

Employee Perception of Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction in a Call Center:

A Correlational Study

by

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EMPLOYEE PERCEPTION OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP AND JOB
SATISFACTION IN A CALL CENTER: A CORRELATIONAL STUDY

by

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ABSTRACT

Current servant leadership studies have supported positive influences of servant leadership on individuals' job satisfaction in a variety of organizations, but there is a lack of empirical research in call centers. The purpose of this quantitative correlational research study was to explore any relationship between employees' perception of servant leadership and job satisfaction at a call center. Results indicated that in the call center, servant leadership was positively correlated to individuals' job satisfaction. There were no significant statistical differences when controlling the factors of gender, seniority, and job position, but education level and licensure requirement did impact employees' perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation first to Christ Jesus, who guided this doctoral journey. I also dedicate this dissertation to my husband, Michael, my parents, Shuan-Hsing Chu and Shan-Ying Chai, and my sister, Hai-Pei Chu. I could not have completed this without their unconditional love, confidence, encouragement, and support in the past and present. Thank you for believing in me!

"Never doubt. Never tire. Never become discouraged!"

-- John Paul II

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Leadership is not a new concept, but it was not until the late 19th century that scholars began to study leadership intensely (Bass, 1990). The Hawthorne studies in the 1930s first drew scholars' attention to the possibility that employees' attitude and job satisfaction were linked to job performance (Rowden & Conine, 2005; Sarri & Judge, 2004; Wren, 1994). Subsequently, the topic of job satisfaction became prevalent in management theory and led to advances in the development of industrial psychology (e.g., social exchange theory, organizational citizenship behaviors) and theories of motivation (Katz, 2004).

Theorists have found that a relationship-oriented leadership style in which leaders showed a high level of consideration and supportive behaviors led to a high level of job satisfaction in subordinates (Chen & Silverthorne, 2005; de Vries, Roe, & Tailieu, 1998; Packard & Kauppi, 1999; Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993) and better performance (Masi & Cooke, 2000; Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993). A relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction has been identified in recent studies (Anderson, 2005; Drury, 2004; Hamilton, 2005; Hebert, 2003; Laub, 1999; Ledbetter, 2003; Miears, 2004; Thompson, 2002). Scholars (Anderson, 2005; Crist, 1999; Drury, 2004; Hamilton, 2005; Hebert, 2003; Laub, 1999; Ledbetter, 2003; Miears, 2004; Thompson, 2002) have recommended that more studies be conducted to provide empirical data on the effectiveness of servant leadership across traditional for-profit service organizations.

The current doctoral study provides a significant contribution to the body of knowledge of leadership theories and applications, particularly with regard to servant leadership. The study was an investigation of the relationship between employee satisfaction and servant leadership in a call center setting. This chapter presents the background of the

topic of interest, problem and purpose statements, the nature and significance of the study, the research questions and hypotheses, the theoretical framework, and the limitations of the study.

Background of the Problem

According to Sanders, Hopkins, and Geroy (2003), “These traditional levels of leadership accomplishment [i.e., transactional and transformational leadership] have neglected or only passively addressed the internal components of the leader” (p. 21). Covey (1992) suggested that individual leadership principles and organizational integrity were closely related. The focus of leadership studies in the 21st century appears to have shifted from the character of leaders to their effectiveness.

Scholars have described servant leadership as the most influential and innovative approach in studies on leader-subordinate dynamics (Maak & Pless, 2006; Spears, 2002). Greenleaf first conceptualized servant leadership in the 1970s (Coulter, 2003; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). The core principle of servant leadership is that servant leaders strive to serve others (Coulter, 2003; Greenleaf, 1998, 2002; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Spears, 2002).

Servant leaders believe in others and empower their subordinates to take responsibility for accomplishing tasks and meeting goals (Covey, 1992). Servant leaders (a) value people, (b) develop people, (c) build community, (d) display authenticity, (e) provide leadership, and (f) share leadership (Laub, 1999). These characteristics distinguish servant leadership from other mainstream leadership styles such as transformational, transactional, or situational.

Leadership plays a critical role in call center operations. Kantsperger and Kunz (2005) indicated that management styles determined the effectiveness and efficiency of call

centers. Call center managers are challenged to find a balance in their management style by choosing between control and employee empowerment and in monitoring the frontline employees' productivity defined by quantity rather than quality (Mahesh & Kasturi, 2006; Robinson & Morley, 2006). Klenke (2004) suggested that leaders in call centers needed to possess not only executive skills but also competencies that are specifically suited to the unique environment of call centers.

The first call center was established by the aviation industry in the late 1960s (Hillmer, Hillmer, & McRoberts, 2004), and AT&T first introduced the concept of call centers with toll-free service in 1967 (Klenke, 2004). A call center, also called service center, is an operation in which business interactions are handled with advanced communication technology (e.g., telephone, fax, Internet correspondence, and interactive on-line chatting) and distributed randomly through skill-based routing systems to anyone within a group (Batt, Doellgast, & Kwon, 2005; Klenke, 2004). According to Butler (2004), the United States was the largest market for call centers in the world in 2004 with between 90,000 and 140,000 call centers across the country, and the numbers continue to increase. Klenke suggested that call centers could be viewed as the front line of the company where the most critical interaction between company representatives and customers occurred.

Kantsperger and Kunz (2005) noted that the role of call centers had shifted from an operative tool to a strategic mechanism that targeted the management of the relationship between the company and its customers. Malhotra and Mukherjee's (2004) research indicated that the organizational commitment of call center employees and their job satisfaction influenced the quality of service significantly. With global competition and cost-cutting pressures, the quality of the services call centers provide has become a crucial factor

that differentiates one company from its competitors (Kantsperger & Kunz, 2005; de Ruyter, Wetzels, & Feinberg, 2001).

Deery and Kinnie (2002) proposed that call centers faced three types of major organizational challenges that were (a) managerial skills, (b) service quality assurance, and (c) service exchange unpredictability. To rise and conquer these challenges in the fast-paced and customer-oriented world of call center operations, it is critical that leaders address the level of job satisfaction of their employees. Butler (2004) recommended that leaders at call centers should be willing to “get their hands dirty” (p. 5) by taking some calls when peak call volume occurred instead of merely monitoring and managing employees with real-time software. Leaders who step in and directly facilitate the efficiency of the task demonstrate their willingness to serve and put others’ needs before their own. These behaviors coincide with the core beliefs of servant leadership (Laub, 1999) that focus on the importance of relationships positively impacting employee satisfaction, job performance, and ultimately customer satisfaction (Anderson, 2005).

Statement of the Problem

According to the U.S. Department of Labor (2005), customer service agents, including call center employees, accounted for approximately 2.1 million jobs in 2004. In 2005, 37% of the world's outsourced contact center agent positions were in the United States (Marketline, 2005a). Despite the trend of increased call center outsourcing (Marketline, 2005b), the employment rate of customer service agents is expected to increase from 18% to 26% from 2004 through 2014 (U.S. Department of Labor, 2005).

While the growth forecast of call centers is noteworthy, Bordoloi (2004) remarked that, in 2000, the call center segment of the customer service industry in the U.S. experienced

an approximate 50% turnover rate. According to an International Customer Management Institute survey (as cited in Cleveland, 2005), the turnover rate varied significantly at different call center operations. Some call centers had an annual turnover rate of less than 5% while other rates were over 50% (Cleveland, 2005).

High turnover rates create a constant and serious challenge in maintaining trained workforce (Batt et al., 2005; Tuten & Neidermeyer, 2002). The costs that high turnover creates for customer service organizations include increased tangible expenses (i.e., screening and recruiting, wages, training, technology) and intangible expenses (i.e., productivity, supervision, morale, employee satisfaction and loyalty) (Cleveland, 2005; Hillmer et al., 2004; Siong, Mellor, Moore, & Firth, 2006). Hillmer et al. estimated the cost of a vacant position to be nearly as high as a U.S. call center agent's annual salary.

In published reports, the reasons for high turnover rates in call centers included low salary (Bordoloi, 2004; Cleveland, 2005), the lack of career paths (Bordoloi, 2004; Cleveland, 2005; Hillmer et al., 2004), burnout from odd hours, repetitive work (Bordoloi, 2004), heavy workload (Dwyer & Fox, 2006), a sense of powerlessness to make a difference or deliver quality work (Cleveland, 2005; Holdsworth & Cartwright, 2003; Holman, 2002), lack of autonomy (Batt, 2002), inadequate training (Bordoloi, 2004; Cleveland, 2005), insufficient resources (Dwyer & Fox, 2006), managerial style (Hillmer et al., 2004), and stressful working environments (Cleveland, 2005; de Ruyter et al., 2001; Hillmer et al., 2004; Tuten & Neidermeyer, 2002). Chen and Silverthorne (2005) noted that job satisfaction and job performance levels could be used to predict employees' intention to leave the job. The implication in several studies is that job stress and job satisfaction were inversely related (de Ruyter et al., 2001; Holdsworth & Cartwright, 2003; Tuten & Neidermeyer, 2002; Whitt,

2006; Williams et al., 2001). Udechukwu (2007) found that, while the employees' satisfaction level with the nature of the job tasks (i.e. intrinsic job satisfaction) and the external aspects of job tasks (i.e. extrinsic job satisfactions) both influenced turnover intention, employees' intrinsic job satisfaction appeared to be more predictive of employees' turnover behaviors. This finding was consistent with the results of Randolph and Johnson's (2005) study.

The relationship between leadership style and subordinate job satisfaction has been studied extensively, and correlations between the influence of leadership style and job performance, satisfaction, stress, and turnover intention have been established (Chen & Silverthorne, 2005; Hillmer et al., 2004). Chen and Silverthorne indicated that, when the style of leadership best matched the subordinates' readiness, ability, and willingness, it often resulted in higher levels of subordinate satisfaction and job performance. Other various study findings suggested that a relationship-oriented leadership style, with which leaders showed a high level of consideration and supportive behaviors, led to a higher level of subordinate job satisfaction (Chen & Silverthorne, 2005; de Vries et al., 1998; Packard & Kauppi, 1999; Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993) and better performance (Masi & Cooke, 2000; Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993).

Servant leadership has been described as employee-centered (Coulter, 2003; Greenleaf, 1998, 2002; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Spears, 2002). Current servant leadership studies have provided evidence of a relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction in a variety of organizational settings and industries that included airlines, financial services, public schools, non-traditional colleges, religion-related organizations, government, technology industry, nursing, health care, and law enforcement fields

(Anderson, 2005; Crist, 1999; Drury, 2004; Hamilton, 2005; Hebert, 2003; Laub, 1999; Ledbetter, 2003; Miears, 2004; Thompson, 2002). A research study that examines whether there is a relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction levels in call center environments needed to be conducted.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of the correlational quantitative research was to examine potential relationships between employee perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction in a call center setting in Missouri. Random selection was the method originally planned to create a sample of 100 full-time employees, including 15 managers and 85 subordinates from a population of 216 managers and 1160 subordinates in a national call center in Saint Louis, Missouri. Ultimately, the entire employee population was approached for participation because of reorganization of the workforce. Employees' perceptions of servant leadership (i.e., values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership) was measured with Laub's Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) (1999). Job satisfaction was assessed with the Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS) (Mohrman, Cooke, Mohrman, Duncan, & Zaltman, 1977).

Significance of the Problem

The significance of the current study was threefold. First, the empirical data collected expanded the body of knowledge concerning the call center industry. Call centers usually represent for-profit service organizations. The data examined in the study provided valuable insight into the role employees' perception of leadership plays in their overall job satisfaction. The information obtained through the study can be used as a blueprint to

enhance organizational culture and effectiveness. The findings can have an impact on leadership training and executive coaching as well as on the overall organizational culture in the call center industry.

