

**IMPACT OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP PRINCIPLES ON VOLUNTEER
SATISFACTION IN A NONPROFIT ORGANIZATION**

by

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Abstract

The purpose of this quantitative study was to compare differences between volunteer and employee perception of servant leadership and job satisfaction. The research was conducted with a national nonprofit organization (NPO) located in the mid-Atlantic region and was designed to expand use of servant leadership and job satisfaction theories. Data were collected using the Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument at different organizational levels in a large emergency disaster relief nonprofit organization. Results showed volunteers and employees have differing perceptions of servant leadership but similar job satisfaction. That is, volunteers rated significantly higher the presence of servant leadership within their organization than the employees. However, both were satisfied with their present jobs. There was no difference in the perception of servant leadership and job satisfaction across work roles (i.e., top leadership, management, and workforce). The latter results might have required a considerably larger sample distribution in work roles than was initially proposed to obtain such a level of granular difference in perspectives among work roles. Pearson's r was used and differences in scores were analyzed; a significant and positive relationship existed between servant leadership and job satisfaction. Results of this study included implications of human motivation theory and underscored servant leadership as a modern leadership practice for NPOs with volunteers. Understanding volunteers' and employees' differing views, may help organizational leadership seek consultation with Industrial/Organizational (I/O) psychologists in developing useful interventions and training geared to groups and their attitudes.

Dedication

I dedicate this work to my mother, Romanita Baker. You are an amazing person. Thank you for many years of sacrifice and unyielding love. Your Godly example gave me the encouragement to pursue my dreams. Thank you for believing in me and reminding me that I could do all things through Christ, who strengthens me.

Acknowledgments

All honor to God, who is the source of my joy and strength. Thank you, my Lord and Savior Jesus Christ, for promising to never leave me or forsake me! 2 Tim. 1:7 reminds me, God has not given us a spirit of fear, but of power, love, and of sound mind. I thank God for giving me the faith to pursue this goal, and strength to complete it.

Thank you, family and friends, for encouraging me to pursue my goals:

To my daughter, Kayla Sykes, thank you for inspiring me to be a loving example of what God can do with our faith in Him.

To my husband, Eugene Hines, thank you for supporting me during long days and nights and sharing in this longtime goal.

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Special thanks to the large emergency disaster relief nonprofit organization for allowing me to perform this research with your organization and opening the door for other nonprofit organizations to become more aware of from the significance of being a servant leader from a volunteer's point of view.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2016), four out of five charities heavily depend upon the approximately 64.5 million volunteers who provide service annually. Specific to nonprofit organizations (NPOs), a knowledge of servant leadership style is helpful to understand job satisfaction, especially that of volunteers (Laub, 1999; Northouse, 2013; Spears, 2004). Numerous studies suggest that leadership is critical in order to sustain nonprofit institutions, particularly since organizational problems of turnover and satisfaction often plague productivity (Garverick, 2013; Gasiorek, 1996; Williams, 2009). Some authors suggested that volunteer recruitment and retention problems are issues of low morale or connectedness (Egsegian, 2013; Lewig, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Dollard, & Metzger, 2007; St-Amour, 2001). Volunteers often begin to work or stop working with an organization based upon feelings about their worth to the organization and the opinions of its leadership. The current study addresses a gap in research by applying theory to a nonprofit agency in order to increase insight into the often-overlooked perspectives of volunteers and their attitudes. Thus, this research examines job satisfaction across the staffing of nonprofit organizations, with special attention to the job satisfaction of volunteers.

Statement of the Problem

Nonprofit organizations supply many services essential to uphold community and society fundamentals. Most NPOs depend on individuals to volunteer their time so that the organization can save money and alleviate budget constraints as they sustain vital international and local services. However, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2016), the volunteer rate for 2015 was reported to be lower. Nonprofits contribute billions of dollars each year to the gross national product through millions of volunteers' efforts; volunteerism remains critical to the nonprofit sector and equates to approximately \$805 billion worth of community output (Independent Sector, 2016). Declining volunteer participation rates in the United States of America limits much needed neighborhood assistance. Consequently, maintaining nonprofit aid requires organizations to develop leaders who pay attention to individuals' needs and to their satisfaction as volunteers. McRoberts (2012) identified views on leadership and their feeling unvalued among the top ten reasons volunteers leave an organization; therefore, it is important to research the underlying attitudes of those volunteers based upon their perceptions of the organization and its leaders.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research is to address a gap in servant leadership and job satisfaction theory related to motivations and needs, and to view this gap from the volunteer perspective. The study clarifies the applicability of servant leadership theory within the volunteer population (Laub, 1999; Spears, 2004). The specific research problem was focused on retention in a nonprofit organization known for using a servant leadership style. Arfsten (2006) suggested that there be future research with nonprofit

organizations to assess individual perceptions of servant leadership. The current research addresses the lack of literature on the subject. Although volunteerism continues to decline, servant leadership has yet to be empirically established as a contemporary leadership theory for addressing the issue (Andersen, 2008; Russell & Stone, 2002; Washington, Sutton, & Feild, 2006).

Significance of the Study

Researchers suggested that some leadership attributes have a greater impact upon employee performance and highlight goal setting to be of significant interest across numerous specializations including industrial/organizational (I/O) psychology (Agostinho & Paço, 2012; Ferreira, Proença, & Proença, 2012; Goodwin, 2011; Spears, 2004; Zappa & Zavarrone, 2010). An understanding of job satisfaction as it relates to perceptions of servant leadership practice can help leaders consider worker attitudes in organizational decision-making. Existing servant leadership and satisfaction research lack empirical data that apply to servant leadership principles in various settings (Bovee, 2012; Chu, 2008; Drury, 2004; Hebert, 2003; McKenzie, 2012). The effect that leadership has on factors such as different group perceptions and feelings needs further investigation. Leader actions and values often impact how workers view their leaders, as well as the positive or negative feelings received from those associating with an organization (Paço, Agostinho, & Nave, 2013). Cognizant of the importance of diverse groups to organizations and corresponding attitudes about leadership, stakeholders may alter policies specific to nonprofit organizations (NPOs) that address volunteer needs. This researcher found scant research that addresses outcomes of leaders who put others' needs in the forefront (Laub, 1999; Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008). Educators or

consultants might assist executives identifying servant leadership principles and relating how those leaders may emulate servant leadership behaviors. Volunteer satisfaction requires further quantitative study to understand the relationship between leadership, beliefs, and actions (Gonzalez, 2009; Kirkham, 2010; Walton, 2004). An examination of the individual's status as a volunteer or employee, the organization's type or purpose, and the context the participants give to their views represent several aspects integral to the understanding of perceptions and feelings of satisfaction. Leadership can be considered integral to organizational success and change (Williams, 2009). Despite the industrial problem of decreasing volunteerism in the U.S., researchers studying job satisfaction largely ignore volunteers (Anderson, 2005; Chu, 2008; Hebert, 2003; McKenzie, 2012); instead, they gather data on the topic with employee samples. This researcher found few recent studies that addressed nonprofit organizations and their volunteer population (e.g., Goodwin, 2011; Parris & Peachey, 2012; Salie, 2008; Schneider & George, 2011).

Ryan and Frederick (1997) illuminated the relationship of psychological and motivational factors in view of world issues such as workplace problems, satisfaction, health, and well-being, for contradictions between leadership at work and requirements of life may cause stress. Since workplace culture often involves the follower's perceptions of leadership within various levels of society (Feldman & Lankau, 2005; Judge & Wantanbe, 1993), practitioners and educators might increase leadership development through tailored training programs, while seeking to meet organizational and individual needs. If nonprofit executives and stakeholders recognize the role of servant leadership, they may increase their focus on volunteer program recruiting, development, and retention efforts (Gasiorek, 1996; Gonzalez, 2009). In addition, the professionals can

improve the organizational climate by addressing issues specific to volunteers rather than to employees. Also, consultants might recommend increased organizational education to include servant leadership tools in training (Davis & Sandoval, 1991). Each organization is different, because of factors such as staff, climate, or purpose. Expanding the leaders' understanding of volunteer issues allows the use of servant leadership characteristics as effective strategies to strengthen organizational effectiveness (Anderson, 2005; Laub, 1999). Leaders who share their plans for the organization may make individuals feel more connected to a common effort. Being aware of intrinsic factors for volunteers through leadership characteristics and decision-making affect volunteer satisfaction and retention by relating individual needs to the job specifics and organizational context (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Leaders should consider individuals and group status when considering the best choices to make in given situations. More knowledge about job satisfaction and volunteers' perceptions will help guide the necessary strategic planning in recruitment and retention efforts with volunteer staff. Future institutional and organizational policy developments may also consider how well-being is associated with work (Blustein, 2008).

Many professions might contribute to and benefit applying the precepts of servant leadership. Information on the perceptions of leadership and satisfaction among groups can provide results useful for managing volunteers, a critical aspect of many modern institutional and organizational attitudes (Baard & Baard, 2009; McRoberts, 2012; Spears, 2004). Agencies may seek individuals adequately trained to mediate issues specific to the organization; for example, qualified educators might address future leader education, counseling, and work factors conducive to positive well-being. Some studies

document that risks to the NPOs remain unaddressed; the researchers asserted that when such organizations dependent mainly upon volunteers, they might cease to exist because of continued volunteer turnover and absenteeism (Gasiorek, 1996; St-Amour, 2001). If people gravitate to an organization for a feeling of connectedness, the innovative benefits of the NPO should be of special interest to those volunteers, as well as being of practical importance to workers, leaders, businesses, and overall society (Drucker, 1990; Gasiorek, 1996; Greenleaf, 1977; Greenslade & White, 2005; Ridgeway, 2013; Schneider & George, 2011; Spears, 2004). If community services supported by nonprofit agencies are lost, this could translate to paid employee job losses, fewer available service locations, and societal degradations. Volunteerism decline might affect individual satisfaction, organizational stability, community support, and overall societal health (Hustinx, Cnaan, & Handy, 2010; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Stramba, 2003). From a psychological and social-science perspective, an increased understanding of volunteer satisfaction that can result from this quantitative method can help shape the policies regarding volunteer concerns as related to the job and retention. Essential to NPOs during a burdensome economy (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2016), the current study might assist these organizations with avoiding gross salary costs; a reduction in paid staff might be achieved if information about servant leadership and job satisfaction assists NPOs to counteract a decline in volunteer participation. Industrial changes and ongoing human needs worsen the need for services in many communities. Persisting issues regarding volunteer behavior may result in increased hiring and staffing gaps by paid employees during unstable times, such as government shutdowns (Gasiorek, 1996; Independent Sector, 2016; Williams, 2009). Without further knowledge of volunteer perceptions gained from research such as from

this study, organizations with volunteers may struggle with diminished retention. Loss of invaluable volunteer labor for production and poor satisfaction levels experienced by volunteers may lead to undesirable organizational climates and outcomes (Davis & Sandoval, 1991).

Research Design

The research design used by this researcher was a quantitative group differences approach that included the examination of effects of two independent variables—group and work role—with two dependent variables, job satisfaction and perception of servant leadership characteristics (Goodwin, 2011; Hebert, 2003). Similar to Goodwin’s work with a large NPO and Hebert’s recommendation of future study, this research was designed to reach an understudied volunteer population and demographic. Creswell (2013) described an explanatory design that consisted of three categorical and two outcome variables measured at one time. Information collection involved online data using Laub’s (1999) Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA), which validated the measuring of both dependent variables included in this study. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze data concerning servant leadership perceptions and job satisfaction. The sample size included considerations of the time and resources available to pursue externally and internally valid results (Patton, 2002).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

RQ1. Did statistically significant differences exist between the employees and volunteers on Laub’s job satisfaction scale and on the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H1₀: No statistically significant differences existed between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H1_A: Statistically significant differences existed between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and on the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

RQ2. Did statistically significant differences exist among the employee work role groups (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) on Laub's job satisfaction scale and on the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H2₀: No statistically significant differences existed among employee work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and on the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H2_A: Statistically significant differences existed among the employee work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and on the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

RQ3. Did statistically significant differences exist among the volunteer work role groups (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) on Laub's job satisfaction scale and on the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H3₀: No statistically significant differences existed among the volunteer work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and on the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H3_A: Statistically significant differences existed among the volunteer work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and on the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

Assumptions and Limitations

Locke (2003) recommended making the least amount of assumptions when making note of or listening to participant responses. One assumption of this survey design involved subjectivity to human error and presumption that self-report responses are truthful. This researcher also assumed that the sample is representative of the

volunteer and employee population and that the OLA is a reliable and valid instrument for the study (Goodwin, 2011, Laub, 1999). Limitations included use of a small, convenience sample which limited the researcher's ability to make causal inference; further, the single location rather than multiple locations, limited the participants' access (Girard, 2000). The amount of employee participation in the study compared to the volunteers' participation was a problem. As reported by Fauth, Hatstrup, Mueller, & Roberts (2013), low survey participation on behalf of employees in this study may have been impacted similarly by the group attitudes. This study included a design flaw, for there was inadequate attention given to the employee population of only 60 at the outset of the research; as a result, the number of participants decreased to 40 in one region. Because there was a decrease in the employee population, there was also difficulty in obtaining participation from employees; this posed a limitation to the study.

Definition of Terms

Employee. An individual paid to perform a job in the organization.

Job satisfaction. A positive emotional condition coming from the assessment of one's job or job experience.

Management-supervisor. Individuals holding mid-level position work role two who is within the nonprofit organization, but not within top leadership or workforce.

NP. An acronym for nonprofit organization.

OLA. An acronym for an organizational leadership assessment survey instrument used to collect data in this study.

Servant leadership. A leadership model "that attempts to simultaneously enhance the personal growth of workers and improve the quality and caring of our many

institutions through a combination of teamwork and community, personal involvement in decision making, and ethical and caring behavior” (Spears, 1995, p. 2).

Top leadership. An individual holding a work role that denotes the highest level of position within the nonprofit organization.

Volunteer. An individual who devotes time to helping others without monetary gain or pay.

Workforce. Individuals within a work role and level three, non-leadership, non-management, or non-supervisory positions; this would include volunteers, as listed on the OLA and according to service within the nonprofit organization.

