important* decisions
9	30	Provide the support and resources needed to help workers meet their goals
10	31	Create an environment that encourages learning
11	32	Are open to receiving criticism & challenge from others
12	33	Say what they mean, and mean what they say
13	34	Encourage each person to exercise leadership
14	35	Admit personal limitations & mistakes
15	36	Encourage people to take risks even if they may fail
16	37	Practice the same behavior they expect from others
17	38	Facilitate the building of community & team
18	39	Do not demand special recognition for being leaders
19	40	Lead by example by modeling appropriate behavior
20	41	Seek to influence others out of a positive relationship rather than from the authority of their position
21	42	Provide opportunities for all workers to develop to their full potential

22	43	Honestly evaluate themselves before seeking to evaluate others
23	44	Use their power and authority to benefit the workers
24	45	Take appropriate action when it is needed
25	46	Build people up through encouragement and affirmation
26	47	Encourage workers to work *together* rather than competing against each other
27	48	Are humble – they do not promote themselves
28	49	Communicate clear plans & goals for the organization
29	50	Provide mentor relationships in order to help people grow professionally
30	51	Are accountable & responsible to others
31	52	Are receptive listeners
32	53	Do not seek after special status or the "perks" of leadership
33	54	Put the needs of the workers ahead of their own
34	55	I feel appreciated by my supervisor for what I contribute
35	57	I am listened to by those *above* me in the organization
36	59	I receive encouragement and affirmation from those *above* me in the organization
37	61	I trust the leadership of this organization
38	63	I am respected by those *above* me in the organization

Descriptions of All Six Organizational Health Levels

OLA — **Descriptions of All Six Organizational Health Levels**

Servant Leadership	org⁶	**Optimal Health**	Workers experience this organization as a servant-minded organization characterized by authenticity, the valuing and developing of people, the building of community and the providing and sharing of positive leadership. These characteristics are evident throughout the entire organization. People are trusted and are trustworthy throughout the organization. They are motivated to serve the interests of each other before their own self-interest and are open to learning from each other. Leaders and workers view each other as partners working in a spirit of collaboration.
	org⁵	**Excellent Health**	Workers experience this organization as a servant-oriented organization characterized by authenticity, the valuing and developing of people, the building of community and the providing and sharing of positive leadership. These characteristics are evident throughout much of the organization. People are trusted and are trustworthy. They are motivated to serve the interests of each other before their own self-interest and are open to learning from each other. Leaders and workers view each other as partners working in a spirit of collaboration.
Paternalistic Leadership	org⁴	**Moderate Health**	Workers experience this organization as a positively paternalistic (parental-led) organization characterized by a moderate level of trust and trustworthiness along with occasional uncertainty and fear. Creativity is encouraged as long as it doesn't move the organization too far beyond the status quo. Risks can be taken, but failure is sometimes feared. Goals are mostly clear, though the overall direction of the organization is sometimes confused. Leaders often take the role of nurturing parent while workers assume the role of the cared-for child.
	org³	**Limited Health**	Workers experience this organization as a negatively paternalistic (parental-led) organization characterized by minimal to moderate levels of trust and trustworthiness along with an underlying uncertainty and fear. People feel that they must prove themselves and that they are only as good as their last performance. Workers are sometimes listened to but only when they speak in line with the values and priorities of the leaders. Conformity is expected while individual expression is discouraged. Leaders often take the role of critical parent while workers assume the role of the cautious child.
Autocratic Leadership	org²	**Poor Health**	Workers experience this organization as an autocratic-led organization characterized by low levels of trust and trustworthiness and high levels of uncertainty and fear. People lack motivation to serve the organization because they do not feel that it is their organization or their goals. Leadership is autocratic in style and is imposed from the top levels of the organization. It is an environment where risks are seldom taken, failure is often punished and creativity is discouraged. Most workers do not feel valued and often feel used by those in leadership. Change is needed but is very difficult to achieve.
	org¹	**Toxic**	Workers experience this organization as a dangerous place to work … a place characterized by dishonesty and a deep lack of integrity among its workers and leaders. Workers are devalued, used and sometimes abused. Positive leadership is missing at all levels and power is used in ways that are harmful to workers and the mission of the organization. There is almost no trust and an extremely high level of fear. This organization will find it very difficult to locate, develop and maintain healthy workers who can assist in producing positive organizational change.