Second, the data gathered from the study contribute to theoretical discussions and practical applications of servant leadership. The study was designed to expand the research field into non-religious and for-profit organizations, allowing scholars to further examine the generalizability of servant leadership theory and the application of servant leadership in a variety of businesses and institutions. Lastly, the correlational analysis further validated the OLA instrument initially developed by Laub to explore people's perceptions both of their leaders and of being managed in a servant-led organization (Laub, 1999). The OLA instrument was used to examine how employees at a call center, a traditional for-profit organization, perceived their leaders and how the employees' perceptions related to their job satisfaction. The results contributed to establishing the reliability and validity of the OLA instrument.

Significance of the Study to Leadership

Bass highlighted that "leaders can make the difference in whether their organizations succeed or fail" (1990, p. 6). Chen and Bliese (2002) noted that leadership was more a predictor of group efficacy than of individual performance. The present study addressed the characteristics of leaders and explored leaders' role in employees' perceptions of job satisfaction. The findings can be used as guidelines for the future development of leadership training programs.

Since Greenleaf first conceptualized servant leadership in the 1970s, there has been growing awareness of and interest in this particular leadership style (Covey, 2002; Spears,

2002). Scholars (Anderson, 2005; Crist, 1999; Drury, 2004; Hamilton, 2005; Hebert, 2003; Laub, 1999; Ledbetter, 2003; Miears, 2004; Thompson, 2002) recommended that broader quantitative and qualitative studies be conducted to support the generalized application of servant leadership. The current study in the call center industry provided additional reliable evidence on the servant leadership style.

While the servant leadership concept has received much attention from leadership scholars and popular business consultants, discrepancies are evident between empirical (e.g., Covey) and non-empirical (e.g., Greenleaf) approaches. The current study was designed to examine the practical application of servant leadership theories in the business world and the call center industry in particular. The findings closed the gap between empirical and non-empirical studies and increase the validity of servant leadership theory.

Nature of the Study

The study was executed with a quantitative research approach to determine whether there is a correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction in a call center setting. The survey was administered to participants in call centers in the Saint Louis metropolitan and surrounding area. The criteria for selection included the following: (a) the call center must provide nation-wide knowledge-intensive services; (b) the toll-free numbers must be available 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, and 365 days a year; and (c) the call center must employ at least 100 service agents. The call center pool included, but was not limited to, call centers that provide specialized services in sales, medical insurance, behavioral health, marketing and customer services, technology support, and car rental services.

Employees' perceptions of servant leadership were obtained through the OLA instrument developed by Laub (1999). As an assessment tool to measure overall perception

of organizational health, OLA has been tested in 41 different organizations during the initial instrument developing process and in other ongoing research. The instrument's validity and reliability are believed to be trustworthy (Laub, 2004). OLA was designed not only to collect quantitative data but also identify the organizational culture and promote positive organizational changes. The data of employee job satisfaction were collected through the MCMJSS (Mohrman et al., 1977).

The participants in the study were randomly selected from all levels (i.e., frontline agents, senior agents, supervisors), and their participation was voluntary. Each potential participant received a written agreement (see Appendix A) that explained the purpose and procedure of the research, including the expected contribution from each participant and the duration of their participation. The potential participants had the opportunity to review the agreement, ask questions, and sign the consent form before they decided to participate. The participants were allowed to terminate their involvement at any time without further obligation or penalty.

Research Questions

Since 1970 when Greenleaf developed the concept of servant leadership, there has been ongoing and extensive research that examined the application of servant leadership in various fields. Besides the establishment of the theoretical framework of servant leadership and exploration of servant leader characteristics, a primary focus of the studies has been the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction (Anderson, 2005; Drury, 2004; Hamilton, 2005; Hebert, 2003; Ledbetter, 2003; Mears, 2004; Thompson, 2002). Research findings have shown a positive correlation between servant leadership and high employee job satisfaction.

The purpose of the current research was to expand on earlier studies and investigate servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a call center setting. The research outcomes answered the following two research questions:

1. How do perceptions of servant leadership relate to job satisfaction for employees in a call center setting, when controlling the factors of gender, seniority, degree of specialized service, education level, and job position?
2. What is the reliability of the Laub's OLA within a call center setting?

Hypotheses

For the study of employees in a call center setting, an unexplored population, a quantitative research design was used, and the following hypotheses were tested:

H1₀: In a call center setting, there is no correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of gender.

H1_A: In a call center setting, there is a correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of gender.

H2₀: In a call center setting, there is no correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of seniority.

H2_A: In a call center setting, there is a correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of seniority.

H3₀: In a call center setting, there is correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of the degree of specialized service provided.

H3_A: In a call center setting, there is a correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of the degree of specialized service provided.

H4₀: In a call center setting, there is no correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of education level.

H4_A: In a call center setting, there is a correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of education level.

H5₀: In a call center setting, there is no correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of position.

H5_A: In a call center setting, there is a correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of position.

H6₀: There is no statistically significant difference in reliability in Laub's OLA when applied to the call center industry as opposed to other settings.

H6_A: There is a statistically significant difference in reliability in Laub's OLA when applied to the call center industry as opposed to other settings.

Theoretical Framework

The foundational framework of the study incorporated the theories of servant leadership, call centers, and job satisfaction. The research was built upon past research on the correlation between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction (Anderson, 2005; Drury, 2004; Hamilton, 2005; Hebert, 2003; Miers, 2004; Thompson, 2002). The study expanded on previous studies through an examination of the workforce population in a call center setting.

When discussing the influence of employee satisfaction, Butler (2004) argued, “Employee satisfaction parallels that of customer satisfaction . . . therefore, it is in the manager’s best interest to keep the employee happy with their work environment” (p. 83). Butler further pointed out that there were two foundational elements in the job satisfaction of call center employees that were (a) employees come first and (b) leaders should develop the best environment and culture possible for their call centers (Butler, 2004). These two elements are closely linked to leadership.

According to Klenke (2004), call center leaders must possess special leadership skills, characteristics, and competencies specific to the unique call center environment. Scholars asserted the importance of managers and supervisors providing the necessary support to frontline employees in order to ensure job satisfaction and quality of service (Butler, 2004; Yoon, Seo, & Yoon, 2004). The current study examined the potential of servant leadership for its effectiveness in strengthening employee job satisfaction at call centers.

Servant Leadership

The globalization of business is becoming increasingly prevalent, and advanced technology in communication and transportation shortens geographical distances (Kotter, 1996). The biggest task for leaders is to maximize potential and effectiveness at the individual and corporate levels (Laub, 1999). With increasing competition across the globe, leadership challenges consist of how leaders mobilize others to get extraordinary things done in organizations, transform values into actions, visions into realities, obstacles into innovations, and create the climate in which people turn challenging opportunities into remarkable success (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Observing the changes in leadership studies, Spears (2002) suggested,

[I]n these early years of the twenty-first century, we are beginning to see that traditional, autocratic, and hierarchical modes of leadership are yielding to a newer model—one based on teamwork and community, one that seeks to involve others in decision making, one strongly based in ethical and caring behavior, and one that is attempting to enhance the personal growth of workers while improving the caring and quality of our many institutions. This emerging approach to leadership and service is called servant-leadership. (p. 2)

Servant leadership is not a new concept as its earliest written example can be traced to Jesus Christ. It was not until the 1970s that Greenleaf first conceptualized the servant leadership style (Coulter, 2003; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). According to Greenleaf (2002), servant leaders put other people's needs, aspirations, and interests above their own.

The servant leader's deliberate choice is to serve others and to serve rather than lead (Coulter, 2003; Greenleaf, 1998, 2002; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Spears, 2002). Servant

leaders seek to enable their followers to "grow healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, and more likely themselves to become servants" (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002, pp. 57-58). Spears suggested that the servant leader "seeks to involve others in decision making, [is] strongly based in ethical and caring behavior, and is attempting to enhance the personal growth of workers while improving the caring and quality of our many institutions" (p. 2).

Call Center

A call center is defined as "a physical or virtual operation within an organization in which a managed group of people spend most of their time doing business by telephone, usually working in a computer-automated environment" (Gilmore & Moreland, 2000, p. 3).

Traditionally, call centers relied on the telephone system, but as technology advanced, call centers have moved into a multimedia-based communication model that integrated

telephone, fax, and Internet use, including websites and e-mail and computerized data management (Gilmore & Moreland, 2000; Kantsperger & Kunz, 2005; Klenke, 2004).

Employees at call centers are required "to be skilled at interacting directly with customers while simultaneously working with sophisticated computer-based systems which dictate both the pace of their work and monitor its quality" (Deery & Kinnie, 2002, p. 3).

The call center model is a centralized and concentrated organizational design that has the characteristics of tightly prescribed and routine tasks as well as closely monitored service quality (Deery & Kinnie, 2002; Houlihan, 2001). As noted by the American Productivity and Quality Center (APQC), call centers measure their effectiveness through a set of criteria consisting of a balance of quality, productivity, and use of time (as cited in Klaus, 1998) as well as their achievement of cost-efficiency and customer-oriented operation (Korczynski, 2002, as cited in Deery & Kinnie, 2002).

Job Satisfaction

The theme of job satisfaction has been studied since the early 20th century and concerns the interdependent relationship between people and organizations, specifically how the work environment influences the individual, and how individuals influence the organization (Rowden & Conine, 2005). The Hawthorne's studies in the 1930s first drew scholars' attention to linking employee attitude and job satisfaction to job performance (Rowden & Conine, 2005; Sarri & Judge, 2004; Wren, 1994). Subsequently, the study of job satisfaction was integrated in management theory and led to further development in industrial psychology (e.g., social exchange theory, organizational citizenship behaviors) and theories of motivation such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation, McClelland's theory of needs, and Schein's career anchor model (Katz, 2004).

Job satisfaction is referred to "a pleasurable or positive affect of employees toward their jobs or job situations" (Locke, 1976, as cited in Rowden & Conine, 2005, p. 218). Hwang and Kau (2006) extended the description to include employees' expectations that their jobs provided certain preferential incentives such as pay and advancement potential. Locke, Cartledge, and Knerr (1970) noted that job satisfaction and performance were not only about perceptions but also about goal setting.

Definition of Terms

This section provides definitions of the terms used throughout the study to ensure a common understanding.

Agent. The term agent refers to all staff members who provide frontline customer services and interact with customers directly through the telephone, fax, Internet and e-mail.

Call center. The term call center is often used interchangeably with contact or service center (Klenke, 2004). A call center is “an operation where more than one person is responding to handle the contacts, and also where the interaction can be handled by anyone within a group” (Klenke, 2004, p. 1).

Employee perception. Employee perception indicates the paid staff’s mental image or awareness of a certain event.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction refers to employees’ perception of their level of fulfillment based on comparing their expectations of the job with the actual outcomes.

Knowledge-intensive operation. This term describes a call center operation that requires extensive knowledge of the field by each agent (Bordoloi, 2004).

Leadership. According to Bass (1990), leadership is defined as (a) the focus of group processes, (b) personality and its effects, (c) the art of inducing compliance, (d) the exercise of influence, (e) particular behaviors, (f) a form of persuasion, (g) a power relation, (h) an instrument of goal achievement, (i) an emerging effect of interactions, (j) a differentiated role, (k) the initiation of structure, and (l) as many combinations of the above elements.

Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS). The MCMJSS was developed by Mohrman et al. (1977) and used to measure employee job satisfaction through employee self-report in extrinsic, intrinsic, and overall job satisfaction (Harrell, 2006; Pritchett, 2006).

Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) instrument. Dr. James A. Laub developed the OLA in 1999. Dr. Laub developed the model through a Delphi Survey process utilizing a panel of 14 experts in the field of servant leadership (Laub, 2004). The instrument was designed to be administered to individuals from all levels within the same organization,

and the results would reflect different perceptions of organizational leadership, characters, and culture (Laub, 2004).

Paradigm. The term paradigm is used to describe the way one perceives, understands, and interprets the world (Covey, 1989).

Servant leadership. Greenleaf first conceptualized servant leadership in the 1970s. The theory focuses on leaders who put other people's needs, aspirations, and interests above their own, and their deliberate choice is to serve others rather than lead or control.