Expected Findings

Expected findings from this dissertation research include significance in all the three research questions (RQs) and perception of servant leadership with job satisfaction in a nonprofit organization. Results showed differences in the OLA, perception of servant leadership scores between the groups, and support for RQ1. Additionally, higher levels supported higher perceptions of servant leadership and satisfaction. To this extent, the dependent variables were to be significantly different for each group, whereas volunteers were to have lower levels of job satisfaction as measured by the job satisfaction scale within the OLA. Current research (Amadeo, 2008; Chu, 2008, Drury, 2004; McKenzie, 2012; Van Tassell, 2006) suggested that perception of servant leadership correlates with follower satisfaction. Further, for each RQ and servant leadership attribute, the expected outcome would provide either a positive or a negative relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. A positive strength suggests that as employee or volunteer perceptions of servant leadership attributes increase, job

satisfaction also increases (Goodwin, 2011; Laub, 1999). A negative relationship suggests that as employee or volunteer perception of servant leadership attributes decreases, job satisfaction increases. The positive relationship between servant leadership and satisfaction that was found in the current research study is consistent with current servant leadership studies on the topic conducted with other populations and settings.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

The organization of the remainder of the study follows the tenants and hallmarks of good research. Chapter 2 includes an in-depth review of existing research, and the information from this literature review will advance the knowledge base, contribute to theory, and form the basis of this dissertation research. The choice to use a quantitative method is discussed in Chapter 3; a quantitative method is applicable when obtaining information pertaining to the topic and provides for an aggregation of data for statistical analyses. Validity of the results was achieved through the application of a reliable instrument, the Organizational Leadership Assessment instrument, developed by Dr. Jim Laub (1999). In Chapter 4, the results of the research are discussed; these results address a gap in the literature. A further discussion of the results, implications, and conclusion are presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review presented in Chapter 2 highlights leadership and current day observations. This researcher assessed servant leadership from an organizational perspective to application in modern agencies. The purpose of the study is two-fold; the first is to examine servant leadership from a follower perspective, particularly that of volunteers, and the second is to assess servant leadership and job satisfaction in a nonprofit organization.

The literature review consists of an (a) introduction to the literature, (b) theoretical orientations, (c) an overview of servant leadership application, (d) a review of servant leadership (servant leadership) research, (e) synthesis of existing servant leadership research findings, (f) overviews of the Global Network of Emergency Disaster Relief and Emergency Disaster Relief Organization (EDRO) of United States, (g) an overview of motivation theories, (h) findings specific to the research questions, and (i) a critique of the research, followed by a summary.

Introduction to the Literature Review

Leadership is a complex, multifaceted behavior, and existing literature on servant leadership, specifically, rarely addresses this type leadership and the job satisfaction of volunteers. Researchers have often studied the important topic of leadership within various geographic areas, organizations, and demographics (Drury, 2004; Hebert, 2003), but compared to for-profit studies, few scholars have used quantitative measures to

understand associations of leadership and job satisfaction within the nonprofit arena (Garner & Garner, 2011; Schneider & George, 2011; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Spears, 2004). Past job satisfaction research contained insufficient empirical analysis on the presence of servant leadership in nonprofit organizations (NPOs) with sizable volunteer staffing (Goodwin, 2011; Ridgeway, 2013). Subsequently, current researchers suggested that many factors could be associated with job satisfaction, including leadership, values, and commitment; further there was the implication that servant leadership correlates with job satisfaction (Anderson, 2005; Chu, 2008; Iqbal, 2012). This investigator's literature search for current peer-reviewed articles servant leadership in the industrial and organizational psychology fields lacked sufficient research that included volunteers as participants. Database searches such as Ebscohost, Psycharticles, Business Source Complete, Education Research Complete, and SocioIndex within the I/O psychology school also lacked research on volunteers. However, Empirical Study and Psychinfo searches for *job satisfaction* and *servant leadership* provided few results which included volunteers. Although information significance of job satisfaction is available, existing scholarly research rarely uses servant leadership when examining volunteer behavior. Consequently, a gap exists when attempting to understand the usefulness of servant leader style within NPOs and its effects on job satisfaction across volunteer job roles (Garner & Garner, 2011; Greenslade & White, 2005). Servant leadership requires additional study of empirical evidence in order to illuminate how volunteers perceive leadership and develop attitudes about staying with or leaving an organization. Present works are comprised of inconclusive results on the topic in different settings (Jones, 2012; McKenzie, 2012; Williams, 2009). Understanding how servant leadership is

associated with volunteer behaviors requires further knowledge about shared needs, goals, or values. Researchers recommend using other designs with various organizational types, geographic regions, demographics, or samples to increase empirical evidence of individual actions or feelings with leadership behavior (Goodwin, 2011; Spears, 2004; Wilson, 2013). Therefore, Laub (1999) measured organizational health by the extent an organization prioritized worker or volunteer needs above organizational gain. Some scholars suggested that servant leadership practice is displayed when leaders value their employees and strive to develop their abilities, build community display authenticity, provide leadership, and share leadership (Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011; Greenleaf, 1977; Laub, 1999; McCann, Graves, & Cox, 2014; Parris & Peachey, 2012).

Theoretical Orientation for the Study

Servant leadership theory upholds service of others' needs first; leadership is second (Greenleaf, 1977; Reinke, 2004; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). The theory involves focusing leader actions on developing others (Hebert, 2003; Laub, 1999; Spears, 2004; Stramba, 2003). Applying servant leader theory to the volunteer role can provide insight into volunteer perceptions of nonprofit organizations and its leaders. Additional information on this topic can be applied in the field of psychology with regard to volunteer perceptions. Understanding volunteer attitudes are critical to meeting their needs and comprehend their motivations for participating (Gerstein, Wilkeson, & Anderson, 2004). Volunteers contribute in various work groups, organizations, and communities nationwide which attests to the population's significant input on society (Davis & Sandoval, 1991; Judge & Watanabe). More servant leadership research can help stakeholders to address individual volunteer and employee needs for fulfillment in

order to decrease depression and improve overall well-being (Zappa & Zavarrone, 2010). This dissertation study can assist the psychology field in recognizing factors affecting volunteer satisfaction and how this population sees its value to an organization. Existing research includes influences of work environment on volunteer psychological and physical well-being and self-esteem (Wheeler, Gorey, & Greenblatt, 1998; Zappa & Zavarrone, 2010). Exercising servant leadership can produce a foundation for a better society by creating an attitude of service from one individual to another (Greenleaf, 1977). Furthermore, understanding volunteer satisfaction can illuminate the field with regard to larger issues such as world peace, beginning with individual desires for satisfaction, happiness, or contentment (Greenleaf, 1977; Kauffman, 2006; Wheeler et al., 1998).

Human motivation is a key to explaining job satisfaction (Clary et al., 1998; Herzberg, 1968; Kopelman, Prottas, & Davis, 2008). Herzberg's (2003) two-factor, motivational-hygiene theory help explain how individual satisfaction related with basic needs for personal development on the job. Motivational aspects of the theory associate behaviors with differences among individuals' work needs. According to Cinar and Karcioğlu (2012), leadership prioritizes organizational goals that take into account the individual's purpose; the researchers found that these workers or volunteers felt more valued or satisfied by the job. By linking individual satisfaction levels with intrinsic needs, motivational theory makes an important association between individual motivations to work and job satisfaction by considering varying leadership styles (Herzberg, 2003; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman 1993; Locke, 1969; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Further, Theory Y—that individuals are motivated by their ability to be creative,

care for others, and share values—complements servant leadership principles and suggests that leadership plays an integral role in uncovering creativity vital for the individual's growth (Greenleaf, 1977; Larsson, Vinberg, & Wiklund, 2007). Finally, this dissertation study bridges a gap in the understanding of volunteer behavior by examining servant leadership style as well as motivation and satisfaction theory. Research implications include greater satisfaction among individuals who have higher perceptions of worth to both the organization and to its leadership (Chu, 2008; Laub, 1999; Yukl & Becker, 2006).

Review of Research Literature and Methodological Literature Specific to the Topic

In collecting data, Goodwin used an online version of Laub's OLA (1999) to assess differences in perceptions. Statistical results showed the presence of servant leadership in the metropolitan local and Texas regional YMCAs; and significant relationships were present between servant leadership practice and the OLA subscales: (a) values people, (b) develops people, (c) builds community, (d) provides leadership, (e) shares leadership, and (f) displays authenticity. However, negative relationships existed between *participant ages*, and nonsignificant relationships were revealed between *participant genders* and employment levels on the *values people* subscale. Goodwin found that leadership correlated to job satisfaction in the YMCA.

Bunch (2013) conducted a nonexperimental dissertation to examine the extent to which pastors exhibit servant leadership and attitudes. Over 300 primarily full-time African American pastor-participants had a seminary degree. The sample was taken from 11 denominations; the largest portion of the sample was from the National Baptist

Convention (51%), and there were 181 surveys analyzed. Most geographic representation was from the Midwest, Northeast, and South.

The largest representation, 45.3%, included pastors from churches with fewer than 200 members. Due to the poor return rate, Bunch (2013) employed a mixture of email, mail, and face-to-face collection to obtain random sampling with a stratified population. Bunch measured servant leadership using the Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) with self-rating scale. The tool consisted of five factors (altruistic calling; emotional healing; organizational stewardship; persuasive mapping; and wisdom) with 23 items for scoring on a five-point scale of 0 to 4. Several demographic variables including age gender, and denomination status were studied; the size of the church was the only significant variable. Pastors from all divisions had servant leadership scores above 78, while pastors scoring above 91 were in the Pacific, West South Central, East North Central, East South Central, and Mid-Atlantic regions.

Results from Bunch's research revealed that pastors saw themselves as servant leaders, and their data fell into the middle range of exhibiting servant leadership. Unexpectedly, Bunch found that pastors reported highest in persuasive mapping— influencing opinions and beliefs—rather than altruistic calling—putting others' interests ahead of their own and doing everything to serve others.

Wilson (2013) obtained approval from Dr. Laub to use the paper OLA for a self-directed cross-sectional survey that took into account participant time constraints, confidentiality, and technological strengths and weaknesses. Wilson's quantitative descriptive dissertation discussed the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction in a multicultural hotel organization in the Mid-Atlantic. Individuals were

asked to acknowledge verbal understanding prior to signing consent forms and were provided with a Spanish translator, if needed. The main cultures represented in the sample included Anglo, Latin American, native-born, U.S. native-born, foreign-born, and two or more unnamed cultures in this study. Of the 39 participants, two were senior managers, six supervisors, and 31 hourly employees.

The multicultural organization was described by Wilson (2013) as one that valued its employees, and the researcher expected that results would provide new knowledge which would add to existing servant leadership and job satisfaction literature with regard to various types of hospitality organization. Wilson used the OLA instrument based upon scope of analysis, use frequency, and confirmed validity among several available instrument models. Results included a statistically significant strong correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction on birthplace and cultural designation in the multicultural organization. There was not a significant difference in servant leadership or job satisfaction between the subgroups. The organization was measured as typical, Level 4, servant-led on Laub's OLA chart (the detailed Organization Health Level Scale and Ranges chart, Table 2, can be viewed on page 61). The culturally varied organization ranking denoted the organization as a moderately healthy one in which employees took on the roles of well cared for children, while the leaders assumed nurturing parental roles. Compared to other studies, Wilson noted that this study was the first of its kind to examine servant leadership and job satisfaction with a culturally-diverse sample using the OLA.

Roark (2013) wished to survey US agencies that considered themselves to be servant led. He contacted organizations through website analysis, and performed a

mixed-method survey and qualitative cross-sectional dissertation using a sample of two organizations that were described in little detail. Organization A had a slow and continual servant leadership history filled with learning, setbacks, and affirmation of 20 years. Organization B's history of seven years included a mission and purpose statement that discussed the core values of family first; honor and serve others; conduct self ethically and with integrity; honest and trustworthy; and uncompromising values. Both organizations had common features such as valuing a positive impact on society through charitable works; they also acknowledged making mistakes and pressing forward in the belief that leaders change organizational culture by serving others. Demographics were taken of management level, years' experience, age, gender, and education level.

Roark used the Servant Leadership Scale (SLS) as part of the data collection. In addition, Roark collected data by using two self-report instruments with leaders, gathering demographic data, and information from followers who rated their leaders. Samples consisting of 42 leaders and 298 followers completed the SLS. The Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (EI) scale was used to determine emotional intelligence. Telephone interviews were conducted and digitally recorded with department heads of training and development, and information about each organization's servant leadership culture was transcribed. Descriptive statistics, graphing, and parametric inferential statistics ANOVA were used for statistical analysis. Further statistical tests included correlation, hierarchical regression, regression, and ANOVA.

The organizations in Roark's study were similar in commitment to charitable works and to addressing the needs of the community and society. Roark (2013)

discovered that among the leaders in the study, there was a significant correlation between the dependent variable of servant leadership and independent variable of Emotional Intelligence (EI)—the ability to seek out reasoning in emotions and the ability to use emotions and knowledge in enhancing thought. Servant leadership in both organizations possessed both servant leadership and emotional intelligence. There was significant correlation and positive relationship between servant leadership for leaders and followers; however, there was not a relationship between leader and follower scores on EI.

Hajjaj (2014) conducted research to determine the relationship between intent to stay and servant leadership in the Municipality of Gaza. The population and sample included all 664 employees in the municipality, but few specifics were provided about the company. Survey instruments for servant leadership were the Dennis (2004) Servant Leadership Assessment Instrument and Caffey (2012) Intentions to stay scales. The results showed a positive correlation between servant leadership and the dependent variable—intent to stay—and revealed that intent to stay was significantly affected by a perception of servant leadership, service, and humility. There was not a significant difference based on demographics of gender, age, but difference was shown according to the person's years of experience. Those with less than 7 years had greater intent to stay than employees those in the more-than-15-year category. Consequently, results suggested that individuals intended to stay with an organization that had a philosophy of service and humility. Shared vision increased the likelihood of staying in the organization, according to Hajjaj (2014).

Using a cross-sectional design, Chan and Mak (2014) examined subordinates' perceptions of the relationship between servant leadership and whether tenure affected their trust in their leader. The intent of the study was to determine why and how subordinate attitudes become influenced by servant leadership. The sample included 218 full-time administrative employees in a private service organization in the People's Republic of China. Instruments were translated from English to Chinese. Servant leadership was measured using a 28-item scale from Liden et al. (2008). Job satisfaction was measured using a three-item scale developed by Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis, and Cammann (1983). Demographic variables of gender, education level, age, length of leader-subordinate relationship, and organizational tenure were obtained from subordinates. Statistical analyses included means and Pearson's correlations. Results of Chan and Mak's work suggested that trust for the leader was positively associated with servant leadership behavior and job satisfaction. Job satisfaction was stronger for subordinates with less tenure than greater tenure. The study also examined effects of servant leadership on attitudes. Limitations included impacts of the Western construct and the cross-sectional design used to determine causality.

McCann, Graves, and Cox (2014) researched the impact of leadership style and practice on organizational leaders. Of particular interest were the participants' perceptions of servant leaders and their level of job satisfaction; the same included employees in 10 rural community hospitals in the southeastern region of the United States. Participants completed 219 surveys of an online version of the Servant Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) which measured five factors of altruistic healing; emotional healing; wisdom; persuasive mapping; and organization stewardship. The

short form Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was used to measure job satisfaction. The researchers noted a strong correlation between servant leadership and employee satisfaction and found that servant leadership and intrinsic satisfaction strongly correlated with Hospital Consumer Assessment of Healthcare Providers and Systems (HCAHPS) scores. The researchers suggested that the various geographic areas in the U.S. might affect how servant leadership, employee satisfaction, and HCAHPS relate.

Rivkin, Diestel, and Schmidt (2014) performed online research to determine a relationship between servant leadership and psychological health; the sample was made up of two different occupation contexts of a major Germany bank, and job ambiguity was a control. Age, gender, working time, and servant leadership were demographic variables. The first study included 443 full- and part-time employees who used online tools. The second study by Rivkin et al. (2014) included within-person data involving the emotional dissonance of 773 employees. Both studies one and two were made up of participants who were either full- or part-time employees. Measures were translated, and the researchers used the Breugh and Colihan job ambiguity scale. Rivkin et al. employed Ehrhart's scale to measure seven servant leadership behaviors including having connecting skills; behaving ethically; creating value for those outside of the organization; helping followers grow and succeed; empowering followers; putting followers first; and forming relationship with followers. Results showed that servant leadership was positively associated with psychological health. Leadership considered employees needs and developed work environments to fulfill those needs.

Rivkin et al. (2014) used multiple samples, within- and between-person groups, and long and short term indicators. Uses of multi-methods were beneficial to see any

effects across different methodological conditions. Results of the two Rivkin et al. research studies revealed that use of servant leadership was negatively related to short and long term strain related to job stressors. Indications of the study concluded that servant leadership was an important factor of employee psychological health. Limitations included self-report, causal order of the correlational design, and lack of ability for causal conclusion.

Synthesis of Research Findings

Leadership is the backbone of any organization; and effective leadership remains necessary for an organization to flourish (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Judge & Piccolo, 2004). But even though leadership has been extensively studied thousands of times, even to ancient times, the topic continues to evolve as it pertains to individuals, groups, and organizations. Despite all the writing that has been done over centuries, questions remain regarding what leadership is and how its implementation can be considered as good and bad.

Barrow (1977) stated that there is not a clear definition of what leadership is, and that this lack of specificity contributes to the inability to narrow down effectiveness. The researcher defined leadership as “behavioral processes of influencing individuals or groups toward set goals” (Barrow, 1977, p. 232). During this time, there was a focus on personality in order to comprehend characteristics and methods to achieve effective leadership. Many aspects plagued the researcher’s ability to grasp and apply leadership to a given situation, and little empirical information existed upon which to build a distinct framework; this further contributed to imperfections in leadership. Also, not knowing what relationships the variables had to one another was identified as integral to guiding

leadership success (Barrow, 1977). Therefore, additional research is necessary to differentiate effective from ineffective leaders and to delineate their characteristics.

Keeping pace with what society deems to be important further complicates the topic of leadership in various contexts. In order to understand the factors that shape perceptions of a job, industry continually attempts to unravel the unknowns of leadership. DePree (1994) attempted to define leadership in terms of competence and moral purpose by explaining the complexity of measuring leadership; to assess leadership, performance may be measured in light of what followers need. However, when insufficient considerations are provided to explain the large variations among individuals' needs, this often leads to disconnects between individual expectations and reality (Cinar & Karcioglu, 2012). Critical to a leader's position is the responsibility to know and stay abreast of the organization's needs from both societal and group viewpoints. Outcomes of insufficient consideration often involve negative impacts on individual attitudes and retention (Ferreira et al., 2012; Herzberg, 2003).

Despite difficulties in determining a clear definition of the term, leadership typically involves a leader, his/her influence, and the impact on followers, and the absence of a universal definition and characteristics continue to cloud this subject. Vroom and Jago (2007) defined leadership as a role used to motivate others to accomplish collaborated goals. Because there is not a clear definition of leadership which would apply to specific situations, those who attempt to explain leadership are stymied. Along with other theories, *contingency* was introduced to attempt an explanation of the relationship between what is and what is not effective leadership behavior (Vroom & Jago, 2007). Considering the organization and structure requires an

examination of the relationships between leaders and followers, the task at hand, and the power of influence wielded by the individuals involved. Early leadership theories such as Path-goal and Situational leadership attempted to clarify leadership by emphasizing a few vaguely defined tasks or relational behaviors (Vroom & Jago, 2007). Understanding the relationship between numerous factors allows the leader to address and make decisions in a given situation, for in order to make a valid decision, it is important to consider the situation. Accounting for leader behavior and context are critical in pursuing insight to effective leadership and behaviors.

Although leaders are instrumental at different levels, the term *effective leadership* remains obscure. Yukl (2012) further elaborated on the subject specific to organizations and considered a definition in terms of a person's influence on others with regard to reaching shared objectives. An attempt to adequately define leadership necessitates various considerations including individuals, leaders, organizations and specific contexts. Understanding what happens as leadership is displayed in an organizational setting requires attention to many factors. The organization's purpose and status of people within it can complicate the role of leadership. Yukl (2012) suggested practicing effective leadership involves understanding many factors of which timing and frequency of behaviors in various contexts make it even more difficult to resolve on a single meaning of leadership. Thus, variations in definitions, behavior, effect, and effectiveness continue to confound this subject.

Researchers have continued an ongoing pursuit to define leadership despite the myriad of variables involved. Differences between individuals and between situations are paramount to comprehending leadership. Transformational and charismatic

leadership theories emerged as attempts to explain the effects of leadership behavior but yielded conflicting results (Bass, 1990; Wang & Zang, 2014). Since leadership is shaped by the effects of behavior on subordinates, peers, and outsiders alike, it is important to examine the context of the situation—who is going to determine what the optimal behavior is going to be, and in what context would such behavior be appropriate.

Transformational leadership might be best when working with graphic artists, whereas in the same setting, charismatic leadership would not create the climate for a rich exchange of ideas.

Keys to determining leadership effectiveness and deciphering effects involve observing specifics of circumstances. Categorizing situations based on the purpose can help isolate behaviors in light of desired outcomes or goals. Yukl (2012) attempted to illuminate effectiveness by categorizing situations into task-oriented, relations-oriented, change-oriented, and external categories requiring leadership action. Timing of interactions, individual skills, and values of leadership, and behaviors in countless situations can lead to multiple outcomes (Yukl, 2012). Being a leader entails identifying patterns of effects based on behaviors that leaders use to elicit outcomes and manage trade-offs. Effectiveness demands recognizing observable leadership behaviors in addition to using combinations of skills. Also, managing leadership includes displaying behaviors that fit the situation and are relevant to the people involved. Yukl (2012) explained that leadership competence involves enhancing the leader's and the follower's abilities at given (individual, group, or organization) levels.

The complexity of demands on leadership as a topic requires continuous research and an examination of factors and effects on the subject. Understanding its vastness necessitates consideration of many aspects including differences. Despite ethnicity, location, language, religion, culture, background, or politics, Blanchard (2013) explained two factors to effective leadership. Blanchard stressed that for leaders to be effective, they must first practice servant leadership or lead by keeping in mind the greater good of society. Such can be accomplished by embracing the diversity found in groups. Also, when leaders listen to what employees want, set the vision, lead to serve first, and respect differences, they can create an organizational culture to satisfy employees, organization, and customers, alike. Second, Blanchard contended that building trust is essential to leading at higher level. A gap between what people believe as acceptable is a common source of lost trust and misunderstanding. People of various cultures often perceive behavior differently and see things through their own filters. Therefore, effective leaders develop a culture of trust for their employees by displaying a consistent behavior pattern of concern and caring for what followers (i.e., their employees) want.

Various leaders, followers, and situations may persist in confounding their understanding every aspect of leadership. Inconclusiveness and the multifaceted nature of context may result in an ongoing pursuit to understand leadership. Eberly, Johnson, Hernandez, and Avolio (2013) recognized that the complexity of groups, context, and timing of interaction from source to transmission is at the center of understanding and advancing leadership.

Consensus also does not exist on the definition of servant leadership, just as there is no universal definition of leadership. The topic of servant leadership has been

empirically investigated in various contexts including education and for-profit organizations, but with varied results (Drury, 2004; Ebener & O'Connell, 2010; Parris & Peachey, 2012). Although studies of organizational research continue, volunteers as a population are missing from the equation (Parris & Peachey, 2013). Existing literature typically uses employee samples. Despite implications that servant leadership is best suited for service organizations, NPOs are seldom studied on the topic (Schneider & George, 2011; Spears, 1998). In addition, few researchers (Amadeo, 2008; Irving, 2005; Salie, 2008) conducted servant leadership research with nonprofit agencies that had no volunteer force.

The current research increases an understanding of the topic by expanding servant leadership theory into different organizational types and group statuses and by drawing opinions from a marginally-tapped population of volunteers. Laub and an expert panel developed the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) tool which they based on follower needs-based theory; through a Delphi study, Laub (1999) concluded that six characteristics are essential to servant leaders (see also Spears, 2004). Several authors' research projects contributed to development of five servant leader characteristics; a servant leader: (a) values people, (b) develops people, (c) builds community, (d) provides leadership, and (e) shares leadership (Covey, 1994; Greenleaf, 1977; Spears, 1996). Other servant leaders advocated a sixth servant leadership characteristic, one that displays authenticity (Covey, 1994; DePree, 1997; Spears, 1996). Existing servant leadership research often advocates that leaders who seek awareness of the needs of others, simultaneously work to make society a better place. Most servant leadership studies use

researchers such as Greenleaf (1977), Spears (1996), or Laub (1999) as a basis in their research (Parris & Peachey, 2013).

Consequently, numerous studies have used the OLA to measure the servant leadership perceptions of various populations and organizations (Chu, 2008; Hebert, 2003; McKenzie, 2012; Salie, 2008). And it should be noted that different factors may affect the outcome of leadership behavior. Although Goodwin (2011) studied a large nonprofit organization with a vast volunteer presence, empirical research on the topic with volunteers remained limited. In an attempt to validate servant leadership as usable theory, further servant leadership research is necessary. Leadership remains a critical aspect of working in organizations, and theories of work motivation suggest that individuals become satisfied on the job when adequately challenged (Cinar & Karcioğlu, 2012). Leadership can also contribute to job satisfaction when those in charge express that they value their employees and volunteers (Herzberg, 2003). By focusing on developing their followers, organizational leaders may affect volunteer or employee attitudes toward their jobs (Cavanagh, Fisher, Francis, & Gapp, 2012; Janicijevic, Kovacevic, & Petrovic, 2015). Despite theories regarding which actions contribute to job satisfaction levels, it remains unclear to what extent attitudes impact job performance or if the job itself affects individual behaviors. Unlike other servant leadership tools, Laub's (1999) OLA also allows for an assessment of the health of the organization and proposes that higher scores on OLA scales indicate the existence of higher job satisfaction among workers and volunteers.

Leadership is essential and is studied as part of many research projects. However, Goodwin (2011) identified a lag between Greenleaf's first discussions and research on

servant leadership theory and subsequent research on how the theory impacts profit and nonprofit organizations. As a theory, servant leadership requires more empirical research to establish greater believability. Some researchers identified the theory as untrustworthy because it requires so much empirical research to establish credibility (Anderson, 2008; Chu, 2008). But different types of research on leadership are necessary to address the complexity of a modern organization, and, thus, leaders, workers, and both for-profit and nonprofit organizations require different considerations because their organizations differ so greatly.

Goodwin (2011) conducted research to determine the correlation between perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction in a nonprofit community organization within the Young Men's Christian Association (YMCA). Goodwin identified the nonprofit organization as an avenue to focus on community and as a means to address societal problems. The study used a stratified random sampling with participants placed in small groups by gender, age, and employment level as the independent variables. As one of the largest operating nonprofit organizations, the YMCA has 2,686 facilities in the United States. The mission of the YMCA is based on servant leadership; its goal is to practice Christian principles through programs that develop the healthy mind, body, and spirit those who take advantage of its services. Overall, there are over 19,000 full time or part-time employees and volunteers in the YMCA. Goodwin's research was conducted with a contemporary formal organization in metropolitan Texas, and the sample consisted of full and part-time employees, volunteers, and leaders within the YMCA in the Texas area.

Existing servant leadership literature often involves different organizations, and much of the research with employees shows that servant leadership is often related to job satisfaction and other outcomes. Studies were performed in numerous geographic locations and using various tools in measuring servant leadership with different cultures (Chan & Mak, 2014; Hajjaj, 2014; McCann et al., 2014; Rivkin et al., 2014; Roark, 2013; Wilson, 2013). Recent research involves studies of different demographic areas with employees rather than volunteers. A lack of research with groups based on employee or volunteer status leaves a void in research with different populations.

Important factors were discovered during the review of existing servant leadership and job satisfaction research. Between 2013 and 2016, researchers rarely used the OLA to measure servant leadership and assess health of organizations. And, servant leadership is still undergoing validation as a viable leadership theory and the context for its application is still in question. Accordingly, studies often exclude information that readily identifies the organization as an entity; this includes omission of organizational purpose and mission as related to the groups of individuals working within. Second, recent studies focused more on measuring individual characteristics and less on assessing servant leadership in the organization as a whole. Unlike Laub's OLA instrument, most servant leadership tools lack the capability of assessing organizations on several levels such as individual, leadership, or organizational levels. For this reason, when describing the organization itself, researchers often exclude specifics about organizational purpose or vision. Last, the lack of recent research on the OLA and organization descriptions complicate attempts to compare organizations with one another based on type, basic principles, and groups of individuals in the organization.

Servant Leadership Application

Greenleaf's (1977) servant leadership serves as the major theory for this research study. Servant leaders assume a servant role as they address individual needs of others. Leaders take care of others and these actions are often manifested in volunteer growth, health, and freedom. Implications involve an increasing likelihood that others will become servants (Greenleaf, 1977; Spears, 2004). Central to servant leadership theory is that the practice of the theory benefits the least privileged as well as overall society. Prior to the OLA, servant leadership research was limited in scope by organization levels. However, by developing the OLA, Laub (1999) allowed for assessments with organizations based on type; this supported research at individual, unit and organizational levels. Laub's research includes six different organizational types which add to a clearer understanding of servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Cinar and Karecioglu (2012) described *satisfaction* as a matter of social comparison, whereas one's efforts are viewed in light of expectations of others. In the current study, volunteers and employees viewed individual job inputs and outputs compared to that of another group and were satisfied that their job characteristics met expectations. The current research emphasizes overall volunteer perceptions of servant leadership compared to those perceptions of employees; these perceptions were related to essential characteristics of servant leaders who focus on people's and groups' needs and values, and attend to their community that affects their motivational behavior (Greenleaf, 1977; Laub, 1999; Malik, 2013; Spears, 1996).

Something New About Servant Leadership Application

Few quantitative studies have investigated the usefulness of servant leadership within large nonprofit organizations; the studies also did not address job satisfaction within the volunteer community (Goodwin, 2011). The current study used volunteers in the sample which can offer increased knowledge of effects of servant leadership theory to volunteer recruitment and retention outcomes (Bovee, 2012; Gasiorek, 1996). Current research rarely involves servant leader and group differences studies, with volunteers. However, this dissertation research represents the first group-differences design which tests servant leadership theory using a large national nonprofit organization and primarily volunteer sample (see also Goodwin, 2011; Hebert, 2003). Servant leadership theory can provide useful insights as volunteers address their intrinsic work needs which are useful for satisfaction levels (Greenleaf, 1977; Herzberg, 1968; Spears, 2004). Also, this dissertation's investigation provides empirical results regarding servant leadership theory, and job satisfaction, beyond for-profit and not-for-profit agencies that have little or non-existent volunteer populations.