Assumptions

Covey (2002) maintained that, in the competitive global market, all companies endeavored to meet the goals of high quality, high productivity, and innovation at low costs. To ensure and to sustain such results, it is essential to empower employees, and “the only way you get empowerment is through high-trust cultures and an empowerment philosophy that turns bosses into servants and coaches, and structures and systems into nurturing institutionalized servant process” (p. 2). The foundation of the current study consisted of the following assumptions:

1. Call centers are profit-oriented businesses with an ultimate goal of achieving maximal productivity at the lowest cost.
2. Leaders and followers have the common goal of pursuing ethical behaviors.
3. Empowerment is the key to promoting a culture of ownership and innovation.
4. Servant leadership is not about converting people to Christianity but about promoting the concepts of leading by example and through service.
5. The Laub’s OLA instrument provides valid and reliable information when measuring leadership.

Scope and Limitations

The quantitative research was an examination of the relationship between employees' perception of servant leadership and job satisfaction in a call center setting. The research population included all levels of management and the full-time frontline employees who provide services to customers through inbound telephone and real-time Internet correspondence with a web-phone system at call centers located in Saint Louis, Missouri metropolitan and surrounding areas. Participation was voluntary and confidential.

As far as could be determined by a thorough search of previous literature, the present research was the first study that examined servant leadership in the call center setting, and some limitations are acknowledged. First, the type and the location of participating call centers might have limited the generalization of the research findings. For example, the results obtained in call centers that provide highly specialized and professional services such as behavioral health or medical consultation hotline might not be generalizable to call centers that provide general customer services or conduct sales and marketing business. The results found in call centers located in Saint Louis, Missouri, might not be generalizable to call centers that are outsourced to other states or offshored because of geographic and cultural differences.

Secondly, the willingness to participate might have been limited because of a reluctance to be away from the telephone to complete the questionnaire. Agents' work keeps them on the telephone continuously, and they are closely monitored by the computerized system that assesses their productivity. This obstacle applied to conducting meetings with prospective participants for the purpose of introducing the research study.

Thirdly, the OLA instrument is a traditional pencil-and-paper survey tool, which might have limited the willingness of the participants to complete it entirely. Call centers are highly computerized, and online surveys often encourage a higher response rate (Davison, Li, & Kam, 2006; Sexon, Garratt, Gilroy, & Cairns, 2003; Wharton, Hampl, Hall, & Winham, 2003). Dr. Laub granted permission to use the online version of the OLA. While significant differences in results when comparing paper-and-pencil and on-line versions have not been demonstrated, the online medium might have some unforeseeable problems such as limitations of the technology itself (Daley, McDermott, McCormack-Brown, & Kittleson, 2003; Mertler, 2001, as cited in Creswell, 2005), possibility for multiple entries by one participant (Birnbaum, 2004; Couper, Traugott, & Lamias, 2001; Davison et al., 2006; Neuman, 2003; Stanton & Rogelberg, 2001), and difficulties in providing effective online incentives (Davison et al., 2006). Finally, the reliability of the OLA might be limited by the number of participating call centers.

Delimitations

Delimitations define the limits and boundaries of a study. First, the call centers selected had to be the type that provide nation-wide knowledge-intensive services, must have employed at least 100 service agents at any given time, and the toll-free numbers had to be available 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, and 365 days a year. Second, the selection of participants was limited to frontline employees, both agents and their direct supervisors, who receive inbound calls and real-time web-phone paging.

The agents are assigned randomly to assist any caller. The employees in this category are often required to give immediate responses, which differentiate them from other office-bound, white-collar employees. While there are different departments in call centers (e.g.,

billing and claim, provider relationship, internal information technology, marketing and sales, research and development), limiting the participants to the frontline employees eliminated variables resulting from different job duties and requirements.

Summary

The current quantitative research study examined the correlation between employees' perception of servant leadership and job satisfaction at a call center. The OLA developed by Laub (1999) was used to measure servant leadership. Job satisfaction was assessed using a self-report employee survey, the MCMJSS (Mohrman et al., 1977). The data collected were used to investigate the effectiveness and application of servant leadership in a traditional for-profit service organization.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

“Companies in every industry are increasingly being challenged to build the capacity for change, not only in response to competitive and technological pressures but also in anticipation of those changes” (Kerber & Buono, 2005, p. 23). While the globalization of business is increasingly prevalent and advanced technology in communication and transportation shortens geographical distances (Kotter, 1996), the biggest task for all leaders is to maximize their potential and effectiveness at the individual and corporate levels (Laub, 1999). Douthitt (2001) pointed out that leaders’ behaviors, including monitoring, clarifying, recognizing, and empowering employees, influenced employees’ perceptions, performance, and turnover rate in the call center environment. Observing the evolution of leadership studies, Spears (2002) suggested that the model of servant leadership, based on teamwork and community, was replacing the traditional, autocratic, and hierarchical models of leadership.

The focus of the current study was on examining with a quantitative research design the relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a call center setting. This chapter presents a review of the existing scholarly literature relevant to the topics of servant leadership including critics of the theory, call centers, and job satisfaction. The chapter includes a brief discussion of the evolution of leadership theory and practice.

Documentation

Multiple sources were used to establish the data base of the literature review. Journal articles were retrieved from various online databases including ProQuest, EBSCOhost, SocIndex, and UMI ProQuest digital dissertation database. The periodical articles chosen were scholarly peer-reviewed articles and were relevant to the topics of this research. Books

published by scholars and known experts in the field of servant leadership and call centers were reviewed.

As the literature research results suggested, the information on job satisfaction was overwhelmingly abundant. The materials used in the study were narrowed to include only research on job satisfaction that related to leadership and call centers. In order to keep the information most relevant to the rapid change in the current business world, periodicals published in 2000 and later were selected.

Leadership

Chen and Bliese (2002) noted that leadership was more a predictor of group efficacy than individual performance. From historical research, it is evident that the development of leadership and management theories are closely connected to the technological revolution since the late 19th century (Wren, 1994). As technologies emerged, uncertainty arose. The managers' and leaders' comfort level and skills adapted and adjusted to change, based upon their past experiences. Technical innovation impacts organizational behaviors, intra-relationships, and interrelationships (Day & Schoemaker, 2000).

Brief Overview of Major Leadership Theories and Models

The term leadership was borrowed from the common language and integrated into a social study terminology without being precisely defined (Yukl, 2006). According to Wren (1994),

[p]eople have natural economic, social, and political needs that they seek to satisfy through organized efforts. Management arises as individuals seek to satisfy these needs through group action, and it facilitates the accomplishment of goals of the individual and the group. (p. 11)

Bass (1990) pointed out that research results showed a common phenomenon. With or without an institutionalized hierarchy, “there are always leaders who initiate action and play central roles in the group decision making” (p. 5). One might find that some theories and models of leadership and management overlap and share common aspects, but there are differences between leadership and management (Hebert, 2003).

Hunter (2004) defined leadership as “the skills of influencing people to enthusiastically work toward goals identified as being for the common good, with character that inspires confidence” (p. 32). Hunter further distinguished between management and leadership, stating, “Management is about the things we do: the planning, the budgeting, the organizing, the problem-solving, being in control, maintaining order, developing strategies, and a host of other things. Management is what we do. Leadership is who we are” (p. 32).

Bass (1990) maintained that leadership had been considered the focus of group processes, a matter of personality, a matter of inducing compliance, the exercise of influence, particular behaviors, a form of persuasion, a power relation, an instrument to achieve goals, an effect of interaction, a differentiated role, the initiation of structure, and combinations of all of these. The definitions not only delineate leadership and its relation to the group (i.e., organization) but also suggest the relevance of specifically identifying the nature of leadership as a set of behaviors, whether it concerns leaders, followers, or the goals of the organization. The evolution of leadership theories and research can be categorized into three major eras characterized by a focus on trait, behavioral, and contingency approaches respectively (Burmeister, 2003; Tirmizi, 2002).

The trait era: Late 1800s to 1940s. One of the earliest leadership theories was based on historical reviews and often referred to as the great-man theory (Bass, 1990; Burmeister,

2003; Tirmizi, 2002). The trait theory posited that history was shaped by the personal attributes of historical heroes therefore led to further studies of leaders' personal traits, physical characteristics, abilities (Bass, 1990; Burmeister, 2003), social standing, speech characteristics, and emotional stability (Hebert, 2003). According to the trait theory, leaders were assumed to have unique qualities that differentiated them from their followers (Bass, 1990; Tirmizi, 2002).

It is not possible, according to Herbert (2003), to form a conclusion regarding specific traits that applied to all leaders. Bird, Jenkins, Stogdill among others (as cited in Bass, 1990) concluded that there was little need for classifying certain traits of leaders because the traits demanded of a leader were differentiated by followers' perceptions, various tasks and situations, and the specific interactions that took place between leaders and their followers. Mello (2003) further argued that "a group of influential reviews published in the late 1940s . . . reported the lack of any consistent relationship between any kind of individual traits and leadership," (p. 346) which caused researchers to shift their focus to behavioral approaches.

The behavioral era: 1940s to 1970s. In this era, the focus of research shifted to specific acts or events of leadership and from what leaders were (i.e., traits) to what leaders did (i.e., behaviors). This approach emphasized how subordinates reacted to leaders' behaviors. The main goal was to try and prescribe how leaders should behave (Mello, 2003) and whether leaders should be trained or develop certain skills or behaviors in order to be successful (Hebert, 2003). The shift was a response to a philosophical debate about whether leaders were born or made.

Scholars attempted to determine the common behavioral elements of leadership effectiveness (Hebert, 2003). The noteworthy leadership study conducted at Ohio State University in the 1950s aimed to categorize leadership behaviors and developed questionnaires to measure these behaviors (Yukl, 2006). The findings suggested that it was possible to cluster hundreds of behaviors into the factors of consideration and initiation of structures.

The personal and situational variables were found closely related to outcomes (Bass, 1990). Another important leadership study was conducted at the University of Michigan (Yukl, 2006). In this study, the correlation between leader behaviors, group process, team effectiveness, and performance was explored and three leader behaviors that influenced team performance and were (a) task-oriented behavior, (b) relations-oriented behavior, and (c) participative leadership were identified (Yukl, 2006).

Mello (2003) argued that these studies “failed to show generalizable evidence of any relationship between leader behaviors and others” (p. 347). Bowers (as cited in Yukl, 2006) commented that “leadership behavior (by leaders and peers) was related to subordinate satisfaction and group processes, but the pattern of results varied, depending on the type of industry and the authority level of the manager” (p. 57). Bass (1990) further argued that, in order to understand leader behaviors further, a multifactor approach was more desirable than a two-factor solution. Mello concluded that the studies in this era indicated “leader behavior was a factor that explained leadership effectiveness within a given context or setting” (p. 347).

The contingency era: 1960s to present. Contingency theories of leadership were based on the assumption that situational factors altered the effectiveness of particular leader

behaviors and styles of leadership (Burmeister, 2003; Tirmizi, 2002). Because of the complexity of tasks and personal characteristics, it was concluded that a single comprehensive leadership model was impossible (Mello, 2003). The prominent examples of models in the contingency approach included Fiedler's contingency theory in 1967, House's path-goal theory in 1971, and Kerr and Jermier's leadership substitutes theory in 1978 (Bass, 1990; Mello, 2003; Tirmizi, 2002). Fiedler suggested that the effectiveness of leaders, whether task-oriented or relations-oriented, was contingent on the demands of specific situations (Bass, 1990). The path-goal theory posited that leaders clarified goals and showed followers the path toward rewards (Bass, 1990).

During the same period, other leadership scholars focused on the influence of leaders on structures, culture, and performance within entire organizations. Some examples include a series of studies in charismatic leadership theory, including Yukl's multiple-linkage model in 1971 (Bass, 1990), Zaleznik's study in 1974 (Bass, 1990), House's study in 1977, and Conger and Kanungo's study in 1987 (Tirmizi, 2002) as well as Bass' transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1990). When examining modern leadership development, Mello (2003) suggested, "Contemporary models of leadership address the need for leaders to articulate a strong vision, obtain commitment to that vision through employee empowerment and trust, and 'think outside of the box' as necessary to achieve results" (p. 349). Bennis, in a coauthored article, addressed the importance of cross-discipline leadership training, including the humanities and human development fields (Bennis et al., 2003). It is believed that, in the 21st century, the focus of leadership theories should not be limited to the technical level but should incorporate some element of humanity.

Major Schools of Leadership Theory

The scholarly research on the leadership phenomenon began in the early 20th century, and since the 1960s, there has been dramatic growth in the field. Despite the flourishing development in leadership studies, a unified or predominant leadership theory has not been developed (Bass, 1990; Thompson, 2002). Bass provided a summary of all major theories and models of leadership that demonstrated the core criteria for defining leadership (see Table 1). Bass categorized the theories into four major classes that included (a) personal and situational theories, (b) interaction and social learning theories, (c) theories and models of interactive processes, and (d) perceptual and cognitive theories (Bass, 1990).

Other scholars categorized leadership theories and models based on leaders' abilities to apply influence and power over others (Bass, 1990; Miears, 2004; Yukl, 2006). By definition, power was viewed as the production of intended effects (Russell, as cited in Bass, 1990), the ability to employ force (Bierstedt, as cited in Bass, 1990), the right to prescribe behavioral patterns for others (Janda, as cited in Bass, 1990), and the intended successful control of others (Wrong, as cited in Bass, 1990). Power was not considered synonymous with influence, but leadership and influence were a function of power (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2006). Miears suggested three categories in this school of study, including positional power, personal power, and blended power.

Leaders with positional power had authority given to them according to certain positions through rules, legislations, and administrative regulations (Miears, 2004). Leaders with positional power were often viewed as *dominators* (Miears, 2004). Positional power, according to Yukl (2006), carried potential influences resulting from legitimate authority, control over resources and rewards, punishments, information, and the physical work

environment. Weber's theory of bureaucracy (as cited in Wren, 1994), Burns' theory of transactional leadership (as cited in Bass, 1990), the social exchange theory by Thibaut and Kelley (as cited in Bass, 1990), and theory X by McGregor (as cited in Miers, 2004) are some well-known theories in the school of positional power.

Table 1

Summary of Bass' (1990) Introduction of Major Theories and Models of Leadership

Personal and Situational Theories	Interaction and Social Learning Theories	Theories and Models of Interactive Processes	Perceptual and Cognitive Theories
Great-man theories	Leader-role theory	Yukl's Multiple-	Attribution
Trait theories	Theories of the	Linkage Model	theories
Situational theories	attainment of the	Fiedler and Leister's	Information
Personal-situational	leadership role	Multiple-Screen Model	process
theories	Reinforced-change	(1977)	Open-system
Psychoanalytic	theories	Graen's Vertical-Dyad	analysis
theories	Path-Goal Theory	Linkage Model (1976)	Rational-deductive
Political theories of	Contingency Theory	Exchange theories	approach
leadership		Behavioral theories	
Humanistic theories		Communication	
		theories	

Leaders with personal power were usually recognized as *natural leaders* (Miers, 2004). In this category, leaders "grant affection, consideration, sympathy, recognition, and secure relationships and attachments to others" (Bass, 1990, p. 228). In this type of leadership, there is a focus on the interactive and mutual influences between leaders and

followers. Personal power, according to Yukl (2006), was acquired from task expertise and interpersonal relationships. Some theories representative of this school of thought included Weber's charismatic leadership (as cited in Bass, 1990), inspirational leadership (Downton, as cited in Bass, 1990), transformational leadership (Bass, as cited in Bass, 1990), theory Y by McGregor (as cited in Mears, 2004), and situational leadership by Hersey and Blanchard (as cited in Bass, 1990).

Mears (2004) first suggested the category of blended power that referred specifically to servant leaders. Mears argued that leaders' strong desire to serve (Greenleaf, 2002) distinguished them from all others (Mears, 2004). Mears asserted that servant leaders had positional power but would "lead more than dominate, motivate more than manipulate, direct more than dictate" (p. 20). Servant leaders stressed moral uplifting through leading by example and by putting others' needs before their own.

Instead of focusing solely on power as a source of leadership influence, some scholars expanded the scope of their enquiry and examined other behaviors used to exercise influence (Yukl, 2006). Yukl, Falbe, and Youth (as cited in Yukl, 2006) identified the following nine proactive influence tactics: (a) rational persuasion, (b) apprising, (c) inspirational appeals, (d) consultation, (e) collaboration, (f) ingratiation, (g) personal appeals, (h) exchange, (i) coalition tactics, (j) legitimating tactics, and (k) pressure. Yukl et al. (as cited in Yukl, 2006) noted that the leaders' most effective influence tactics were rational persuasion, inspirational appeals, consultation, and collaboration. Yukl concluded, "Effective leaders are likely to use power in a subtle, careful fashion that minimizes status differentials and avoids threats to the target person's self-esteem" (p. 178).

Servant Leadership

Servant leadership has been described as “a transformational approach to life and work” (Spears, 2002, p. 2). It is not only a new leadership theory but also a new paradigm. Greenleaf first conceptualized servant leadership (Coulter, 2003; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). According to Greenleaf (2002), servant leaders put other people's needs, aspirations, and interests above their own.

The servant leader's deliberate choice is to serve others; the servant leader's chief motive is to serve rather than lead (Coulter, 2003; Greenleaf, 1998, 2002; Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Spears, 2002). Servant leaders seek to enable their followers to "grow healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, and more likely themselves to become servants" (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002, pp. 57-58). Since the foundation of servant leadership is service-oriented rather than task-oriented, the servant leadership style gives leaders an enormous sense of humanity.

Servant leaders are not passive or blindly supportive; they are authentic and assertive (Hunter, 2004; Russell & Stone, 2002), they hold high moral and ethic standards, and they consider that leadership is based on trust (Hunter, 2004; Russell, 2001; Russell & Stone, 2002). Servant leaders possess adequate people skills and have a high standard of accountability (Hunter, 2004). Both characteristics are established based upon a clear understanding of self and responsibilities. When they work in teams, servant leaders must know how to set boundaries, including letting go of the weakest link in the group (Maxwell, 2001).

Establishing boundaries in a team can be as simple as standing firmly on one's ground or as complex as defining roles and duties in multitask collaboration. Servant leaders strive to serve others, but they are assertive and do not allow themselves to be taken

advantage of. Hunter (2004) stated that the most effective servant leaders had an “extraordinary ability to show unrelenting toughness and sincere affection for people” (p. 121). Servant leaders are not people pleasers, and they allow subordinates to be accountable for their own behaviors through boundary setting.

In companies led by servant leaders, such as Southwest Airlines, the leaders empower their employees by entrusting them with authority in the decision-making process as well as creating a sense of community that promotes partnership and autonomy (Bunz & Maez, 1998; Milliman & Ferguson, 1999). Ownership is at the root of the concept of empowerment. When encouraging followers to take ownership of a team or an organization, leaders empower followers to contribute and make the team or the organization a more effective working agent. While allowing subordinates to help and share responsibilities, servant leaders empower subordinates by treating them as agents in the process and not as means to an end. Servant leaders see themselves as facilitators and promote self-management and self-evaluation within the team.

Characteristics of Servant Leadership

Spears, the former chief executive officer of the Greenleaf Center for Servant-Leadership identified 10 characteristics of servant leadership that are (a) listening, (b) empathy, (c) healing, (d) awareness, (e) persuasion, (f) conceptualization, (g) foresight, (h) stewardship, (i) commitment to the growth of people, and (j) building community (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002; Spears, 1995a, 1995b, 2002).

Listening. Spears (1995a, 1995b, 2002) suggested that servant leaders made intentional choices to listen to verbal and nonverbal language among groups in order to

“identify and clarify the will of a group” (1995b, p. 4). This is a tool for servant leaders to reflect upon their self-awareness and refresh their commitment to others.

Empathy. According to Spears (1995a, 1995b, 2002), servant leaders “strive to understand and empathize with others” (1995b, p. 5). Interacting with empathy allows others to feel accepted and understood. This characteristic emphasized servant leaders’ core belief in people and humanity and their efforts in treating others as people, not tools.

Healing. As servant leaders respect individuals’ uniqueness, there is the potential for healing power through transformational and inspirational interactions. Spears (1995a, 1995b, 2002) suggested that “servant-leaders recognize that they have an opportunity to help make whole those with whom they come in contact” (1995b, p. 5).

Awareness. Servant leaders have a strong sense of self and of their strengths and weaknesses. This is closely related to self-awareness in terms of moral and ethical values and boundaries (Spears, 1995a, 1995b, 2002).

Persuasion. Servant leaders “seek to convince others, rather than coerce compliance” (Spears, 1995b, p. 5). Servant leaders choose not to utilize their positional authority; instead, they are skilled in building consensus within groups. Spears (1995a, 1995b, 2002) believed that this characteristic distinguished servant leadership the most from other mainstream leadership models.

Conceptualization. Spears (1995a, 1995b, 2002) noted that servant leaders possessed the ability to conceptualize challenges and expand them to the *macro* and visionary levels. This ability allows servant leaders to nurture a shared mission among members and makes focusing solely on day-to-day operations less stressful.

Foresight. Spears (1995b) elaborated that “foresight is a characteristic that enables servant leaders to understand the lessons from the past, the realities of the present, and the likely consequences of a decision for the future” (p. 6). Spears further noted that the ability of foresight required an intuitive mind that, unlike other characteristics, might be innate (Spears, 1995a, 1995b, 2002).

Stewardship. It is believed that the concept of stewardship in servant leadership is borrowed from the Bible. In biblical teachings on stewardship, God gives all possessions, and people are God’s stewards who manage those possessions in the earthly world. People are ultimately accountable to God. Spears quoted Block who defined stewardship as “holding something in trust for another” (2002, p. 7). Greenleaf viewed servant leaders as playing significant roles in holding their institutions in trust for the greater good of society; they put others’ needs first (Spears, 2002). From a collective viewpoint, it is necessary at times to sacrifice personal preferences for a greater good. The concept of stewardship teaches individuals to be humble and appreciative, so to become a servant leader, one must appreciate others (Russell & Stone, 2002).

Commitment to the growth of people. Servant leaders view individuals beyond their tangible contributions to the organization. Because of a core belief in overall humanity, servant leaders are deeply committed to individuals’ personal, professional, and spiritual growth, and they make efforts to foster an encouraging environment that takes care of everyone’s cognitive, emotional, and behavioral needs.

Building community. The ultimate goal of servant leadership is to build a community and cultivate organizational citizenship behaviors. Greenleaf desired to establish a sense of belonging within groups through servant leaders’ mindful efforts in demonstrating

community-oriented and relationship-based interactions (Spears, 1995a, 1995b, 2002).

Greenleaf did not use Jesus or Christianity as the blueprint to conceptualize the servant as leader. Nevertheless, Blanchard and Hodges noted, “Jesus is not only the spiritual model, but his leadership style is often regarded as one of the most influential and effective the world has ever known. . . . And central to Jesus’ philosophy was servant leadership” (2003, p. xi). From the literature review, servant leadership can best be distinguished from other mainstream leadership styles such as transactional or transformational by its (a) servanthood attitude, (b) model of humility, (c) assertive and effective communication, (d) conflict management, and (e) empowerment.

Servanthood attitudes. According to Greenleaf, the servant leader is a servant first. Greenleaf characterized servant leaders as consciously making decisions to serve and to ensure that other people’s highest priority needs are met (as cited in Spears, 2002).

Model of humility. Spears (2002) emphasized that servant leaders put their efforts in understanding and empathizing with others. Servant leaders accept individuals as unique and special spirits even while refusing to accept their behaviors or performance. Hunter (2004) further explained that humble leaders could be “as bold as a lion when it comes to their sense of values, morality and doing the right thing” (pp. 94-95). Servant leaders display willingness, even eagerness, to listen to the opinions of others and are open to contrary opinions. Servant leaders are authentic and know their limitations.