Adding to Existing Theory

The current research adds to servant leadership theory by providing empirical data for the perceived presence of servant leadership characteristics within a large nonprofit organization and population. The research contributes to the field of psychology by advancing several leadership and motivation theories (Barrow, 1977; Bass, 1990; Harrell & Stahl, 1981; Herzberg, 1968; Kopelman et al., 2008; Locke, 1976; Maslow, 1943; Vroom & Jago, 2007). This research was designed to further establish servant

leadership; the research expands servant leadership theory and applies the theory to NPOs with considerable volunteer staff (see also Greenleaf, 1977).

Testing to Confirm Servant Leadership Theory

This researcher expanded the use of servant leadership to the volunteer population by testing the theory using a valid and reliable tool. Confirming the theory's utility beyond populations studied in existing literature aided in extending the theory's reach (Girard, 2000; Nisar, Saeed, & Shah, 2012; Schneider & George, 2011). Results strengthen the credibility of servant leadership theory and confirm its applicability to nonprofit settings and populations. Hebert (2003) identified a need for additional empirical data on the topic and recommended replicating existing quantitative designs with other demographics and organizations, such as the relief organization used in this study. Current works are lacking with regard to the follower's perspective of leadership, which is different from the leader's viewpoint (Chu, 2008; Drury, 2004). And prior to this study, volunteers as a population were not reflected in empirical servant leadership and job satisfaction research. Exploring the topic and theory with a national nonprofit organization and large volunteer population can amplify the leader's capacity to think emotionally, to expand training platforms, and to promote leader development (Ceballos, 2014; Goleman, McKee, & Boyatzis, 2006; Johnson, 2008). Several studies reviewed the topic and measured the six servant leadership characteristics by using Laub's OLA (Anderson, 2008; Chu, 2008; Drury, 2004; Girard, 2000; Goodwin, 2011; Hebert, 2003).

A Global Emergency Disaster Relief Organization Network

The research problem that this investigator chose focuses on volunteer satisfaction in a nonprofit organization that is known for using a servant-leadership style. This

particular organization was chosen because it depends on a volunteer workforce. The purpose of the research was to advance the field on leadership-style perspectives among two groups (volunteers versus employees), so the selected organization was an excellent source of data. The research population included a large number of employees and volunteers study so that it would be possible to generalize results to a larger population and other nonprofit organizations that depended, to a great deal, on volunteers.

As indicated in the organization's online profile, the selected Emergency Disaster Relief Organization (EDRO) network is located in 187 countries, with fundamental principles:

Humanity—alleviating human suffering wherever found without discrimination protects life, health and ensures respect for human beings. Promote mutual understanding, friendship, cooperation, and lasting peace among all peoples

Impartiality—presenting no discrimination due to nationality, race, religious beliefs, class or political opinions; to relieve suffering of individuals, being guided solely by their needs, and give priority to most urgent cases in distress

Neutrality—maintain confidence of all by not taking sides at any time of political, racial, religious, and ideological nature

Independence—maintain autonomy in accordance with the organization's principles as national societies on humanitarian services of respective governments are subject to laws of their country

Voluntary service—the organization is a voluntary relief movement not prompted in any way by desire of gain

Unity—only one organization society in any one country and must be open to all and carry its humanitarian work throughout its territory

Universality—the organization is a worldwide institution in which all societies have equal status and share equal responsibilities and duties in helping each other

U.S. Sector of the Emergency Disaster Relief Organization

The selected nonprofit organization is dedicated to emergency disaster relief, helping people in need, and was inspired by the Swiss global network of an Emergency Disaster Relief Organization (EDRO). Consisting of over a 90% volunteer force, governing documents include a congressional charter, bylaws, the Geneva Convention, and International Humanitarian law (as indicated in the organization's online profile). Clara Barton was a nurse during the Civil War, helped in the preparation of hospitals during the Franco-Prussian War and, with her associates, established an EDRO in Washington DC in 1881. Its first congressional charter was in 1900, and the organization's latest charter was purposed to give relief to the American Armed Forces, families, and provide disaster relief and mitigation (as indicated in the organization's online profile). There were 107 local chapters in 1914 that provided first aid and public health programs, education on safety, nutrition, accident prevention, and home care. In comparison, there are now over 20 million adult and 11 million Junior EDRO members. The EDRO contributed greatly to support during World War II; the organization provided nursing, prepared 27 million packages, shipped more than 300,000 tons of supplies overseas, and collected 13.3 million pints of blood for the Armed Forces (as indicated in the organization's online profile). The EDRO provided services to the U.S military, civilians, and Allies. Following World War II, EDRO started the first national civilian blood program and supplies over 40% of current day blood and products in the U.S.

Since 2006, the EDRO has provided training in civil defense, cardiopulmonary resuscitation, use of an automated external defibrillator, education on human immunodeficiency virus and acquired immunodeficiency syndrome, in addition to

emotional care following disasters (as indicated in the organization’s online profile). The selected EDRO continues working with government agencies on community organizations to plan, arrange for, and give food, shelter, and family reunification to those affected in disasters. Currently, this EDRO compassionately provides care in five crucial areas where people are affected by disasters in America; offers support for members of the military and their families; conducts blood collections, processing and distribution; provides health and safety education and training; and participates in international relief and development (as indicated in the organization’s online profile). The EDRO is a charitable organization not designed for gain.

The selected EDRO communicates that its mission statement was designed to prevent and alleviate human suffering in face of emergencies by mobilizing the power of volunteers and generosity of others. The EDRO vision and statement involves being present in time of need through its strong network of volunteers, donors, and partners.

The purpose of the EDRO is to turn compassion into action so that—

1. All people affected by disaster across the country and around the world receive care, shelter and hope;
2. Our communities are ready for disasters;
3. Everyone in our country has access to safe, lifesaving blood and blood products;
4. All members of our armed services and their families find support and comfort wherever needed and;
5. In an emergency, there are always trained individuals nearby, ready to use their relief organization skills to save lives.

Like many service organizations, EDRO survives due to individuals who are willing to give time and effort to help others. “This EDRO is devoted to supporting

where need exists and standing in the gap for communities. Attracting and keeping volunteers motivated to sacrifice self remains critical to sustainment of numerous organizations dedicated to making society a better place (as indicated in the organization's online profile).”

The large emergency disaster relief nonprofit organization was chosen for this investigator's research because there would be a substantial sample of volunteers who could provide an extensive data collection. It was also chosen as a prime example of servant leadership, for its goals touch on the major aspects of servant leadership.

The research was designed to assess perceptions of servant leadership characteristics associated with satisfaction among volunteers (Cinar & Karecioglu, 2012). Human motivation Theory Y was useful to the research problem because it takes into account both volunteer goals and intrinsic work needs (Kopelman et al., 2008; Roberts, 2002). Volunteers' attitudes about leaders begin to develop as they observe the organizational leadership, and as their perceptions form, their volunteer motivations are shaped relative to how their leaders behave. Ultimately, volunteers' views of leadership influence their job satisfaction and actions as they contribute their services to the organization (Chan & Mak, 2014; Stamov-Roßnagel & Biemann, 2012). Theory Y suggests that when individuals remain free to be creative, they care for others and remain intrinsically motivated by shared values and goals (Kopelman et al., 2008; Larsson et al., 2007; Laub, 1999). Furthermore, current job satisfaction research is commonly centered on six major job satisfaction theories (Cinar & Karecioglu, 2012; Flores & Utley, 2000). The extent to which needs, expectancies, and values are met can influence individual level of satisfaction. Theory Y considers creative freedom in job tasks or contexts and

represents an important concept about what motivates individuals to work and what influences their attitudes (Liden et al., 2008; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Olasupo, 2011; Stamov-Roßnagel & Biemann, 2012). Job satisfaction levels adjust as expectations and motivations meet (Bang, Ross, & Reio, 2013). Theory Y proposes that meeting individual desires for work can support growth and development (Kopelman et al.; Spears, 2004). Accordingly, job satisfaction may contribute to individual volunteer commitment to the organization and increase retention (Fu & Deshpande, 2013; Kasemsap, 2013; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005; Wang et al., 2014; Yousef, 2000).

Finally, servant leadership and motivation theories support a belief in the unlimited potential of leader roles in volunteer development (Cinar & Karecioglu, 2012; Kopelman et al., 2008; Laub, 1999). The motivational aspect of Herzberg's two factor theory suggests that work itself, responsibility, and growth affect job satisfaction (Cinar & Karecioglu, 2012; Herzberg, 2003; Spears, 1998). Despite common misconceptions concerning a person's motivation to work, job satisfaction is positively associated with intrinsic factors inherent to individual needs (Herzberg, 2003; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Spears, 2004). Ultimately, motivation theory remains foundational to understanding volunteer feelings connected to unmet needs such as recognition and responsibility (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005; Herzberg, 2003; Laub, 1999). Thus, leadership and motivation theory remain important to recognizing attitudes affecting volunteer behavior, and societal stability (Arfsten, 2006; Greenleaf, 1977; Larsson et al., 2007; Laub, 1999).

The purpose of this research is to address a gap in empirical servant leadership and job satisfaction research related to motivation and needs from the volunteer

perspective. The intention of this researcher is to clarify applicability of servant leadership theory within the volunteer population (Laub, 1999; Spears, 2004). The specific research problem focuses on volunteer recruitment and retention in nonprofit organizations, commonly known for using a servant-leadership style. Arfsten (2006) suggested future research with nonprofit organizations to assess individual perceptions of servant leadership. Volunteers are important to survival of service agencies; but servant leadership has not been empirically established as a contemporary leadership theory for when associated with job satisfaction (Anderson, 2008; Independent Sector, 2016; Russell & Stone, 2002; Washington et al., 2006). Perceptions that leaders include or exclude volunteers regarding important organization actions may affect satisfaction. Other actions taken by leaders may include how they affect the volunteer's behavior, attitudes, or decision to stay or leave an organization (Cheung & Wu, 2013; McRoberts, 2012). Leaders who take care of others first are described as catalysts to employees or volunteers who also become servants (Greenleaf, 1977; Spears, 2004). The questions to address the problem and corresponding hypotheses are:

RQ1. Did statistically significant differences exist between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H1₀: No statistically significant differences existed between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H1_A: Statistically significant differences existed between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

RQ2. Did statistically significant differences exist among the employee work role groups (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H2₀ No statistically significant differences existed among the employee work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H2_A: Statistically significant differences existed among the employee work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

RQ3. Did statistically significant differences exist among the volunteer work role groups (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H3₀ No statistically significant differences existed among the volunteer work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H3_A Statistically significant differences existed among the volunteer work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scales.

Critique of the Previous Research

Despite existing support for servant leadership theory, there was also criticism regarding worthiness (Andersen, 2009; Chu, 2008; Washington et al., 2006). Current literature often supports relationships among the variables commonly derived from correlation studies. Limited quantitative designs also minimize the capability for additional qualitative studies necessary to explain how and why the associations among servant leadership and job satisfaction may exist (Creswell, 2005, Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). This dissertation study extends prior research on servant leadership theory by filling a gap in empirical data available to address satisfaction among a

neglected population—volunteers (Callan, 2005; Kirkham, 2010; Ridgeway, 2013). Volunteers provide ongoing contributions to organizations, communities, and society, and are an integral part of the survival of many nonprofit organizations (Independent Sector, 2016). Therefore, this study assists by increasing the existing research on the topic (Haveman, 2001). Gasiorak (1996) suggested that volunteer turnover, recruitment, and retention problems needed further study within nonprofit agencies as contemporary institutions. The current research emphasizes the importance of people-issues such as volunteer attitudes and pinpoints opportunity for enhanced recruiting and training strategies vital to future leader and organizational effectiveness (Mosadegh Rad & Yarmohadian, 2006; Spears, 2004). In addition, this study provides a basis for current servant leadership research (Anderson, 2005; Chu, 2008; Hebert, 2003). However, more empirical research is needed among different organizations and populations to establish viability of servant leadership and to extend the use of the theory (Dierendonck & Nuijten, 2011; Goodwin, 2011; Ridgeway, 2013).

Summary

This dissertation investigation is useful to existing leadership and satisfaction research which often overlooks the volunteer population. Despite implications that leadership is critical to the success of many organizations, existing servant leadership literature particularly neglects the volunteer population. Furthermore, although numerous studies support servant leadership and job satisfaction correlations, a gap exists in the variety of organizational types and populations researched. This study extends the search to establish leadership style as an important aspect of individual attitudes, such as job satisfaction, that often affect organizational outcomes.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research is to address a gap in empirical servant leadership and job satisfaction theory. The research topic relates to motivation and needs from the follower perspective. The study was developed to clarify the applicability of servant leadership theory, specifically, from the volunteer population's perspective (Laub, 1999; Spears, 2004); that is, if a leader is recognized as one who considers the needs of others first—an example of servant leadership—how is this viewed by volunteers in the organization in comparison to the views of paid employees? This chapter addresses the research problem, focuses on volunteer satisfaction in a nonprofit organization known for using a servant-leadership style, and having a large number of volunteers. Further description is provided on the procedures and methods used for addressing each research question on the dependent variables. A purpose of this research is to advance the field on leadership-style perspectives among two groups (volunteers versus employees). Arfsten (2006) suggested furthering this research on nonprofit organizations to assess individual perceptions of servant leadership. Although volunteer satisfaction is important, servant leadership has yet to be empirically established as a contemporary leadership theory for addressing the topic with this population (Anderson, 2005; Russell & Stone, 2002; Washington et al., 2006). McRoberts (2012) noted that leadership, and not feeling valued by those leaders, were among the top-ten reasons volunteers leave an organization.

Greenleaf (1977) suggested that leaders must place the needs of others first, which is central to the good of society.

This researcher examined psychological differences underlying employee versus volunteer perspectives of leadership and satisfaction. Additionally, this study was designed to specifically advance an existing literature gap on volunteer attitudes. Chapter 3 describes the three statistical tests used to locate the differences among the two groups of employees and volunteers—Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA), Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), and Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (Pearson's R).

The first tests included a MANOVA and ANOVA, applicable for measuring significant group differences on two quantitative variables. The outcome variables of job satisfaction and perception of servant leadership were measured by the organizational leadership assessment (OLA). The second test, MANOVA, was useful for measuring significant differences among employee work roles—top leadership vs management vs workforce—on-the-outcome variables. The third series of tests included MANOVA and ANOVA, which are both appropriate for measuring the significant differences among volunteer work roles—top leadership vs management vs workforce—on the outcome variables. The fourth test, an ANOVA, was useful to determine the individual strength of the satisfaction and OLA outcome variables on the groups. The fifth test, a Pearson's correlation, was appropriate for measuring correlation between the independent variable groups or levels on each quantitative outcome variable. The three—MANOVA, ANOVA, and Pearson's R—were appropriate for measuring differences between the two groups and three preexisting levels—top leadership vs management vs workforce—on the independent variables.