Assertive and effective communication style. Servant leaders are not only valued by their communication and decision-making skills but they also are committed to listening intently and making decisions within an organization by persuasion. Servant leaders do not

coerce others with their positional authority but strive to reach a consensus within the group and act as stewards for the group (Spears, 2002).

Conflict management. Servant leaders have a strong sense of self-awareness and maturity. When dealing with conflicts, they often try to understand other people's positions and identify the extent to which they can agree with that position. Afterwards, they try to express their own point of view (Greenleaf, 1998). Autry (2001) further explained that servant leaders did not leave conflicts unaddressed, and their goal was to have teamwork through differences while respecting one another as mutually interdependent entities.

Empowerment. While empowerment is a central element in excellent leadership, it is especially important in servant leadership (Russell, 2001). According to Coulter (2003), servant leadership "uses power to empower others" (p. 26). It also involves the process of entrusting others (Russell & Stone, 2002) and power distribution (Russell, 2001).

Critics of Servant Leadership

Like other leadership theories, the theory of servant leadership has been criticized. As a relatively new theoretical concept, one of the biggest concerns is servant leadership's lack of systematic academic research (Crippen, 2005; Eicher-Catt, 2005; Laub, 1999; Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2004). Tarr (1995) remarked there were three major challenges for servant leaders, including difficulty in being empathetic over an extended period because it was potentially draining, difficulty in risking being vulnerable through self-disclosure, and difficulty in the collaborative process. Some scholars maintained that the servant leadership theory was impractical, idealistic, overly moralistic, and obscure (Bridges, 1996; Brumback, 1999; Quay, 1997, as cited in Anderson, 2005).

The relationship between leaders and followers often influences individuals' perceptions and attitudes (Stringer, 2006). Research indicated that high-quality leader-member partnering relationships led to lower employee turnover, more positive performance evaluation, more frequent promotions, increased employee commitment, more positive job attitudes, more employee participation, more desirable work assignments, and the provision of more support and attention to followers (Stringer, 2006). As these outcomes reflect the leader's role in individuals' perception of job satisfaction, the next step is to explore the subject of job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction

Studies on job satisfaction began as early as the 1930s. In the past several decades, there has been rapid progress in the field (Locke, 1969). Employees' job satisfaction refers to individuals' paradigms or perceptions (Locke, 1976), attitudes (Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006), reaction (Cetin, 2006; Locke, 1969), and affective attachment (Yeh, 2007) when evaluating the level of fulfillment of their expectations from their job compared to the actual outcomes of their contributions. A paradigm is a thought framework that individuals apply when perceiving the world (Kuhn, 1996). Language plays a significant part in paradigms (Nagel, 1997; Sarup, 1993). Locke (1969) proposed to use perception in its broad sense and referred to "the awareness of existents" and "cognitive judgment" (p. 316). Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction as follows:

[T]he pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it as offering or entailing. (p. 316)

Locke et al. (1970) concurred with this definition, but added that job satisfaction and performance were not only about perception but also about goal setting. Locke (1970) claimed that setting goals played a key role in determining the directions of individuals' actions and energy disbursement.

Some scholars have viewed job satisfaction as a reflection of needs being met (Stagnitti, Schoo, Dunbar, & Reid, 2006). Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs has been applied in exploring employees' motivation to work and its relationship to job satisfaction. Maslow suggested a hierarchical list of needs, the foundation of which was physical needs, moving level by level toward the highest psychological needs.

The five levels of need are physical needs (i.e., food, water, sleep), safety needs (i.e., shelter, protection from danger), needs for belonging (i.e., love, acceptance, and being part of a group), needs for esteem (i.e., feeling good about oneself and confident in one's abilities), and needs for self-actualization (i.e., maximizing one's full potential) (Maslow, 1943, 1968; Rouse, 2004; Seath, 1993). According to Maslow's theory, the lower level of needs must be substantially met before higher needs emerge (Maslow, 1943, 1968; Rouse, 2004; Seath, 1993). When applying Maslow's theory to the workplace, leaders must be aware of the dynamics between the personal hierarchy of needs and employee job satisfaction. For example, before individuals are able to pursue higher achievement, they must meet their physical needs and feel physically able to execute new, more challenging tasks. People must feel safe and secure to be innovative (i.e., need for safety), have a sense of community (i.e., need for belonging), believe in self, own strengths and competencies (i.e., need for esteem), and exist with integrity and honor (i.e., need for self-actualization).

To further extend Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Herzberg (1968) proposed the motivation-hygiene theory. From his research, Herzberg noted that "the factors involved in producing job satisfaction (and motivation) are separate and distinct from the factors that lead to job dissatisfaction" (p. 56). Herzberg further explained that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction were not opposites. The opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction, but *no* job satisfaction and vice versa (Herzberg, 1968). The two reactions are based on whether an individual's physical needs like making money to buy food and afford housing and psychological needs like personal achievement or growth are met (Herzberg, 1968).

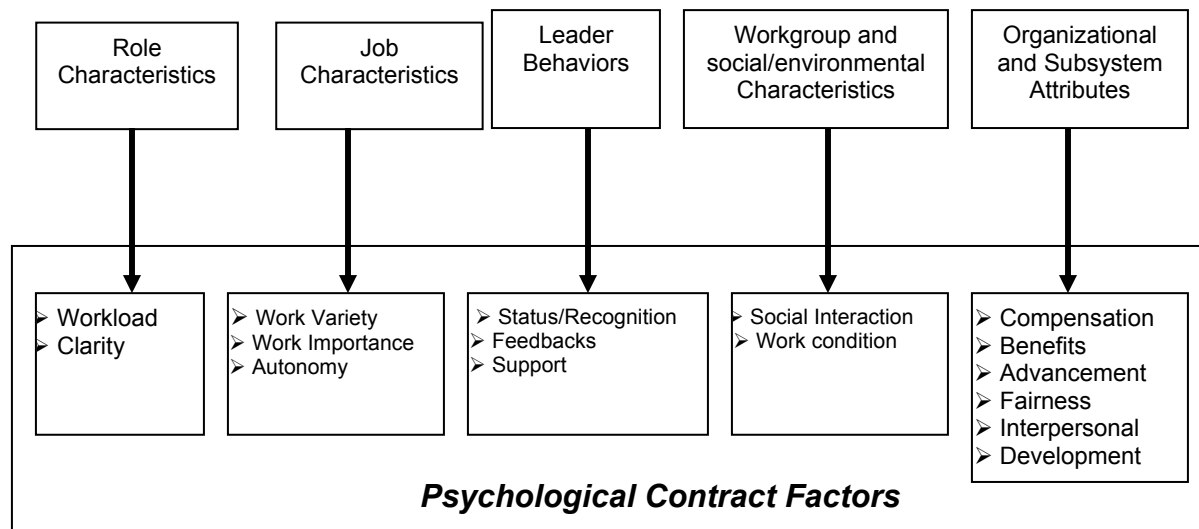
In Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory, motivators are related to one's intrinsic job satisfaction and primarily refer to job content, including the opportunities for professional growth and advancement, recognition, and the work itself (Herzberg, 1968; Hirschfeld, 2000; Seath, 1993). The dissatisfaction (i.e., hygiene) factors determine extrinsic job satisfaction that deals with the workplace environment such as company policies and administration, supervision, relationship with subordinates, peers, and supervisors, salary, benefits, work conditions (Herzberg, 1968; Seath, 1993). Herzberg (1968) suggested that knowing and understanding the satisfaction and dissatisfaction factors would allow leaders to implement steps to make jobs more meaningful for employees. This process is called *job enrichment* and includes eight elements that are (a) direct feedback, (b) client relationship, (c) new learning, (d) self-scheduling, (e) unique expertise, (f) control over resources, (g) direct communications authority, and (h) personal accountability (Herzberg, 1974, 1979).

"As an active participant and member of the organization, an employee often expects, seeks out, and creates a psychological contract as a means for understanding and representing the employment relationship with his or her employer" (Kickul & Liao-Troth, 2003, p. 23).

Employees' contributions to organizations are based on perceived promises such as fair and competitive wages, career opportunities, and professional supervision (Kickul & Liao-Troth, 2003; Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). Individual perceptions (i.e. psychological contract), while they might not reflect a mutual agreement between employer and employees, are defining factors in job satisfaction.

Building upon Barnard's equilibrium theory (as cited in Conway & Briner, 2005) and March and Simon's contribution-inducement model (as cited in Conway & Briner, 2005), Menninger (as cited in Conway & Briner, 2005) was the first to introduce the concept of psychological contract (Conway & Briner, 2005), and Argyris (as cited in Conway & Briner, 2005) was the first to apply the concept of psychological contract to the workplace.

Borrowing the operational definition from Rousseau (1989), the psychological contract referred to the individual's subjective understanding or reciprocal beliefs of an exchange agreement between individuals and their employers or organizations (Conway & Briner, 2005; Dabos & Rousseau, 2004; Ntalianis & Darr, 2005; Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Rousseau, 1989, 1990, 1995). Kickul and Liao-Troth (2003) noted that all forms of communication and personal interaction between employers and employees (i.e. psychological climate) contributed to individuals' perceptions of promises and obligations (i.e. psychological contract) (see Figure 1). Three types of psychological contract are (a) relational, (b) transactional, and (c) balanced (Rousseau, 2004). Rousseau included the six common features of (a) voluntary choice, (b) belief in mutual agreement, (c) incompleteness and evolution throughout the employment relationship, (d) multiple contract makers as employees shape their perception by many sources of information, and (e) managing losses when contracts or existing commitments are difficult to keep.



Note: Adapted from J. Kickul and M. A. Liao-Troth's (2003) "The meaning behind the message: Climate perceptions and the psychological contract"

Figure 1. Psychological climate and psychological contract.

As opposed to the implied contracts in which obligations became part of the social, legal, and cultural structure, psychological contracts focused on the perception held by individuals concerning a relationship (Rousseau, 1989). Robinson (1996) noted that the fulfillment of a psychological contract related to a substantial prediction of trust, commitment, and satisfaction (as cited in Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998). When the organization fails and violates the psychological contract, the relationship between employees and organizations is damaged, which often weakens the employees' commitment to the organization, their willingness to contribute, and their perception of job satisfaction (Ntalianis & Darr, 2005; Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Rousseau, 1989).

From a leadership perspective, it is important to know that early experiences with leaders have powerful effects and remain anchored in employees' perceptions of the employment relationship (Rousseau, 2004), career motivation, and intention to stay (Rousseau, 1990). Employees perceive quality of training and career development opportunities as leaders' efforts to fulfill their promises (Rousseau, 2004). Rousseau

suggested that employers should strive for consistent implementation, clear rules and expectations, and flexibility of psychological contracts.

Call Centers

Globally, call centers have grown at a rate of 40% per year (Lewig & Dollard, 2003), and by the year 1988, call centers were ranked as one of the most stressful professions in the United States (Varca, 2006). Despite the estimated 2% annual decrease of the largest call centers in North America between 2001 and 2007 (Marketline, 2003), there were approximately 2.9 million agents employed at 55,000 facilities working in this people-intensive operation (Mahesh & Kasturi, 2006). It had been predicted that, in 2007, there would be more industries seeking to adopt third-party customer care services as well as requesting call centers to move toward one-stop shops for multiple services (Marketline, 2007).

The biggest challenge for call centers is the management of frontline agents (Mahesh & Kasturi, 2006). Satisfied agents can contribute to customer satisfaction (Marketline, 2005a). The employee-employer relationship in this industry has become an important research focus.