Research Design

This investigator used a research design that allowed a quantitative group differences approach to examine the effects of job satisfaction and perception of servant leadership primarily in volunteers (Goodwin, 2011; Hebert, 2003). Creswell (2013) described an explanatory design as useful when measuring three categorical and two outcome variables at one time. Data collection involved online data using Laub's (1999) OLA. The OLA has been validated for measuring the dependent variables, perceptions of servant leadership, and job satisfaction. MANOVA was used to measure groups on several continuous variables; servant leadership perceptions and job satisfaction contained quantitative scales. The group differences design involved exploring the extent to which the outcome variables may be predicted by individual group status or organizational roles (Laub, 1999). The research was designed to include a web-based study with a sample of approximately 100 participants in one large nonprofit nationwide organization. The minimum sample size of 176 was calculated using Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, and Lang's (2009) G-power with a $p = .05$ probability of error and .95 power. Voluntary participants were drawn from approximately 60 employees and 2,045 volunteers within the National Capital Region of the EDRO. The design involved written permission to conduct the study and approved access to the organization's Volunteer Management Systems (VMS). The VMS was used to communicate electronically with the population; emails and consent documents were forwarded to prospective participants. The research involved using VMS to provide a link to the survey located on a third-party site. Participants were given a single access code and pin number to enter the tool. Interested participants provided consent to participate by clicking on the link at

the bottom of the consent form and were provided the researcher's contact information to allow for additional questions prior to participation. Those wanting to participate and give informed consent were instructed to click the survey link. Persons uninterested in participating were directed to exit from the screen.

Interested participants who accessed the OLA tool were directed to respond to the following customized, informed consent question: "I have read, and understand consent. I voluntarily agree to be in this study. I agree to allow use and sharing of my study-related records. I do not give up legal rights as a research participant." Upon answering "yes," individuals proceeded to complete the assessment via the OLA tool and internet link provided. Data collected were used if individuals answered "yes" to the informed consent question. The process included automatic collection and storage of participant responses on Laub's OLA group third-party website and secure server. Upon achieving a sufficient sample and necessary participants, the researcher requested for the OLA tool to be deactivated upon closeout of the data collection period (approximately 20 weekdays). The third-party OLA group de-identified the organization by deleting the organization's name. Three days following closeout, the raw survey data and cleaned file were electronically forwarded to the researcher for analysis. IBM Software Program for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for analysis (Kirkpatrick & Feeney, 2012).

Target Population and Participant Selection

The research population included employees and volunteers of a nonprofit organization, and the investigative process involved generalizing results to a larger population and other nonprofit organizations primarily consisting of volunteers. The selected large nonprofit organization contains more than 16 times the number volunteers

as employees located within 62 regions nationwide (as indicated in the organization's online profile; Kirkham, 2010). The sample was drawn from the target population that comprised one region spanning two Mid-Atlantic States and the District of Columbia. Participants were taken from a larger population of approximately 2,100, including employees and volunteers. The sample size was chosen with consideration to the time and resources available in order to determine externally and internally valid results (Patton, 2002). This researcher employed a multivariate analysis on the predictor variables using the participants who met pre-established inclusion criteria; the adults were at least 18 years of age. Individuals were required to meet criteria including VMS internet access, full-time or part-time employees, and volunteers within the same nonprofit organization and National Capital Region. The sample excluded inactive volunteers and former employees (Goodwin, 2011).

Procedures

This researcher employed a convenience sample to select participants from employees and volunteers in one organization; the large nonprofit agency chosen consisted primarily of volunteers who resided within the United States. Warner (2013) suggested convenience sampling characterized by nonrandom selection in order to use readily available participants; thus, the researcher could make inferences to hypothetical populations with characteristics similar to the sample. Based on the organization's nationwide make-up of multilevel employees and volunteers, convenience sampling supported the design. The sample was representative of the general population in the chosen organization which was comprising of different roles, and mainly consisted of volunteers. Participants came from a group of approximately 60 employees and 2,045

volunteers from one sizeable region and unit within a mid-Atlantic area of the EDRO. The research was designed to assess perception of servant leadership and job satisfaction from a single organization and leadership. Participation of individuals from more than one region in attempt to obtain more employees and balance the groups would have required soliciting approval and authority from two different organizations instead of one organization and chain of command. This was beyond the scope of this study. Numerous authors have used convenience sampling in their research (Anderson, 2005, Chu, 2008; Drury, 2004, Hebert, 2003; Wilson, 2013), and this sampling strategy aided the research and support of the premise by addressing each research question aimed at either employees or volunteers within the organization.

The Regional Director of Volunteers provided the researcher with VMS access including a user ID and password for direct communication with the population. Following written permission and agreement from the organization to perform the study, an initial email notification was forwarded via VMS to the target population of individuals. The initial e-mail was used to inform about intent to perform the study and provide inclusion and exclusion criteria. The initial notice was followed by sending pre-approved informational emails for standardization and consistency in the recruitment process. Participants were then required to give informed consent prior to commencing the survey. The research was designed to include further recruitment of participants by sending an additional VMS email directly to the population of interest, if necessary. Survey access was limited to the convenience sample of participants online only through the invitation. Questions about the study were addressed via information provided in recruitment emails, and interested participants were provided the researcher's contact

information if there were concerns or questions. If the researcher was not available and missed phone calls, prospective participants were asked to leave a voicemail with questions. The researcher returned messages within 48 hours using a dedicated phone line which contained prerecorded information about the study. The researcher sent a notification email one day prior to close out of the study.

Instrument: Organizational Leadership Assessment

The research involved Laub's (1999) Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) to examine perceived servant-leadership characteristics and job satisfaction. Both variables generated interval data. Laub developed the OLA in order to answer the following three questions:

1. How is servant leadership defined?
2. What are the characteristics of servant leadership?
3. Can the presence of these characteristics within organization be assessed through a written instrument?

The Servant Leadership Behavior Survey and *servant leader* represent commonly used servant leadership measures, but not from the perspective of how volunteers view their leaders and organization (Girard, 2000; Jackson, 2010; Page & Wong, 2000; Sendjaya, Sarros, & Santora, 2008). Additionally, researchers have used the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale for measuring satisfaction, which also rarely includes the job satisfaction of volunteers (Cerit, 2009; Chu, 2008; Hebert, 2003). The OLA is frequently used with this topic and is well suited for the study because of the high reliability and validation of the instrument. Existing research with the OLA includes measuring perception of servant leadership at workforce, leadership, and organizational

levels with volunteer and employee samples. The OLA allows for the capability of measuring exactly what was intended by addressing both variables with one tool. Also, a researcher can use the OLA to consider participant time in the data collection process and study in order to measure two outcome variables.

With regard to tool validity, Laub (1999) field-tested the OLA by including 828 people from 41 organizations across the United States, and one organization within the Netherlands. Agency breakdowns of the norming population and test included religious nonprofit organizations, secular nonprofit organizations, for-profit organizations, and public agencies. Participants were drawn from six types of organizations including for-profit businesses, religious, government, community service, medical service provider, and education, with most ($n= 589$; 71%) drawn from for-profit businesses and religious organizations. Further breakdown of the norming sample included the following numbers and percentages: by group $n=406$; 51% male; and $n=385$; 49% female. Slightly more than half of the participants (55%) had either an undergraduate or graduate degree. Ages of participants were 20-60 and over, with the majority participants coming from the following age groups: 20-29, 30-39, and 40-49. These age groups represented 26%, 23%, and 25% of the sample, respectively. Laub's results found no significant difference among OLA scores by years worked in the organization. Ethnic origins included in the sample were of White, Black, Hispanic, and Asian or Pacific Islanders; the White population comprised 88% of the study representation.

Concerning the tool, the first 21 items on the OLA were used to measure servant leadership across the entire organization. Section 2 of the tool measured leadership, and section 3 consisted of 10 items on the participant's personal role including a six-item

scale measuring job satisfaction (Drury, 2004; Hebert, 2003). According to Laub, a validity coefficient on the 66-item assessment was .98 with reliability scores ranging from .90 to .93 on the servant leader subscales. Hebert (2003) reported servant leadership with a positive correlation score of .653 between the OLA perception of servant leadership and job satisfaction scores. Further, Hebert reported reliability alphas ranging from .86 to .93 with .86 on the OLA-Job satisfaction; .89 for provides leadership .90 for builds community; .90 for values people; .91 for develops people; and .92 in areas of shares leadership and intrinsic job satisfaction.

The total OLA scores were equivalent to means ranging from 60 to 300. Thus, the single OLA mean was obtained by dividing the mean score by the total number of scaled items included. According to Laub's Organizational Health Level Categories, converting the means included dividing the OLA scores by 60 total items and labeling the health levels from 1 to 6 consecutively. The six categories were described as 1.0 to 1.99 Autocratic (Toxic); 2.0 to 2.99 Autocratic (Poor); 3.0 to 3.49 Negative Paternalistic (Limited); 3.5 to 3.99 Positive Paternalistic (Moderate); 4.0 to 4.49 Servant (Excellent); and 4.5 to 5.00 Servant (Optimal). A copy of the instrument, including thorough description and sample reports, can be found on the OLA group website (OLA Group, 2016).

As documented by Salie (2008) and Goodwin (2011), the OLA was designed to include volunteers and unpaid members of an organization. Dr. Jim Laub granted permission to use the OLA for this research study on May 5, 2015.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions (RQ) and hypotheses— Null (H_0) and Alternate (H_A)— were considered to address the problem:

RQ1. Did statistically significant differences exist between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H_{10} : No statistically significant differences existed between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H_{1A} : Statistically significant differences existed between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

RQ2. Did statistically significant differences exist among the employee work role groups (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H_{20} : No statistically significant differences existed among the employee work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H_{2A} : Statistically significant differences existed among the employee work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

RQ3. Did statistically significant differences exist among the volunteer work role groups (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H_{30} No statistically significant differences existed among the volunteer work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H3_A: Statistically significant differences existed among the volunteer work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

Data Analysis

RQ1. Did statistically significant differences exist between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scales?

H1₀: No statistically significant differences existed between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H1_A: Statistically significant differences existed between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to review RQ1, since a MANOVA is suitable for comparing two or more group categories on two or more quantitative variables (Warner, 2013). Group (employee vs. volunteer) was the between-subjects, independent variable; OLA and job satisfaction were the dependent variables. The means and standard deviations of total OLA and job satisfaction by group were reviewed for differences. Box's test of equality of covariance was performed to test homoscedasticity and equality of covariance, and Wilk's Lambda was used to report the result of significant difference between employees and volunteers on the OLA scale. ANOVA was helpful in testing the strength of the OLA and job satisfaction independently. An adjusted Bonferroni-type alpha was beneficial to counteract an inflated error rate due to multiple ANOVAs; in this case, the adjusted Bonferroni-type alpha aided analysis by setting a stricter alpha level to test each outcome variable. The adjusted Bonferroni alpha of .025 was computed by dividing the usual .05 alpha level by the number of dependent variables

(Mertler & Vannatta, 2010). The test was for significance on the OLA with volunteers in comparison to employees. The Bonferroni alpha was used to determine if a significant difference existed between employee and volunteer groups on the OLA.

RQ2. Did statistically significant differences exist among the employee work role groups (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H2₀: No statistically significant differences existed among the employee work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H2_A: Statistically significant differences existed among the employee work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to review research RQ2, since a MANOVA is suitable for comparing three employee roles on the two outcome variables (Warner, 2013). Role (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) was the between-subjects, independent variable with OLA, and job satisfaction was the dependent variable. The means and standard deviations of total OLA and job satisfaction by role were reviewed to compare differences. Levene's test was used to check for homogeneity and to assure that the samples came from populations with equal variance. Levene's statistic was reviewed for significance that either of the dependent variables implied equality regarding the error variances among the groups. Box's *M* is useful in multivariate situations for assessing homoscedasticity regarding violation of assumptions but was not conducted because there were fewer than two nonsingular cell covariance matrices. Overall, the MANOVA was useful to determine if a statistically significant difference existed among employee roles on the OLA and job satisfaction.

RQ3. Did statistically significant differences exist among the volunteer work role groups (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H3₀ No statistically significant differences existed among the volunteer work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H3_A: Statistically significant differences existed among the volunteer work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to review RQ3, since a MANOVA is suitable for comparing the three category volunteer roles with two quantitative variables (Warner, 2013). Role (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) was the between-subjects, independent variable; perception of servant leadership total OLA and job satisfaction were the dependent variables. For the multivariate testing, Box's *M* was conducted to statistically assess homoscedasticity and to determine equivalent covariance of the matrices for the volunteers in the dependent variables and equal variance across roles (Mertler & Vannatta, 2010). The means and standard deviations of total OLA and job satisfaction by role were conducted to determine differences. The MANOVA was helpful in determining significant differences between volunteer roles, when considered jointly on the dependent variables. In the three role categories, ANOVA was useful for testing significance of group differences between two means on quantitative outcome variables. A separate ANOVA was conducted for each dependent variable at an alpha level of $p = .025$ to detect difference between volunteers' roles on the OLA. This test was helpful in order that results showed if a statistically significant difference existed among volunteer roles on job satisfaction.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical challenges for this researcher included gaining permission for participation based upon the subjects' concerns for privacy and safeguard of any personal information provided. The research design helped ensure privacy of responses, mitigate conflict of interest, and provide anonymity, and confidentiality. An additional challenge included obtaining information for the study while protecting participants from repercussions due to perceived negative responses on the survey. Requesting only participant level (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) and subgroup (paid or volunteer), aided with ethical challenges. Excluding requests for personal information and limiting needed information to that which was only necessary for the study helped mitigate anonymity and privacy concerns. Additional demographics such as gender, education level, age, and time with the organization were not requested. A single-user identification and password was provided for use by each participant taking the OLA tool; this helped safeguard participant confidentiality. Inclusion and exclusion criteria were contained within consent forms and reiterated in all emails for clarity of expectations regarding participation. Except for five volunteers not accessible through the VMS, all employees and volunteers were anticipated to be accessible through the VMS.

Expected Findings

The researcher attempted control for family-wise error and Type I error or the likelihood of rejecting the null hypothesis—when true for correlated predictor variables with satisfaction—by dividing the standard p-value by number of analyses. Expected findings included significance in all the three RQs and perception of servant leadership

with job satisfaction in a nonprofit organization. This researcher expected that there would be differences in perceived servant leadership scores among groups as related to job satisfaction and support for RQ1. Another expectation regarding RQ1 was that higher position would reveal higher perceptions of servant leadership and satisfaction. To this extent, expectation included that dependent variables would be significantly different for each group. Additionally, volunteers were anticipated to have lower levels of job satisfaction as measured by the job satisfaction scale within the OLA. Current researchers suggested that the perception of servant leadership correlates with work satisfaction (Amadeo, 2008; Chu, 2008, Drury, 2004; McKenzie, 2012; Van Tassell, 2006). Correlation among the dependent variables was expected for this study. Also, it was expected that the OLA would show reliable assessment of the volunteer population in one nonprofit organization (Goodwin, 2011; Laub, 1999).

For each research question and total servant leadership score, the expected outcome was either a positive or a negative relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. A positive strength would be that if employee or volunteer perceptions of servant leadership attributes increased, job satisfaction also increased (Goodwin, 2011; Laub, 1999). A negative relationship would be that as employee or volunteer perception of servant leadership attributes decreased, job satisfaction increased. A further expectation was that a positive relationship between servant leadership and satisfaction would be consistent with current servant leadership studies on the topic with other populations and settings.