A call center is defined as “a physical or virtual operation within an organization in which a managed group of people spend most of their time doing business by telephone, usually working in a computer-automated environment” (Gilmore & Moreland, 2000, p. 3). Call centers are designed to be the primary point of contact between the customers and organizations, and how the customers are treated in the service delivery process plays a key role in their perception of the organization (Hillmer et al., 2004; Ojha & Kasturi, 2005). Call centers require “their employees to be skilled at interacting directly with customers while

simultaneously working with sophisticated computer-based systems which dictate both the pace of their work and monitor its quality” (Deery & Kinnie, 2002, p. 3). Call centers are specialized, centralized, and concentrated organizational designs; the operational tasks are prescribed in detail and closely monitored (Deery & Kinnie, 2002; Grebner et al., 2003; Houlihan, 2001).

As noted by the APQC, “The most effective call centers will use a balance of quality, productivity, and time use to measure the effectiveness of call center representatives” (as cited in Klaus, 1998, p. 15). Korczynski (2002) noted that the design of call centers was based on two points of logic, “a need to be cost-efficient and a desire to be customer-orientated,” (as cited in Deery & Kinnie, 2002, p. 4) that constitute challenges for call centers. The key to the effectiveness of organizations lies with employees (Deery & Kinnie, 2002; Ojha & Kasturi, 2005).

Scholars have criticized call centers as more than a return to *Taylorism* (i.e., Frederick Taylor’s principles of scientific management) and *an assembly line in the head* (Dean, 2002, 2004; Deery & Kinnie, 2002; Grebner et al., 2003; Halliden & Monks, 2005; Mascia, Marx, & Arbix, 2000; Rose & Wright, 2005; Siong et al., 2006; Varca, 2006). Unlike traditional face-to-face customer service, call centers require that frontline agents engage in “routine, scripted interactions that continuously and automatically distributed to them by the technology upon which call centres are based” (Siong et al., 2006, p. 232). The frontline agents’ job is represented as often lacking interdependence and being monotonous (Ojha & Kasturi, 2005).

Frontline agents encounter stressors such as boundary-spanning positions, role ambiguity, demanding customers, and emotional exhaustion (Halliden & Monks, 2005;

Holman, 2002; Lewig & Dollard, 2003; Mahesh & Kasturi, 2006; Singh, 2000; Siong et al., 2006; Varca, 2006). Frontline agents are required not only to meet the productivity quota during the shift as assembly-line employees do but also to provide professional and individualized customer services to meet the industry standards (Mahesh & Kasturi, 2006). Research has shown that supervisory support and task control could help decrease the stress level among agents (Singh, 2000; Varca, 2006).

The rapidly changing and demanding environment and the high level of stress on the workroom floor contribute to high turnover rates that have become a significant threat to the effectiveness of call centers (Hillmer et al., 2004; Varca, 2006). When one employee resigns, there are increased tangible (i.e., wages, training, etc.) and intangible (i.e., productivity, supervision) costs (Hillmer et al., 2004; Siong et al., 2006). Deery and Kinnie (2002) proposed the following three major challenges for the effectiveness of call centers:

1. *Managerial skills*. Since customer services are provided over the telephone and require technology, employees must exercise subjective interpretation and professional judgment at the time services are rendered; this does not allow the traditional, instruction-oriented management styles to control the service-delivery process.
2. *Service quality monitoring*. Since the quality of customer service is based on how the service is delivered, the attitudes of employees become critical but difficult to quantify and measure.
3. *Unpredictability in service exchange*. Despite the desire for a standardized service procedure, the service-exchange process becomes more complex and unpredictable because of the involvement of customers.

Traditionally, the management strategies at call centers have revolved around three primary areas of (a) service strategies, (b) operational service-delivery system, and (c) customer-oriented model (Mahesh & Kasturi, 2006). Balancing the logic of efficiency and customer services becomes critical and often creates tension (Houlihan, 2002). Most call center operations require agents to answer the most calls possible with the minimal necessary staffing.

The goal of call centers' managers is to maximize the efficiency of the staff. Managers use computerized technology or surveillance to remotely measure and monitor service agents and their job performance (Deery & Kinnie, 2002; Varca, 2006). This creates conflicts when agents try to balance quality and quantity in their contacts with customers (Lewig & Dollard, 2003; Mahesh & Kasturi, 2006; Singh, 2000), and it sometimes causes agents to believe that they are losing personal control over their work (de Ruyter et al., 2001; Grebner et al., 2003; Varca, 2006). When agents feel they are losing control over their work, they often have lower job satisfaction and a higher anxiety level (Holman & Fernie, 2000; Rose & Wright, 2005).

Lawler's research (as cited in Halliden & Monks, 2005) showed that the "high involvement or employee-centered management model is based on the belief that employees can be trusted to make important decisions about the management of their work" (p. 372). One critical element that encouraged employee participation and high commitment was leadership. To achieve this aim, leaders at call centers must initiate structures for agents to follow when completing tasks; they also need to maintain a good relationship with agents (Halliden & Monks, 2005).

Summary

This chapter presented a brief overview of the evolution of leadership theories. The review of the existing scholarly literature relevant to the topic of servant leadership, call centers, and job satisfaction showed a lack of empirical research regarding servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a call center setting, providing justification for further research in the field. Chapter 3 presents a review of the research questions and hypotheses, population and sample, and methodology.

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

The results of the present doctoral dissertation study contributed to the body of knowledge of servant leadership theories and application, predominantly concerning the relationship between employees' perception of servant leadership and employees' level of job satisfaction. The purpose of the study was to investigate these two variables and extend previous studies to the call center setting. The focus of the correlational quantitative research was on examining the relationship between employee perceptions of principles of servant leadership and job satisfaction for employees in a call center setting in Missouri.

Employees' perceptions of servant leadership were categorized into six domains: (a) values people, (b) develops people, (c) builds community, (d) displays authenticity, (e) provides leadership, and (f) shares leadership. These domains were measured with the OLA (Laub, 1999) (see Appendix B). Job satisfaction was assessed using the MCMJSS (see Appendix C). The characters of leaders and leaders' role in employees' perceptions of job satisfaction were explored. The findings expand servant leadership theory and the validity of the OLA instrument (Laub, 1999). Chapter 3 presents the research methods, design appropriateness, population, sampling and data collection procedures, validity, and data analysis. Included is the rationale for the choice of methodology.

Research Design

The study was designed to utilize a quantitative research method with three primary areas of interest that were (a) the relationship between employees' perception of servant leadership, (b) the practical application of servant leadership theories in the call center industry, and (c) the validity of the OLA instrument (Laub, 1999). Figure 2 illustrates the research design.

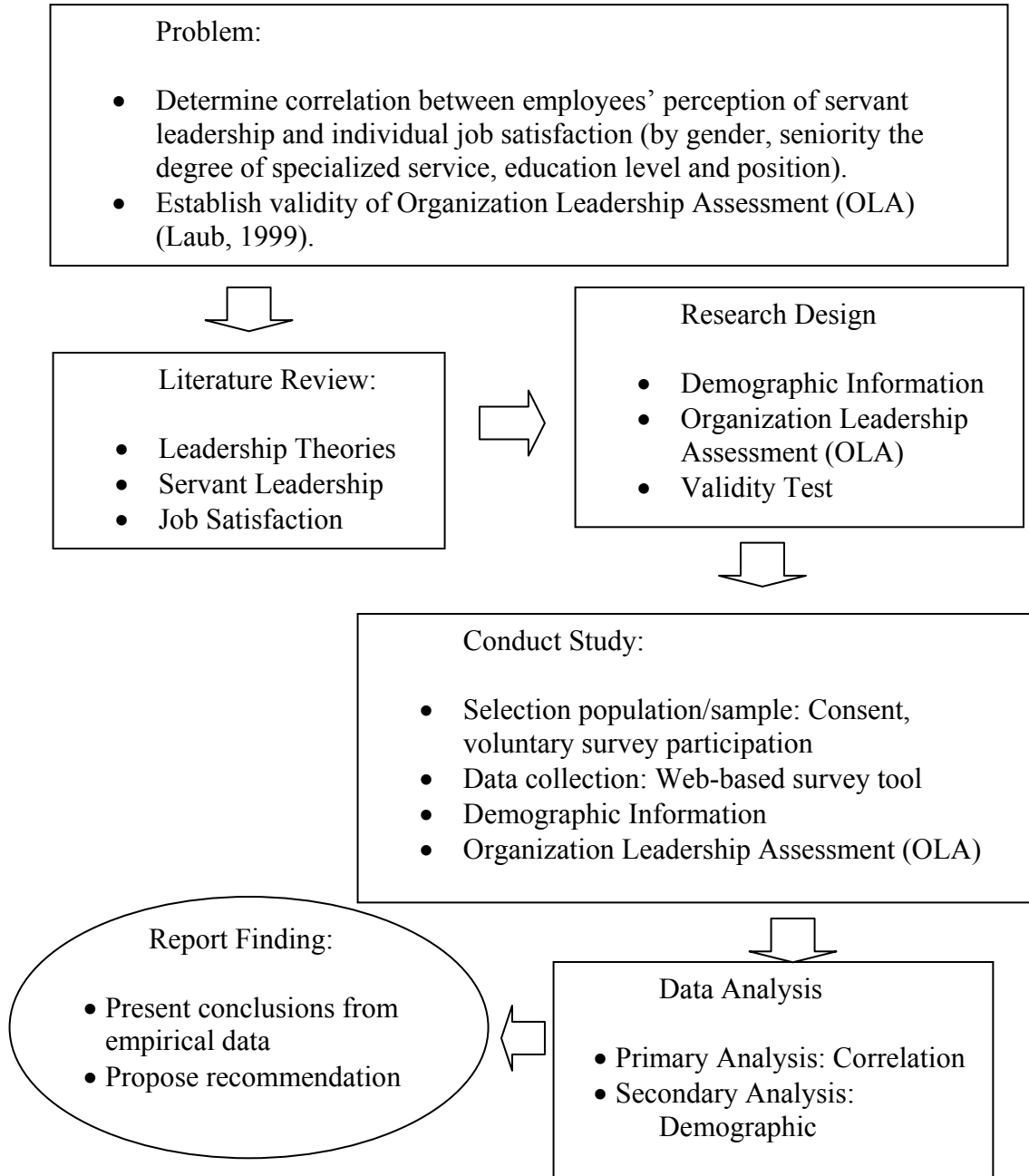


Figure 2. Research design.

Appropriateness of Design

Leadership has been studied extensively, and the phenomenon has been defined and interpreted in varied ways (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2006). Many scholars have attempted to investigate and define leadership from the aspects of traits, roles, behaviors, influence

process, interaction patterns, and job descriptions, but the results of research have varied and authors have rarely reached consistent conclusions. Some scholars have questioned whether leadership studies were useful in establishing a scientific understanding of the phenomenon, but most behavioral scientists and practitioners agreed that leadership played an important role in organizational effectiveness (Yukl, 2006).

To study and research leadership, scholars have argued over the advantages and disadvantages of qualitative and quantitative research designs. Some scholars who preferred qualitative measures argued that quantitative surveys could not identify the underlying aspects and relevant dimensions of a phenomenon (Kwan & Walker, 2004) and were inadequate to examine the participants' views (Creswell, 2005). Other scholars defended quantitative measures and maintained that the survey method provided accessibility to larger numbers of participants and usually focused on some relatively prominent components of the area of interest (Kwan & Walker, 2004). Neuman (2003) noted that qualitative and quantitative methods complemented each other and differed in significant ways (see Table 2).

Qualitative and quantitative methods present similar challenges. Kwan and Walker (2004) believed that quantitative research presented partial views of the topic and that qualitative data were interpreted through the investigator's subjective framework. Creswell (2005) suggested that scholars should match the research approach to the research problem, fit the research methods to the audience, and relate the approach to the researcher's experiences.