Conclusion

MANOVA was used to determine differences in means among two groups in RQ1. The use of MANOVA assisted in determination of any support for the RQs' hypotheses based upon any significant difference in groups in OLA scores. The job satisfaction variable was also tested to detect any statistically significant difference, and a Pearson correlation was performed to determine the relationship between total OLA and job satisfaction scores. Based upon the expectation that higher perception of servant leadership would relate to higher job satisfaction, a one-tailed test was performed to determine if a statistically significant difference existed on the OLA. Results were expected to help illuminate the field on volunteers' and employees' differences in perceptions of servant leadership and effects upon satisfaction. The tests were expected to provide insight on the OLA and job satisfaction variables and determine the existence of a statistically significant relationship. Finally, the chosen measures helped further test the validity of the OLA in empirical measuring perceptions of servant leadership and satisfaction within volunteers.

CHAPTER 4. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to bridge a gap in empirical research on the presence of servant leadership in organizations, primarily as viewed by volunteers who serve in an organization. Consequently, this chapter addresses data collected to assess views within the volunteer population about perception of servant leadership. Individuals were asked to provide their opinions of servant leadership as they considered them to be practiced within their organization.

This investigation contributes to present literature on job satisfaction, the OLA assessment, and perception of servant leadership in modern nonprofit organizations. Chapter 4 is designed to present the data, describe the sample, and provide rationale used in chosen statistical analysis.

Description of the Sample

The population used for this research included employees and volunteers of a nonprofit organization; the researcher chose this population in order to generalize results to a larger population in similar nonprofit organizations consisting mainly of volunteers. The NPO used for this study was an Emergency Disaster Relief Organization (EDRO), which consists of over hundreds of chapters nationwide including Puerto Rico and US territories (Kirkham, 2010; as indicated in the organization's online profile). The sample taken from the target population was comprised of one region spanning two Mid-Atlantic States and the District of Columbia. Participants were from a larger population of

approximately 2,100 including employees and volunteers, and considerations were given to time and resources available to obtain valid results (Patton, 2002).

Participants included 139 volunteers and nine employees (Table 1). Individuals met pre-established inclusion criteria: they were at least age 18; within the same nonprofit organization in the National Capital Region; either full- or part-time employees or volunteers; could access the Volunteer Management System (VMS) and had internet access. Table 1 also includes the breakdown of work role within the organization. Note that some of the volunteers may have been former top leaders and managers at one time, and now served in similar capacity in their volunteer positions.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Participants' Demographics

Variable	<i>n</i>	%
Group		
Paid Employee	9	6.1
Volunteer	139	93.9
Work Role		
Top Leadership	6	4.1
Management	16	10.8
Workforce	126	85.1

Employees rated OLA on average at 3.17 ($SD = 0.791$); while volunteers rated OLA on average at 4.17 ($SD = 0.863$; Figure 1). To understand what these ratings mean to perceived presence of servant leadership within the organization, the average total OLA score (and SD) for each group was described by Laub's OLA organizational health category scale (see Table 2). Employees rated leadership within the "autocratic" to "paternalistic" categories and volunteers rated within the "servant leadership" categories.

Table 2. OLA Organization Health Level Scale and Ranges

Raw Score	Range	Servant Leadership Description	
1.0 to 1.99	60.0 to 119.4	Autocratic	Org 1 = (Toxic Health)
2.0 to 2.99	119.5 to 179.4	Autocratic	Org 2 = (Poor Health)
3.0 to 3.49	179.5 to 209.4	Negative Paternalistic	Org 3 = (Limited Health)
3.5 to 3.99	209.5 to 239.4	Positive Paternalistic	Org 4 = (Moderate Health)
4.0 to 4.49	239.4 to 269.4	Servant	Org 5 = (Excellent Health)
4.5 to 5.00	269.5 to 300.0	Servant	Org 6 = (Optimal Health)

In job satisfaction, employees rated it on average at 3.500 ($SD = .961$).

Volunteers rated job satisfaction on average at 4.115 ($SD = .871$, Figure 1).

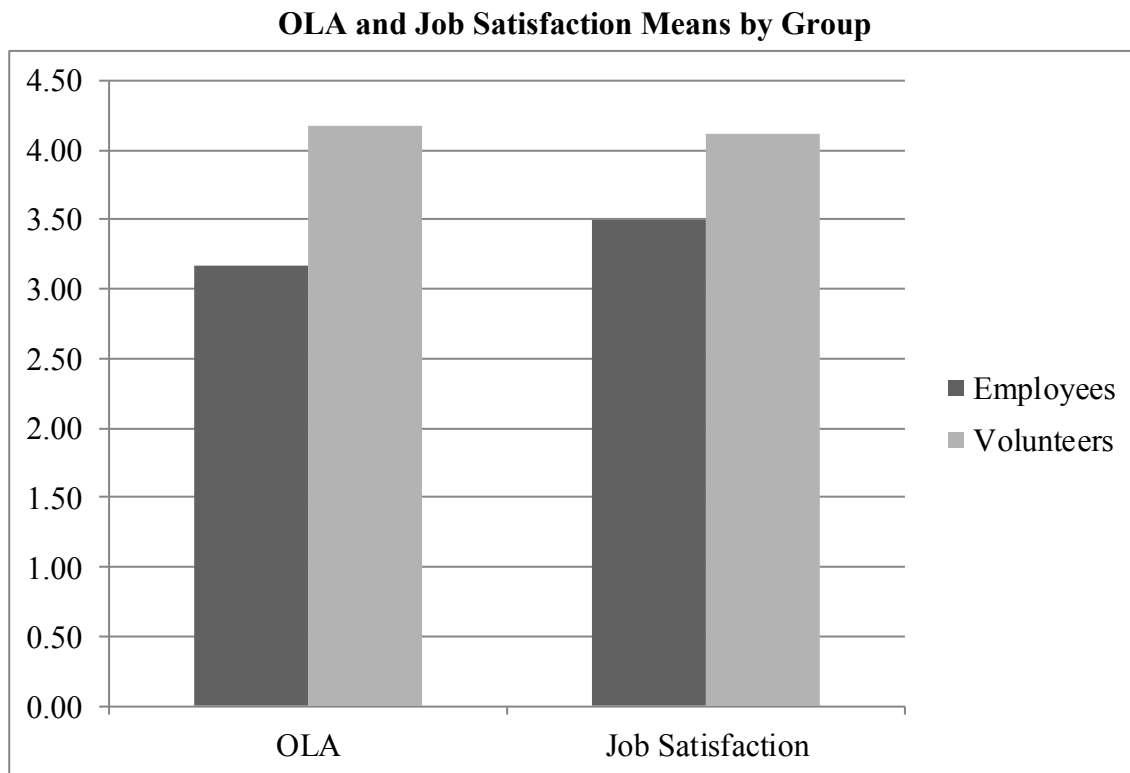


Figure 1. Descriptive statistics for OLA and job satisfaction means by group.

In organizational roles, top leadership rated OLA on average at 4.50 ($SD = .775$); management rated OLA on average at 4.16 ($SD = .790$); and the workforce rated OLA on

average at 4.09 ($SD = .908$). In job satisfaction, top leadership rated it on average at 4.50 ($SD = .907$); management rated job satisfaction on average at 4.16 ($SD = .724$); and the workforce rated it on average at 4.05 ($SD = .904$, Figure 2).

OLA and Job Satisfaction Means by Role

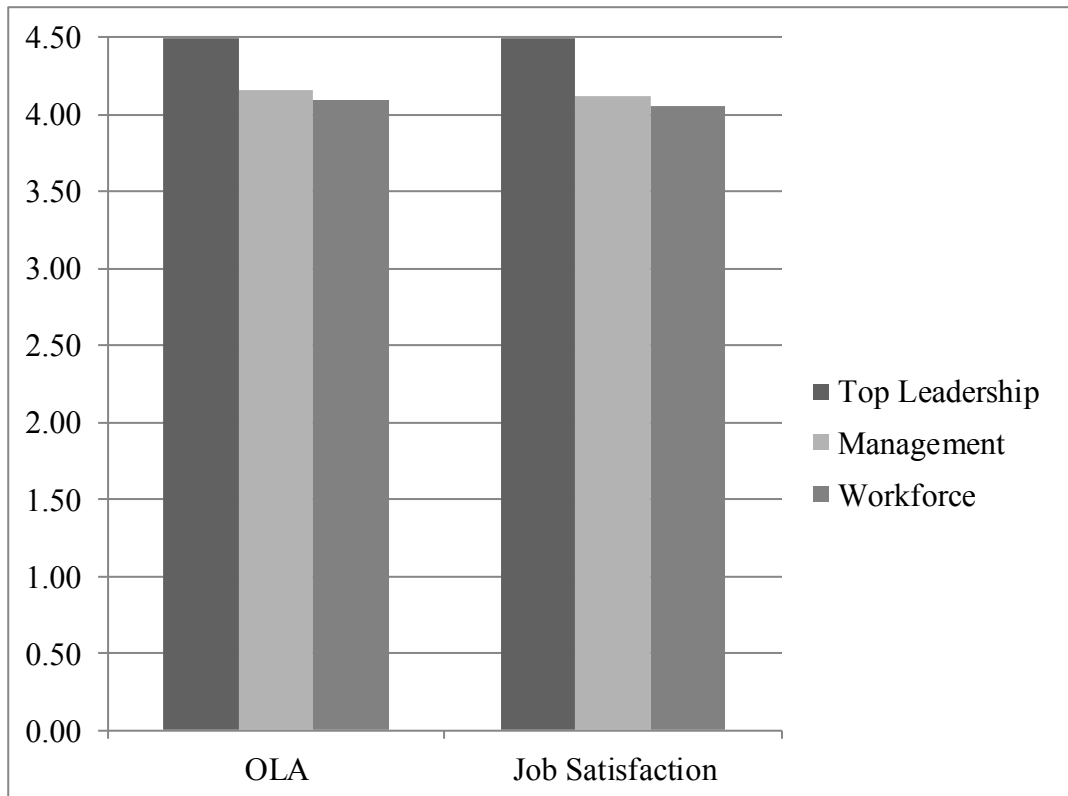


Figure 2. Descriptive statistics for OLA and job satisfaction means by role.

The statistical analysis included a series of MANOVAs on the predictor variables for each of the research questions. Because of the awareness of unequal sample sizes between employees and volunteers, a test for homogeneity of variance or covariance was conducted. Levene's test of variance was conducted when there were fewer than two nonsingular cell covariance matrices (as in research questions 1 and 2). If Levene's test demonstrated equal variance, then Wilk's Lambda (Λ) could then be used to report

significant MANOVA results. Box's test of equality of covariance was performed to test homoscedasticity and equality of covariance in research question 3. If Box's M was not significant then the test would represent equal variance assumed between the groups; and again, Wilk's Lambda (Λ) could be used to report significant MANOVA results. Separate analyses of variance (ANOVA) were then conducted to isolate and identify the significant MANOVA results in the dependent measures.

Summary of Results

A MANOVA was used to determine differences in means among two groups for RQ1. There was partial support for the RQ1 hypothesis based upon the significant difference in total OLA—the perception of servant leadership scores for the employee and volunteer groups. According to the findings, employees and volunteers differed on perceptions that servant leadership existed within the nonprofit organization. There were no statistically significant differences in job satisfaction ratings. With regard to RQ2, this researcher found non-significance among employee work roles which resulted in an inability to reject the null hypothesis. There was also no significance among volunteer work roles in RQ3; thus, the null hypothesis could not be rejected.

A Pearson correlation was performed to determine the relationship between total OLA perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction scores. Based upon the expectation there would be a higher perception of servant leadership related to higher job satisfaction, a one-tailed test was performed. The relationship was found to be statistically significant, $r(148) = .27, p < .001$. Both groups (i.e., volunteers and employees) showed a positive correlation in their rated perceptions of servant leadership

and job satisfaction. A visual representation of this relationship can be seen in the previously-mentioned figures (refer to Figures 1 & 2).

Details of Analysis and Results

RQ1. Did statistically significant differences exist between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and on the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H1₀: No statistically significant differences existed between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H1_A: Statistically significant differences existed between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and on the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

A one-way MANOVA that was suitable for comparing the two group categories on two quantitative variables was conducted to review RQ1 (Warner, 2013). Group (employee vs. volunteer) was the between-subjects independent variable with OLA and job satisfaction was the dependent variable. Levene's test was found to have a value greater than 0.10, indicating that the equal variance assumption had not been violated for either of the dependent variables; this implies that the error variances among the groups were equal. The MANOVA was statistically significant in group differences in one or both dependent measures, $F(2,145) = 5.872, p = .004$, Wilk's $\Lambda = .925$, partial $\eta^2 = .075$.

The ANOVA for OLA was significantly different between the two groups; volunteers ($M = 4.17, SD = 0.863$) scored higher than employees ($M = 3.17, SD = 0.791$), $F(1,146) = 11.580, p = .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .073$. However, the ANOVA for job satisfaction was not significant due to use of the adjusted Bonferroni alpha of .025, F

(1,146) = 4.165, $p = .043$, partial $\eta^2 = .028$. Therefore, there was partial support for the hypothesis in RQ1, $H1_A$ for OLA; $H1_0$ for Job Sat.

Despite Levene's test demonstrating equal variance for both groups, there was concern that the difference in OLA found between employee and volunteer groups (RQ1) was an artifact; and that the nine employees might not have been a representative sample. So, post-hoc testing was conducted. Since there were so few (9) employees willing to participate, this researcher decided to determine, as best as possible, if the participating employees were an acceptable representation of the employees working within the organization. The researcher conducted multiple (15) Hotelling T-square analyses, using a random selection of nine volunteers to the nine employees. A table of random numbers was used to select nine "volunteer" data sets at a time, never repeating an individual volunteer data set in any of the 15 analyses. At the significance of less than .05, 8 of the 15 (53%) Hotelling T-square tests were significantly different between employees and volunteers. Results from the Hotelling T-square tests suggested that despite the few employees in number, the nine participating employees were marginally representative of the differences in the original analysis, should more employees had decided to participate. This combined with the Levene's equal variance findings indicated the few employees represented the larger employee group.

RQ2. Did statistically significant differences exist among the employee work role groups (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) on Laub's job satisfaction scale and on the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

$H2_0$: No statistically significant differences existed among the employee work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H2_A: Statistically significant differences existed among the employee work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to test research RQ2. Role (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) was the between-subjects independent variable, and OLA and job satisfaction were the dependent variables. Levene's test was found to have a value greater than 0.10; therefore, the equal variance assumption had not been violated for either of the dependent variables. This implies that the error variances among the groups were equal. However, the MANOVA was not significant, $F(4, 10) = 2.051$, $p = .163$, Wilk's $\Lambda = .302$, partial $\eta^2 = .451$. Because there was no statistical difference among employee work roles on the OLA and job satisfaction, the null hypothesis for RQ2 was not rejected.

RQ3. Did statistically significant differences exist among the volunteer work role groups (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H3₀ No statistically significant differences existed among the volunteer work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H3_A: Statistically significant differences existed among the volunteer work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and on the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to test RQ3. Role (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) was the between-subjects independent variable, and perception of servant leadership total OLA and job satisfaction were the dependent variables. However, the MANOVA was not significant $F(4, 270) = .926$, $p = .449$, Wilk's $\Lambda = .973$, partial $\eta^2 = .014$. Because there was no statistical difference among

volunteer roles on the OLA and job satisfaction; the null hypothesis for RQ3 was not rejected.

Because this researcher was concerned there was a distribution difference in work roles for RQ2 and RQ3 related to the low number of employees who participated, it was decided to assess post hoc any distribution differences among the worker roles. In order to address this concern, the researcher looked at the raw distribution within employees and volunteers of top leadership, management, and workforce. The raw numbers for the employees were the following: 2 top leadership, 2 management, and 5 work force. The raw numbers for the distribution of the volunteers were the following: 4 top leadership, 14 management, and 121 work force. Then, these raw distributions were normalized for comparison purposes by using the percentage of each in these three work roles. For employees, the distribution was 22% top leadership (i.e., 2 of 9), 22% management (i.e., 2 of 9), and 56% workforce (i.e., 5 of 9). For volunteers, the distribution was 3% top leadership (i.e., 4 of 140), 10% management (i.e., 14 of 140), and 87% workforce (i.e., 121 of 140). These distribution percentages of employees and volunteers were then analyzed through three chi-square tests. There was no significant difference between the employees and volunteers in the distribution percentage of top leadership and management, $X^2 = 2.95, p = .086$. The significance in the distribution percentage appeared in the comparisons that included the volunteer workforce; there was a significantly greater percentage of workforce volunteers in these comparisons (e.g., management versus workforce, $X^2 = 9.27, p = .002$; top leadership versus workforce, $X^2 = 20.41, p = 0.000$). However, despite the distribution differences in volunteers versus employee workforce, the overall MANOVA results showed no difference on workforce

roles in perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction. Therefore, any distribution differences were negated by the failure to disprove the null hypotheses in RQ2 and RQ3.

Additionally, Pearson correlation found relationship between OLA perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction. A one-tailed test of the relationship was found to be statistically significant, $r(148) = .27, p < .001$. Both groups (i.e., volunteers and employees) showed a positive correlation in their rated perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Conclusion

Results from this research support significant differences in the OLA (i.e., perceived servant leadership) between the groups for RQ1; there was partial support for the RQ1 hypothesis based upon the significant differences in volunteers and employees on the OLA scores with volunteers scoring higher in rating servant leadership in their organization than employees. Although there was no significant difference in the job satisfaction between groups, volunteers were satisfied as well as the employees. In addition, there were no significant differences in organizational work roles for OLA (perceived servant leadership) or job satisfaction concerning RQ2 and RQ3; because there were no significant differences, the null hypotheses in both cases could not be rejected. Across the organization, and despite whether the participant was an employee or volunteer, perception of servant leadership (OLA) and job satisfaction were similar across work roles. Pearson's r determined volunteers and employees responded often in a similar direction in their perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction within the nonprofit organization showing a significant positive relationship between these perceptions.

Compared to employees, volunteers might have felt the organization considered

them and their presence to be important. To understand reasons for higher perceptions and satisfaction between volunteers and employees, further research is necessary into specific thoughts about the organization from different group perspectives. Considering possible rationale for views based on differing group ideas, the next chapter provides conclusions based on study results and gives suggestions for future research on the topic.

CHAPTER 5. RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion of the purpose of the study and its results. This researcher investigated the perception of servant leadership in two different groups (volunteer and employee) within a large nonprofit organization (NPO), among various work role positions (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce). The primary emphasis was on assessing the presence of servant leadership from the volunteer's point of view within an NPO to determine to what extent the perspective of this group was different from that of an employee. This chapter also addresses any differences in job satisfaction among these two groups and any differences in job satisfaction along the work role positions. The remainder of Chapter 5 is organized to present conclusions, limitations, and recommendations for future study.

Summary of the Results

Research Question (RQ1). Did statistically significant differences exist between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H1₀: No statistically significant differences existed between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H1_A: Statistically significant differences existed between the employees and volunteers on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

Results of RQ1 showed a statistically significant difference in OLA perception based on employment/volunteer status. This statistical difference was not an artifact of the unequal sample size of volunteers (139) versus employees (9), since a number of post hoc tests revealed the few employees who participated were marginally representative of the population of employees who did not participate in this study. However, there was not a statistically significant difference between the groups on job satisfaction. Thus, the groups had different perspectives about the existence of servant leadership within the NPO used in this study; but groups expressed similar attitudes concerning job satisfaction. Therefore, there was only partial support for RQ1.

Research Question (RQ2). Did statistically significant differences exist among the employee work role groups (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H2₀: No statistically significant differences existed among the employee work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

H2_A: Statistically significant differences existed among the employee work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

Results for RQ2 did not support a statistically significant difference in employee work roles impacting OLA perception or job satisfaction in the NPO. Again, because of the uneven number of volunteers versus employees who participated in this study which might have impacted addressing RQ2 and RQ3, post hoc tests showed no difference in the representation between the employed and volunteer groups at top leadership and management. However, there was a significant difference in the representation of workforce between volunteers and employed. But, despite this latter difference, work

roles did not impact the perception of servant leadership and job satisfaction for the employed. Since there was no statistical difference among employee work roles on the OLA and job satisfaction, the null hypothesis for RQ2 was not rejected.

Research Question (RQ3). Did statistically significant differences exist among the volunteer work role groups (top leadership vs. management vs. workforce) on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale?

H3₀ No statistically significant differences existed among the volunteer work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scales.

H3_A: Statistically significant differences existed among the volunteer work role groups on Laub's job satisfaction scale and the total OLA perception of servant leadership scale.

With regard to RQ3, results did not support a statistically significant difference in volunteer work roles in the NPO; despite even the difference in representation between the volunteers and the employed in the workforce as noted in the post hoc results. Thus, the null hypothesis for RQ3 was not rejected.

Although there were some rating differences between volunteers and employees in the perceived level of servant leadership in the NPO as indicated in the MANOVA, these ratings still strongly correlated in the same direction with perceived job satisfaction as noted in the Pearson *r* results. Thus, perceived leadership went hand-in-hand with perceived job satisfaction with both groups rating leadership and job satisfaction moderately high (i.e., above 3.0 on average for both ratings on a 5.0 scale).

The significance of this study is that the primary research questions' results supported existing literature (Drury, 2004, Horsman, 2001; McKenzie, 2012) on the topic although research found in the literature referred to other populations and organizations.

Outcomes were that although rarely empirically studied, perception of servant leadership can be empirically measured with volunteers, as with employees. This research provided evidence of servant leadership in the NPO and primarily volunteer population.

Discussion of the Results

This dissertation research provides new information on the perceptions of the volunteer population, for the participants differed in the ways they viewed servant leadership. The OLA was used to determine the participants' thoughts on servant leadership and the manner in which these perceptions existed within various organizational types. Studies have been performed with employees in various public and private sector organizations (Hebert, 2003; Shacklock, Brunetto, & Farr-Wharton, 2012), religious (Kong, 2007; Laub, 1999; Witter, 2007), church education (Anderson, 2005) and healthcare organizations (Amadeo, 2008). Results of the current research yield new insight into the topic of servant leadership and job satisfaction within a large organization and NPO, since few previous researchers (Laub, 1999; Parris & Peachey, 2012; Schneider & George, 2011; Spears, 2004) have considered investigations of volunteers and NPOs.

Findings from the empirical data were used to determine the impact that perceptions about leadership can have on individuals based on status or level within an NPO. As in this study, servant leadership research correlates servant leadership perception and job satisfaction (Anderson, 2005; Chu, 2008; Hebert, 2003; Thompson, 2002; Van Tassel, 2006). According to the data from this research, volunteers viewed leaders in the NPO as servant-led and were quite satisfied with their jobs as volunteers.

When examining top leadership/management role positions and comparing this information to top leadership/workforce role positions, Laub found a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction. Contrary to Laub's research, the results of this study showed no significant differences in servant leadership and job satisfaction when comparing the management and workforce roles. One explanation could be due to the disproportionate numbers within work role positions as the post hoc testing indicated. Although some researchers (Chu, 2008; Goodwin, 2011; Thompson, 2002) reported that employment role levels did not affect perception of servant leadership, others (Drury, 2004; Hebert, 2003; Herman, 2008; Laub, 1999) found that employment role did affect perceptions. This study could not clearly make a determination. Perhaps the number of participants was not sufficient to recognize differences across top leadership, management, and workforce positions regardless of the power analysis recommendations of sample size for this study. There were not enough participants at each of these work role positions to obtain even a statistical, "small-effect" rating difference between work roles in servant leadership or in job satisfaction.

Organizational leaders and helping professionals could potentially use the results from this study to understand groups' needs in new and innovative ways and to devise suitable strategies. The research may increase a leader's ability to tailor interventions by considering information on the volunteer population—they share perceptions about serving that are commonly found in service organizations, perceptions that are similar to employees. The study aids the field of leadership by focusing on how populations view leaders differently, and the effects that varied beliefs have on behavior. Leadership may

use information on understanding group differences in making decisions to address diverse attitudes, such as job satisfaction.

A limitation of the study was the varied participation among employee and volunteer groups. In addition, the research instrument's design and unequal group size and work levels could have impacted the results. Design of the study limited inferences about causation, and results should be interpreted with caution.

Comparison: Perceptions of Servant Leadership, Organization Types, and Health Levels

This study further supports research on perceptions of servant leadership in community service institutions, and the NPO used in the current study rated high compared to other organizations and types. Volunteers and employees differed on Laub's total OLA perception of servant leadership scales. Empirical testing and results from RQ1 and its hypothesis revealed differences in the groups within the NPO. Similar to the mission of service to others in this dissertation research, other researchers have conducted studies on the servant leadership with various organization types, including religious or church institutions, and religious (Kong, 2007; Witter, 2007) and community service (Laub, 1999) often produced results of high servant leadership perceptions.

Laub's instrument facilitated assessing the health of an organization and determining the extent of servant leadership practice by the organization and leadership. Thus, servant leadership application was compared from both volunteer and employee views, and organizational types considered. Compared to employees, volunteers ranked the health of the NPO used in this study, the EDRO, as excellent.

By creating the OLA, Laub's assessment tool facilitated a number of now-published manuscripts using the OLA across a variety of organizations. Laub's tool supported research at organizational levels and included testing with over 800 participants, including 326 from religious and 31 from community-service-type organizations. Laub's research included six organizational types and assessed organizational health as well.

The following studies used the OLA survey tool within different types of organizations: education/schools (Drury, 2004; Hebert, 2003), medical industry (Amadeo, 2008), customer service (Chu, 2008), and religious institutions (Anderson, 2005; Kong, 2007; Salie, 2008). Differences based on organizational type, status, and roles are important considerations of varying views and contribute to individual behaviors.

Kong (2007) took Laub's research and applied it to a church staff organization. He described the church's purpose as "it will seek to follow the Lord's example of service. It will be willing to go to the undesirables and helpless, those who cannot give anything in return to the church" (p. 26). Witter (2007) further described a church college organization's mission as "to teach, equip, and train leaders for service in their ministries and community (p. 4).

Anderson (2005) offered that an organization's purpose included providing a spiritual and social climate where students could be together and to prepare people for useful church service. According to Anderson, the objective and purpose of the Church Education System (CES) was to assist the individual, the family, and priesthood leaders in accomplishing the mission of the Church by teaching and preparing students for

service. CES utilized 3,253 full-time and part-time teachers and administrators and 38,470 volunteers to accomplish its objectives (Intellectual Reserve, Inc., 2004). In comparison, Anderson’s sample included only full-time employees because the researcher stated, “the nature of full-time employee duties differed significantly from the duties of part-time employees or volunteers within the organization” (p. 67).

Results from Laub’s research validated the use of the OLA as a reliable tool. (Table 3).

Table 3. Comparison of Mean and Organization Health Across Twelve Different Studies

Researcher	Organization Types	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Health Level Descriptions
Laub (1999)	business, government, religious, community service, medical service, education	828	223.79	41.08	Moderate - 4
Horsman (2001)	same types as Laub	540	214.74	48.57	Moderate - 4
Hebert (2003)	public and private sector	136	200.76	41.92	Limited - 3
Drury (2004)	nontraditional college	170	224.65	34.18	Moderate - 4
Anderson (2005)	church education	430	247.08	38.85	Excellent - 5
Kong (2007)	religious	145	4.24	0.46	Excellent - 5
Witter (2007)	religious	540	244.37	32.88	Excellent - 5
Chu (2008)	call center	98	206.13	45.24	Limited - 3
Amadeo (2008)	healthcare	313	210.73	37.76	Moderate - 4
McKenzie (2012)	public education	60	226.34	35.31	Moderate - 4
Wilson (2013)	hospitality	39	230.82	32.17	Moderate - 4
Hines (2017)	nonprofit community	Volunteers 139 Employees 9	4.17 3.17	0.86 0.79	Excellent - 5 Limited - 3

As researchers began to investigate servant leadership in other organizations, they found ways that their results echoed those of Laub. The resemblance of results to other studies contributed to the existing body of knowledge on the topic.

The data from this dissertation's research results showed that the volunteers gave the organization a statistical mean score of 4.17, and ranked the organization at Org 5 level of excellent health. Org 5 described worker experience in a (servant-oriented) organization exhibited by authentic nature; value and development of people; building community; and providing and sharing positive leadership. Characteristics were displayed through most of the organization and data that showed the participants in the study were being trusting and trustworthy. Individuals were motivated to learn and serve others before themselves. Leaders and workers saw each other as partners and worked together with a collaborative spirit.

On the other hand, as seen by employees, the statistical mean score of 3.17 ranked the organization at Org 3 level, which is limited health. Org 3 denoted the organization health—employees experienced the organization as negatively paternalistic (paternal-led) and characterized the organization with low levels of trust due to fear and uncertainty. Also in Org 3, workers felt the necessity to prove themselves, and their worth was based on their most recent performance report. In an organization of limited health, individuals felt listened to only when speaking in accordance with the leader's priorities and values. Individual expression was discouraged and conformity was expected. Workers carried the role of cautious child, while leaders assumed the role of critical parent (OLA Group, 2016).

RQ2 and its hypothesis pertained to differences in employee views and showed no statistically significant differences among employee work role groups. RQ3 and its hypothesis pertained to differences in volunteer views based on the role of the individual in the organization; no statistically significant differences were shown to exist among the volunteer work role groups. Results showed that group status, rather than roles, affect the OLA. Volunteer results supported existence of servant leadership; they scored servant leadership higher and statistically different from employees.

Comparison: Job Satisfaction

Cinar and Karcioğlu (2012) summarized job satisfaction as it related to effective responses about work itself, co-workers, promotion possibilities, supervisors, and pay. Thus, satisfaction on the job was an attitude based on fulfillment of value based needs. For all RQs, there was no statistically significant difference in job satisfaction, when employee and volunteer groups were compared. The results did not support the expectation that volunteers would have lower levels of job satisfaction than employees. Instead, volunteer job satisfaction was not significantly different from employees, and overall, job satisfaction was good. The type of organization may dictate the organization's mission or purpose. Important to comparing volunteers and employees was the consideration of how well the job met needs, based upon what the group valued. In this dissertation study, it appears that jobs the volunteers and employees held and the work they performed met their needs.