Table 2

Quantitative Style versus Qualitative Style

Quantitative style	Qualitative Style
Measure objective facts	Construct social reality, cultural meaning
Focus on variables	Focus on interactive processes, events
Reliability is key	Authenticity is key
Value free	Values are present and explicit
Independent of context	Situationally constrained
Many cases and many participants	Few cases and few participants
Statistical analysis	Thematic analysis
Researcher is detached	Research is involved

The purpose of the current research study was to explore the relationship between the two variables of employees' perception of servant leadership and individual job satisfaction in a sample of full-time staff at call centers. As quantitative research emphasizes comparing and contrasting groups or relating factors (Creswell, 2005), the study was designed to be executed through a quantitative correlational research approach. Creswell defined correlational designs as "procedures in quantitative research in which investigators measure the degree of association (or relationship) between two or more variables using the statistical procedure of correlational analysis" (p. 52). Leedy and Ormrod (as cited in Anderson, 2005) cautioned that, although correlation analysis can determine the direction and strength of the relationship between variables, "it did not necessarily indicate causation" (p. 272).

Research Questions

The present research expanded on prior studies and investigated servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in call centers. The research outcome answered the following two research questions:

1. How do perceptions of servant leadership relate to job satisfaction for employees in a call center setting, when controlling the factors of gender, seniority, degree of specialized service, education level, and job position?
2. What is the reliability of Laub's OLA in a call center setting?

Hypotheses

For the study of employees in a call center setting, an unexplored population, a quantitative research design was used, and the following hypotheses were tested:

H1₀: In a call center setting, there is no correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of gender.

H1_A: In a call center setting, there is a correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of gender.

H2₀: In a call center setting, there is no correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of seniority.

H2_A: In a call center setting, there is a correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of seniority.

H3₀: In a call center setting, there is correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of the degree of specialized service provided.

H3_A: In a call center setting, there is a correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of the degree of specialized service provided.

H4₀: In a call center setting, there is no correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of education level.

H4_A: In a call center setting, there is a correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of education level.

H5₀: In a call center setting, there is no correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of position.

H5_A: In a call center setting, there is a correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of position.

H6₀: There is no statistically significant difference in reliability in Laub's OLA when applied to the call center industry as opposed to other settings.

H6_A: There is a statistically significant difference in reliability in Laub's OLA when applied to the call center industry as opposed to other settings.

Population and Sampling

Population

The primary population under investigation was the call center agents and all levels of management at a call center located in Saint Louis, Missouri metropolitan and surrounding areas. The phrase *call center agents* used in the study refers to all full-time staff members who provide frontline customer services through inbound telephone and real-time Internet correspondence (i.e., those who interact with customers directly through the telephone, fax, Internet and e-mail). At the particular call center where the data were collected, the frontline call center agents were categorized into the following three primary categories: (a) general customer services, (b) knowledge-intensive operation (i.e., mental health professionals and information technology specialists), and (c) administrative service (i.e., claims, networks, provider relationships). The specialized service agents are often required to have a bachelor's or higher college degree and professional credentialing.

Units of Analysis

According to Creswell (2005), units of analysis refer to “at what level (e.g., individual, family, school, school district) the data needs to be gathered” (p. 145). Data collection took place with individuals who work at different levels in a call center. Demographic information such as gender, seniority, education level, job nature, and position, were collected.

Sample Criteria

The criteria of call center selection were (a) the call center must provide nation-wide knowledge-intensive services; (b) toll-free numbers must be available 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, and 365 days a year; and (c) the company must employ at least 100 service agents at

any given time. The call center pool included but was not limited to centers that provide specialized services in medical insurance, behavioral health, marketing and customer services, technology support, and car rental services. The research was originally designed to take the probability sampling approach, which had to be modified because of workforce reorganization at the call center (Creswell, 2005). The electronic format of OLA and the MCMJSS surveys was distributed to the entire employee population. Special attention was paid to ensuring that the individuals chosen in the sampling process were representative of the population.

Sampling

Neuman (2003) noted that the principle of the sample size is “the smaller the population, the bigger the sampling ratio has to be for an accurate sample” (p. 232). For small populations ($N < 1,000$), a 30% sampling ratio is recommended (Neuman, 2003). It is also recommended that a 10% sampling ratio be implemented for each subgroup (Neuman, 2003). In the current study, the three subgroups of general customer service, specialized service, and administrative service were analyzed. The targeted sample size was targeted to be 10% of the population in each subgroup.

Creswell (2005) suggested two formulae to determine the sample size, the sampling error formula and the power analysis formula. The sampling error formula refers to “a calculation for determining size of a sample based on the chance (or proportion) that the sample will be evenly divided on a question, sampling error and a confidence interval” (p. 582). The power analysis formula is defined as a tool that computes the “appropriate size for group comparison by taking into consideration the level of statistical significance, the amount of power desired in a study and the effect size” (p. 583). As is highlighted in the

definitions of both formulae, the sampling error formula is more appropriate for correlational studies.

According to the sampling error formula rule (Creswell, 2005) and Fowler's sample size table (as cited in Creswell, 2005), the percentage of the sample with the desired characteristics of the design is selected to be 50/50, to divide the sample maximally at the equally split chance. The confidence interval was set as 95%, which means that 95 out of 100 times, the sample mean falls within the range of the population mean. In order to control and minimize the error, which was the percentage of the time the sample mean would be different from the population mean, the error rate was set to be 10%, making the sample size $n = 100$. A sample of 100 would ensure that 95 out of 100 times (i.e., 95% confidence interval) the sample mean would have an equal chance (i.e., 50/50 split) of differentiating among the population 90% of the time, or an error rate of 10%. For the current study, a sample size of 100 full-time employees was randomly selected and included 15 managers and 85 subordinates out of 216 managers and 1160 subordinates in a national call center in Saint Louis, Missouri.

Informed Consent

As part of the ethical practice of the research process, all potential participants were informed that their participation was strictly voluntary and received a written agreement (see Appendix A) that explained the purpose and procedures of the research, including the expected contribution from the participants and the duration of their involvement. The potential participants were informed of their rights that included asking questions and obtaining the results of the study (Neuman, 2003). Each potential participant had the opportunity to review the agreement, ask questions, and sign the consent form before

deciding to participate. The participants were allowed to terminate participation at any time without further obligation or penalty.

Confidentiality

To encourage participation and honest responses, anonymity and confidentiality were strictly maintained. All potential participants received a written confidentiality agreement (see Appendix A) before their involvement in the study and had the opportunity to review the agreement, ask questions, and sign the agreement before data were collected. The data were collected through a secure password-protected website. The survey tools will be removed from the web host one week after the data analyst process is completed. All signed consent forms will be scanned into pdf files and stored electronically with password protection. The hard copies of the consent forms will be stored for three years and they will be shredded. The survey data will be stored electronically and information will be destroyed after three years from the dissertation completion date. All necessary steps were taken to ensure that no individual identity was revealed or recognized under any circumstance.

Data Collection Procedure and Rationale

Because of the nature of the call center setting, the frontline agents are equipped with computers and have access to the Internet. In order to collect data efficiently, the study was designed to conduct the survey electronically. All employees were given an equal opportunity to participate.

Web-Based Survey

Most small to medium companies and large corporations have moved from centralized computing facilities to networks of interconnected individual computers, changing the way in which organizational research is conducted (Stanton & Rogelberg,

2001; Wharton et al., 2003). Web-based surveys are becoming increasingly popular because of advances in computer technology, lower hardware prices (Neuman, 2003), the popularity and accessibility of the Internet (Couper, 2000), and improvement in user skills (Granello & Wheaton, 2004).

The benefits of web-based surveys include (a) greater speed in survey distribution and higher survey completion rate (Davison et al., 2006; Sexon et al., 2003; Wharton et al., 2003), (b) faster response rate and lower cost (Birnbaum, 2004; Cobanoglu, Warde, & Moreo, 2001; Couper, 2000; Creswell, 2005; Daley et al., 2003; Davison et al., 2006; Granello & Wheaton, 2004; Neuman, 2003; Sexon et al., 2003; Wharton et al., 2003), (c) software design options to select questions appropriate for specific respondents (Neuman, 2003), (d) availability to the masses, (e) standardized administration (Couper, 2000), (f) large-scale data collection and no limit to certain agencies in power (Couper, 2000; Sexon et al., 2003), (g) flexibility in terms of format (Granello & Wheaton, 2004; Stanton & Rogelberg, 2001) and time to complete the survey as the web site is open 24 hours a day and everyday (Birnbaum, 2004; Daley et al., 2003), (h) suitability of data for various formats (Davison et al., 2006; Stanton, 1998) and ready for analysis (Birnbaum, 2004; Daley et al., 2003; Davison et al., 2006; Sexon et al., 2003), (i) improvement in the attractiveness of the questionnaire (Sexon et al., 2003), and (j) improvement in anonymity protection and sense of social distance for respondents who are more likely to be self-disclosing (Daley et al., 2003).

Despite the popularity of web-based surveys, criticism of web-based surveys highlights the following limitations: (a) difficulty in obtaining e-mail addresses or list servers, (b) questionable representativeness of the sample data (Mertler, as cited in Creswell, 2005), (c) limitations of the technology itself (Daley et al., 2003; Mertler, as cited in

Creswell, 2005), (d) lack of population list (Davison et al., 2006; Mertler, as cited in Creswell, 2005), (e) potential lack of computer skills or Internet access (Daley et al., 2003; Davison et al., 2006; Granello & Wheaton, 2004; Neuman, 2003; Sexon et al., 2003), (f) possibility for multiple entries from one participant (Birnbaum, 2004; Couper et al., 2001; Davison et al., 2006; Neuman, 2003; Stanton & Rogelberg, 2001), (g) uncontrolled response environments (Daley et al., 2003; Stanton, 1998; Stanton & Rogelberg, 2001), and (h) difficulties in providing effective online incentives (Davison et al., 2006).

Three primary concerns when using web-based survey tools are coverage error, sampling error, and respondent error (Couper, 2000; Sexon et al., 2003; Stanton, 1998). If not all potential participants in the targeted population are equipped with a computer, Internet access, or skills in browsing websites, the representation of the sample can be undermined (Couper, 2000). Since participation in a web-based survey cannot utilize a probability-based sample design, it has been argued that the sample size of a web-based survey was merely the respondent counts and could not be generalized to represent the targeted population (Birnbaum, 2004; Couper, 2000).

The argument was based on the assumption that open invitation to participate in a web-based survey included an unknown number of eligible participants. In the current study, the targeted population was the employees of a local call center, and the e-mail invitation was sent through an internal corporate e-mail list. This procedure eliminated uncertainty about the target population and helped define the non-response rate.

Birnbaum (2004) noted that the self-selection process of web-based survey participants, referring to the situation in which those who read the e-mail may respond, could endanger the probability of generalization. While it has been argued that web-based survey

participants might possess similar personal characteristics (e.g., younger generation and higher education background), scholars (Flemming & Sonner, 1999, as cited in Couper, 2000) noticed that respondents “were not consistently more conservative or liberal than those in nationwide telephone surveys, nor were they more optimistic or pessimistic” (p. 472). In the current study, the invitation to participate was sent electronically and followed by a brief question-and-answer session in team meetings to ensure the eligible participants were informed of the study through more than one communication channel.

Another concern about web-based surveys is measurement error that refers to “the deviation of the answers of respondents from their true values on the measure” (Couper, 2000, p. 475). Measurement error can be attributed to respondents (e.g., comprehension problems, intentional distortion, and human error when recording answers) or the instrument design (e.g., awkward wording, technical flaws) (Couper, 2000). These drawbacks highlight the importance of instrument design, including the questionnaire layout and visual elements (Birnbaum, 2004; Couper et al., 2001). In the current study, it was determined that the selection of the established electronic format of the survey tools would control the measurement error.

One important threat to the internal validity of web-based surveys is dropouts (i.e., people quitting before completing the entire survey) (Birnbaum, 2004). This challenge exists with the traditional paper-pencil surveying method as well. Reips (as cited by Birnbaum, 2004) suggested placing the demographic data collection page early in the web-based survey and including a page that loads slowly. This strategy allows the impatient or resistant participants to drop out early without adding a statistical burden to overall scores.