Another unexpected finding related to lack of support for Hypotheses 2 and 3, regarding difference among roles in either group. This researcher's expectation was there would be a significant difference in job satisfaction, when the position an individual held

in the organization was considered (Amadeo, 2008; Horsman, 2001; Laub, 1999; Salie, 2008). Some servant leadership literature was reviewed with and likewise with this study found fewer participants in some work role levels. Researchers (Drury, 2004; Hebert, 2003; Herman, 2008) found that employment role did affect leadership perceptions. Drury had .06% top leadership (i.e., 10 of 170), Hebert .11% top leadership (i.e., 15 of 136), Herman .09% top leadership (i.e., 40 of 440) and top leadership had fewer than the management and workforce positions. However, similar to other researchers (Anderson, 2005; Chu, 2008; Goodwin, 2011; Thompson, 2002), this dissertation's results contradicted findings of other researchers, for the work role did not appear to affect job satisfaction.

This research study contributes to existing literature with varying results regarding the effects of demographics on job satisfaction. Volunteers did not differ significantly from employees on job satisfaction as a group and regardless of the role held within the organization, attitudes do not differ. This study was distinct and showed applicability of the topic to nonprofit and community organizations (Goodwin, 2011; Schnieder & George, 2011) and is a basis for valuing volunteer group attitudes similarly. Pearson's r revealed a significant relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction. This study results showed a correlation between leadership and job satisfaction and suggested that higher perception of servant leadership related to higher job satisfaction. Individuals with high views of the leadership in this NPO typically had higher job satisfaction.

Discussion of the Conclusions

This dissertation study addresses the gap in empirical servant leadership research and the credibility of servant leadership theory within an NPO and the volunteer population. Volunteers value different aspects of the same leaders and the organization that are shared by employees. Consequently, results were consistent with the servant leadership study, suggesting that relationships between the outcomes vary depending on the organizational types and population. Results of RQ1 provide partial support regarding perceptions of servant leadership. Volunteers and employees differed significantly on perceptions of servant leadership, but not job satisfaction. Similar to some research (Chu, 2008; Goodwin, 2011; Thompson, 2002), but in contrast to others (Horsman, 2001; Laub, 1999), the current study revealed no significant difference based on position held in the organization and did not allow for rejection of null hypotheses in RQ2 and RQ3.

The current study on differences in perception of servant leadership considered the organization type and results suggest that community service and religious institutions are often servant-led, ranking higher compared to some other studies which used Laub's OLA health organization scale. Furthermore, as in several different studies on religious-type (Laub, 1999, Kong, 2007) organizations, volunteers perceived this NPO as excellent in the servant-led category (Table 3). Volunteers seek to serve others, an idea often shared by religious or community organizations (Anderson, 2005; Goodwin, 2011; Witter, 2007). However, it appears that volunteers may share values with an NPO about giving to societal well-being (Blustein, 2008; Fitzpatrick, Edgar, Remmer & Leimanis, 2013). Based on the type of organization, an employee or volunteer group

may become more or less motivated toward collective goals. Compared with the views of the employees, volunteers' views appeared to be congruent with the organization's principles of helping humankind. Shared principles may have strengthened the opinions held by volunteers despite their group status. Freedom to do what mattered most, and holding beliefs similar to those stated by the NPO may have contributed to a higher perception of servant leadership among volunteers. Anderson (2005) conducted research with an organization of mainly 90% volunteer members. The mission statement did not reference volunteers. Had the organization in Anderson's research contained a purpose statement centered around volunteer instead of employee efforts, and if the group's perceptions had been measured, volunteers in that study might have scored their perceptions of servant leadership in that organization differently from those of the sample of full-time employees, on the OLA. If measured in Anderson's study, volunteers might have ranked the religious organization higher on service than did the paid employees, based on greater shared views.

With regard to views of job characteristics in the current study, volunteers might have viewed their actions as *servicing*, while paid employees viewed actions in the same job as *working*. Unlike the employees, volunteers may have had a different attitude seeing a job in the organization as something they wanted to do instead of they needed to do for their family's livelihood. Furthermore, volunteers might have interpreted participation in a different way with regard to low participation among employees. Volunteers may have felt that partaking in the study was another form of giving; whereas, employees could have related involvement in the study as a requirement or another form of work.

Working for compensation is a motivation of the paid employees, whereas the volunteers were motivated by meeting less tangible collective goals of service. However, the work itself allowed both groups to achieve what they wanted and expected. And, in both groups, the job met needs for things valued. Volunteers and employees were both motivated and satisfied, despite status or levels held within the organization.

Social comparison theory suggests that satisfaction is based on characteristics of the job in terms of what individuals put in and get back. Awareness of how one person's job characteristics are related to those of other people may affect work or motivation to participate (Francis, 2011). Based on perceptions of what servant leadership means, volunteers and employees in the study, each may have viewed the NPO in relation to what they thought about themselves as a group compared to the other group. Servant leadership can be expressed by putting the desire to help others ahead of the needs of leadership or the organization. In areas such as choice of job tasks or hours for volunteers, the flexibility that volunteers had compared to employees may have affected feelings about the organization and leadership practices. Such flexibility of behavior might have been interpreted as more attention provided by leadership to volunteers needs than employees within the organization.

Despite lower perceptions of the organization by employees as compared to volunteers, employees might have been content because they received compensation for their efforts. Whereas, volunteers appeared content because they received less tangible, but very satisfying, compensation such as positive feelings gained from the experience of giving of their time and caring for others. Each group's feelings were influenced by the degree to which their anticipations of the job met with what they wanted and valued.

Theory Y, represented by creative freedom in tasks or contexts, is central to understanding what motivates individuals to work and what influences their attitudes. Although volunteers may have been motivated by their desire for a rewarding experience and employees for pay, employees may have also wanted more consideration or choice, such as job flexibility.

Volunteers and employees were fulfilled, based on the job itself giving both groups what was most desired. Need theory suggests that satisfaction comes at that nexus when what a person needs and what that person finds in a job, are close. The lack of significant differences between what volunteers and employee needed and received from the job yielded attitudes of satisfaction. Because both groups in the NPO studied had little discrepancy between what they needed and obtained from jobs, volunteers and employees felt gratification. The job itself gave both groups what they needed most. For employees, work itself may have contributed to their feelings of contentment. For volunteers, satisfaction may have been related to an experience of being part of something greater than oneself. Ultimately, employees and volunteers were motivated by different feelings of purpose and worth on the job (Cinar & Karcioglu, 2012; Herzberg, 2003; Liden et al., 2008).

In this dissertation study, volunteers considered the organization to be servant led, while employees did not. Compared to employees in other organizations and types, employees in this service organization saw leadership as limited. The EDRO purpose and mission center on service and the efforts of volunteers, not employees. The status of individuals in the study made an important difference in servant leadership perspectives. Organizations in past studies where leadership was seen as healthy were based on

perceptions of primarily employees; the organization's workforce were paid rather than being volunteers. Principles of this NPO and the organizational climate affected beliefs that leadership catered to the volunteer group, over employees. Goodwin (2011) and this researcher's results were similar in that both were based investigations were based on service organizations using group levels, and demographic subscales. Since the service organization investigated relied heavily upon volunteer support, this research assessed volunteers as a group. Assessment based on group status allowed examination to center on the influences of the service organization's stated mission which directly claimed that the organization needed and valued individuals because they helped to accomplish the organization's goals and fulfill its purpose.

Because of its principles, the EDRO expressed value for volunteers as a group and volunteers, in turn, expressed high views of the organization. The EDRO and its volunteers shared common principles and each valued support of the other. By considering employee and volunteer group status coupled with the organization type and purpose, this researcher could provide a clearer picture of the organizational dynamics and health level.

Results from this research help to close a gap in understanding leadership behavior by examining the volunteers' roles, perspectives, and the style of the organization. Motivation and satisfaction theory contributes to evidence that satisfaction exists among individuals with high perceptions of the organization and leadership (Chu, 2008; Laub, 1999; Yukl & Becker, 2006). Furthermore, satisfaction theory suggests that considering what is of value to the individual is important to the functioning of an organization (Cinar & Karcioğlu, 2012; Zappa & Zavarrone, 2010). Considering the

principles behind the organization assisted with describing how the different groups viewed and related to the organization as a unit. Additionally, interpreting the purpose of the organization may also provide insight into ways the employees and volunteers relate as groups to each other.

The field may use this study and results to compare outcomes and motivate volunteers to join or stay with modern-day NPOs, including those that are religion-, education-, and community-oriented. Practical implications of this study include greater insight into leader characteristics that influence work attitudes, motivation, and satisfaction on the job. Understanding factors contributing to similarities and differences among groups include giving credence to work context and organization function.

Despite the evidence of the positive role that servant leadership can play in an organization, some critics present contradictory results—that servant leadership theory does not work in every context (Stone, Russel, & Patterson, 2003; Washington et al., 2006). A greater understanding the individual's satisfaction with a job may benefit from examining an organization's purpose. Differences in status or position in relation to the organization's values often affect ways groups think about themselves and others. Feelings people have about leadership may influence satisfaction and contribute to choices they make to either stay with or leave an organization.

Limitations

A weakness of the group differences study was the lack of participation among the employee group. The study included a design flaw; there was inadequate attention to the employee population of 60 at the outset of the research, and as a result, the participant numbers decreased to 40 by data collection. The 33% decrease in the employee

population made data between employees and volunteers more difficult to compare. The design also depended upon participation by each work role level. Despite the fact that more individuals participated from the workforce than top leadership and management roles, the overall results showed no difference in perception of servant leadership and job satisfaction based on roles. Therefore, any distribution differences were negated by the failure to disprove the null hypotheses concerning differences due to roles held within the organization. Although participants in the groups (volunteer and employee) and roles (top leadership, management, workforce) were disproportionate in size and had ability to affect the results; statistical tests indicated that the equal variance assumption had not been violated for either of the dependent variables and implied that the error variances among the groups were equal. Therefore, the sample used was reflective of the population in this NPO and results of this study may be used to generalize to a similar population or other nonprofit organization that depended, to a great deal, on volunteers.

Recommendations for Future Research or Interventions

The current study opened a door for more servant leadership research that considers the workforce in an organization's type and their purpose. Further research is necessary to determine specific differences in volunteer and employee perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction. From the results of this study, it is recommended that there be further research conducted with different organizational types. Replicating this study in another geographic region or NPO that contained a large number of volunteers and a sufficient number of employees would further establish differences between employees' and volunteers' servant leadership and job satisfaction. It would also be advisable to include a research question that specifically addressed the

significance of relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction for this will increase the knowledge that is currently available.

Despite existing research, it remains unclear which leadership factors contribute to job satisfaction and servant leadership. For this reason, further research is suggested to compare volunteers and employees using Laub's six OLA subscales (display authenticity; value people; build community; provide leadership; share leadership; and develop people) to determine which of the six factors contribute most to the differences between the groups.

Conclusion

Despite existing research on the topic of servant leadership and job satisfaction, there is scant research that addresses the volunteer population. This study was conducted to bridge the gap in servant leadership and the effect of status on application of the theory. Goodwin (2011) suggested performing research that would include volunteer versus full time employee status. Results of this research concluded,

1. Volunteers perceived servant leadership existed within the NPO used in this study.
2. Volunteers can be empirically measured on perception of servant leadership and job satisfaction, using Laub's OLA servant leadership and job satisfaction scales.
3. Volunteer and employee groups differed significantly on perception of servant leadership in the NPO.
4. Among volunteers, positive relationship existed between perception of servant leadership and job satisfaction in the NPO.

Understanding how job satisfaction is related to the perceptions of servant-leadership practice will help leaders focus organizational decision-making so that worker attitude may be considered to a greater extent. The study further supports that considering the

status of individuals, as volunteers or employees, may aid leadership in their understanding of and responses to groups' opinions. An understanding of how the organization type and purpose may impact volunteers' and employees' views of leadership may help organizational leadership to seek help and work with I/O psychology consultants in developing useful interventions and training geared to individuals based on work status i.e. employees or volunteers and their attitudes (Herzberg, 2003; Ryan & Frederick, 1997).

The purpose of this quantitative study was to compare differences between volunteer and employee perception of servant leadership and job satisfaction. The research was conducted with a national nonprofit organization (NPO) located in the mid-Atlantic region and was designed to expand on servant leadership and job satisfaction theories. Volunteers and employees' views of servant leadership differed with regard to the purpose and goals of the organization toward service. Volunteers and employee rated the NPO and leadership by comparing what they wanted, observed, and received for themselves as groups in the organization, compared to that of the other, employed group.

Spears (1998) proposed practicing leadership that addresses group needs for growth. Behaviors may be considered in light of individual, organization, and other group desires and purposes. To investigate what makes individuals stay with an organization, leaders and researchers should look within the core of the organization and consider its purpose and how this shapes the work lives of their employees, either paid or volunteer. This knowledge may lend to a greater understanding of what makes for a healthy work place in a new era that takes into consideration the needs of groups of individuals in order to reach the full potential of the organization.

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APPENDIX A. STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL WORK

Academic Honesty Policy

Capella University's Academic Honesty Policy ([3.01.01](#)) holds learners accountable for the integrity of work they submit, which includes but is not limited to discussion postings, assignments, comprehensive exams, and the dissertation or capstone project.

Established in the Policy are the expectations for original work, rationale for the policy, definition of terms that pertain to academic honesty and original work, and disciplinary consequences of academic dishonesty. Also stated in the Policy is the expectation that learners will follow APA rules for citing another person's ideas or works.

The following standards for original work and definition of *plagiarism* are discussed in the Policy:

Learners are expected to be the sole authors of their work and to acknowledge the authorship of others' work through proper citation and reference. Use of another person's ideas, including another learner's, without proper reference or citation constitutes plagiarism and academic dishonesty and is prohibited conduct. (p. 1)

Plagiarism is one example of academic dishonesty. Plagiarism is presenting someone else's ideas or work as your own. Plagiarism also includes copying verbatim or rephrasing ideas without properly acknowledging the source by author, date, and publication medium. (p. 2)

Capella University's Research Misconduct Policy ([3.03.06](#)) holds learners accountable for research integrity. What constitutes research misconduct is discussed in the Policy:

Research misconduct includes but is not limited to falsification, fabrication, plagiarism, misappropriation, or other practices that seriously deviate from those that are commonly accepted within the academic community for proposing, conducting, or reviewing research, or in reporting research results. (p. 1)

Learners failing to abide by these policies are subject to consequences, including but not limited to dismissal or revocation of the degree.

Statement of Original Work and Signature

I have read, understood, and abided by Capella University's Academic Honesty Policy ([3.01.01](#)) and Research Misconduct Policy ([3.03.06](#)), including Policy Statements, Rationale, and Definitions.

I attest that this dissertation or capstone project is my own work. Where I have used the ideas or words of others, I have paraphrased, summarized, or used direct quotes following the guidelines set forth in the *APA Publication Manual*.

Learner name and date	<u>Carmia A. Sykes Hines, Feb 23, 2017</u>
Mentor name and school	<u>Dr. Steven E. Linnville, Harold Abel School of Social and Behavioral Sciences</u>