Data Collection Procedure

The head of the organization was contacted to determine interest in and availability for the study. Once permission was granted, coordination with the human resources representatives and directors of each department took place in order to receive permission to communicate with the potential participants by conducting briefings in team meetings and sending a follow-up e-mail that served as the cover letter and informed consent (see Appendix A).

Because of the nature of the call center setting, data were collected electronically. All employees had an equal opportunity to participate. It was not intended to randomly or systematically filter out participants in order to eliminate the possibility of free forwarding among participants that could disturb or cause fusion in the sampling pool (Stanton & Rogelberg, 2001).

To ensure that statistical inferences were maintained, a probability-based sample design in which the pre-recruited panels of Internet users (Couper, 2000) was used. After participants responded to the e-mail invitation with their agreement to participate, they received an e-mail with a web address for the surveys, along with a login ID and password. The login ID and password were a set of general keys.

All participants used the same ID and password to access the online survey. Only the individual internal protocol (IP) addresses were recorded to avoid multiple entries from one user (Birnbaum, 2004; Couper et al., 2001; Stanton & Rogelberg, 2001), and no individual identity was revealed or recorded. The answers were stored on a server by a third party, the company responsible for the administration of the web site and survey. Once the data

collection period ended or the quota was met for the appropriate sample size, the survey administration company transmitted the raw data file to the researcher for statistical analysis.

Instrument

Two survey instruments were used in the study. The OLA and the MCMJSS were administered simultaneously in electronic format as web-based surveys. The demographic information included gender, seniority, years of education and highest degree, job position, and service types.

The OLA is designed for anyone at any level within an organization, work group or team, to take the survey (Laub, 1999). Data from all levels regarding employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles were collected. The OLA was also used as a predictive and diagnostic instrument.

Organization Leadership Assessment (OLA)

There is no single instrument for which the claim is put forth that it can measure all aspects and attributes of servant leadership (Drury, 2004). The OLA was selected for the current study because it explores a list of characteristics of servant leadership and examines respondents' perceptions. OLA evolved from the Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment (SOLA) developed by Laub (1999). It initially focused on clarifying the characteristics of servant leadership (Laub, 1999), and the goal was "to provide organizations and teams a tool with which to assess the perceived presence of servant leadership characteristics within the group" (p. 36).

Validity and Reliability

To identify and define the characteristics of servant leaders, Laub (1999) first named 46 characteristics of servant leaders found in the literature and used the Delphi technique,

which was a systematic way of collecting experts' opinions and working toward a consensus. Laub chose a panel of 14 recognized experts in the field of servant leadership to participate in a 3-round Delphi survey (Anderson, 2005; Laub, 1999, 2003a; Mears, 2004; Thompson, 2002). From the experts' answers, Laub established 6 definitional constructs (see Figure 3) and 74 characteristics (Laub, 1999, 2003a; Thompson, 2002). Laub noted that, based on the Delphi process and the expertise of the panel participants, the validity of SOLA was strong.

Servant Leadership is...	
... an understanding and practice of leadership that places the good of those led over the self-interests of the leader. Servant-leadership promotes the valuing and development of people, the building of community, the practice of authenticity, the providing of leadership for the good of those led and the sharing of power and status for the common good of each individual, the total organization and those served by the organization.	
The Servant Leader..	
Values People	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By believing in people • By serving other's needs before his or her own • By receptive, non-judgmental listening
Develops People	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By providing opportunities for learning and growth • By modeling appropriate behaviors • By building up others through encouragement and affirmation
Builds Community	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By building strong personal relationships • By working collaboratively with others • By valuing the differences of others
Displays Authenticity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By being open and accountable to others • By a willingness to learn from others • By maintaining integrity and trust
Provides Leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By envisioning the future • By taking initiative • By clarifying goals
Shares Leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • By facilitating a shared vision • By sharing power and releasing control • By sharing status and promoting others.
The Servant-organization is...	
... an organization in which the characteristics of servant leadership are displayed through the organizational culture and are valued and practiced by the leadership and workforce.	

(Laub, 1999, p. 83)

Figure 3. Servant-leadership and servant organizational model.

Based on the Delphi survey, Laub designed the SOLA instrument using a Likert-type scale (Laub, 1999, 2003a). In addition to the six original constructs, Laub created the instrument from three different perspectives to assess the entire organization, the leadership of the organization, and the perspective of respondents' personal experiences (Laub, 1999). In preparation for a prefield test, Laub used a panel of six judges to independently review the items, which helped in revising the wording of the items. Laub added six items assessing job satisfaction to the initial 74 items written for the SOLA in order to provide a comparison to the SOLA scores. Laub removed the word *servant* from the instrument title to minimize prejudiced and biased answers, and the survey containing a total of 80 items became the OLA field test (Laub, 1999).

Twenty-two adult participants completed the pretest (Laub, 1999). A Cronbach alpha coefficient and Pearson correlation tests were run to determine the measurement reliability and validity, which recommended minimal change and revision of items. The field test was given to 847 participants from 41 different organizations and generated 828 usable responses. "The standard deviation was 48.78. Estimated reliability, using the Cronbach-Alpha coefficient, was .98" (Laub, 1999, p. 66).

Laub ran correlation analysis between scales. "The lowest item-to-test correlation was .41 and the highest was .77" (Laub, 1999, p. 66). The six constructs (i.e., subscores), including values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership, had high reliability scores along with high correlations between the scales (see Table 3). The two subscores of organization and leadership assessment presented the same result of high reliability scores and high correlations between the scales.

Laub (1999) tested the correlation of job satisfaction to the SOLA scores. “A Pearson correlation was run and it was found that a significant ($p < .01$) positive correlation of .635 existed, accounting for 40% of the variance in the total instrument score” (p. 73). It was noted that the “job satisfaction score obtained an estimated reliability, using the Cronbach-Alpha coefficient, of .81” (Laub, 1999, p. 73).

Table 3

Reliability Scores on Potential SOLA Subscores

Potential Sub-scores	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	Total Possible Score	<i>SD</i>	α
Values People	828	53.84	70	8.88	.91
Develops People	828	37.37	50	7.78	.90
Builds Community	828	45.20	60	7.87	.90
Displays Authenticity	828	51.79	70	10.29	.93
Provides Leadership	828	45.59	60	8.49	.91
Shares Leadership	828	44.99	60	9.24	.93
Organization Assessment	828	113.66	150	18.61	.95
Leadership Assessment	828	165.11	220	32.14	.98

Note: (Laub, 1999, pp. 67-68)

It was also reported that the high reliability scores and high correlation between scales omitted the possibility to use the subscores independently for research (Laub, 1999; Thompson, 2002). After a careful statistical examination of the field test results, Laub reduced the instrument to a total of 66 items that make the current version of the OLA used in the current study (see Appendix B). The breakdown of the OLA questions correlated to the six subscores is shown in Appendix G.

Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale

Laub (1999) suggested that SOLA “should be administered alongside other reliable and validated instruments that measure similar, or opposite, constructs” (p. 87). The MCMJSS (Mohrman et al., 1977) is used to measure employee job satisfaction with employee self-report on three major aspects that are (a) extrinsic, (b) intrinsic, and (c) overall job satisfaction (Harrell, 2006; Pritchett, 2006). According to Mohrman et al., intrinsic satisfaction was defined as “satisfaction perceived to stem from aspects of the work or the job itself” (p. 127) while extrinsic satisfaction referred to “satisfaction perceived to stem from the context or situation in which respondent performs job” (p. 127).

The survey tool measures the overall job satisfaction by the combinations of all answers. Harrell (2006) noted that the dual focus of MCMJSS measured the level of job satisfaction and its relation to the perceived leadership style. The survey instrument has been used in several studies on job satisfaction (Everett, 2002; Harrell, 2006; Hebert, 2003; Lee, 2005; McKee, 1988; Pritchett, 2006; Proffit, 1990; Sirk, 1999).

Reliability

MCMJSS (Mohrman et al., 1977) was based on Herzberg’s motivation-hygiene theory that established its construct validity. MCMJSS is divided into 2 categories, extrinsic and intrinsic, and there are 4 statements in each category. A 6-point Likert scale was used for respondents to score their level of satisfaction for each statement or specific issues.

The reliability of the instrument using Cronbach’s alpha for the intrinsic scale ranged from .81 to .87 while the extrinsic scale ranged from .77 to .82 (Mohrman et al., 1977). In other research by Mohrman, Cooke, and Mohrman (as cited in Harrell, 2006), Cronbach’s

alpha was .86 for the intrinsic section and .71 for the extrinsic. With such satisfactory findings, MCMJSS was considered a reliable instrument for the current study.

Data Analysis

After collecting the data, the first step for analysis was filtering and removing multiple answers. The possibility existed that one respondent would have answered multiple times (Stanton & Rogelberg, 2001). The data collected using OLA (Laub, 1999) and the MCMJSS were analyzed using SPSS software.

According to Creswell, “The objective in correlational research is to describe the degree of association between two or more variables” (2005, p. 339). The purpose of analysis of correlational data is to determine the strength of the relationship and its direction (Creswell, 2005). In the current study, servant leadership and job satisfaction were measured with a Likert-type scale. There are six constructs, or domains, in the OLA design (Laub, 1999): (a) values people, (b) develops people, (c) builds community, (d) displays authenticity, (e) provides leadership, and (f) shares leadership. There are three subscores in the MCMJSS that are (a) extrinsic, (b) intrinsic, and (c) overall job satisfaction.

One-way ANOVA and a linear correlation coefficient analysis, known as the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, were used to examine the relationship between the perceptions of the six constructs of servant leadership related to employee job satisfaction. The demographic items, such as gender, the specialty of service, education level and position were collected and analyzed with descriptive statistical analysis in addition to an ANOVA or correlation.

Laub (2003a) expanded the six key constructs of OLA to further assess the six levels of organizational health (see Appendix H). Each level was designated by a power level

determined by the extent to which the six constructs of effective leadership were present in the organization (Laub, 2003a). Based on the score table developed by Laub (see Table 4), in an Org⁵ and Org⁶, the characteristics of servant leadership were perceived to be present within the leadership and throughout the organization. In an Org¹ and Org², the servant characteristics were mostly absent. The Org³ and Org⁴ levels represented organizations with a varied mix of characteristics.

Table 4

Laub's Six Organizational Categories and OLA Score Ranges

	Organizational Category	OLA Score Range
Org ⁶	Servant-minded organization	269.5-300.0
Org ⁵	Servant-oriented organization	239.5-269.4
Org ⁴	Positively paternalistic organization	209.5-239.4
Org ³	Negatively paternalistic organization	179.5-209.4
Org ²	Autocratic organization	119.5-179.4
Org ¹	Absence of servant leadership characteristics	60.0-119.4

The MCMJSS was designed to measure the three aspects of job satisfaction that are intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall job satisfaction. Using the data collected from the demographic survey (see Appendix D), descriptive statistics were computed. According to the instrument design, Items 1- 4 measured intrinsic job satisfaction, and Items 5- 8 measured extrinsic job satisfaction. The mean score of these two sections was used to reflect the data results. The overall job satisfaction was calculated using the mean scores of all eight items.

Validity

Internal Validity

“Internal Validity is the approximate truth about inferences regarding cause-effect or causal relationships” (Trochim, 2006a, para 1). There are six items in the OLA and four items in the MCMJSS that measure intrinsic job satisfaction. A correlational analysis was conducted between the six items in OLA and the four items in MCMJSS to examine construct validity. The results of the statistical examination provided data to verify the overall internal validity of the study (Hebert, 2003).

External Validity

“External validity refers to the approximate truth of conclusions that involve generalizations” (Trochim, 2006b, para 1). According to Stanton and Rogelberg (2001), the most effective way to address generalizability is by crossvalidating results using different research modalities. There is much existing research examining the correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction (Anderson, 2005; Crist, 1999; Drury, 2004; Hamilton, 2005; Hebert, 2003; Laub, 1999; Ledbetter, 2003; Miears, 2004; Thompson, 2002). The validated research instruments and the generalization of servant leadership applications to call centers established the external validity of the current research.

Summary

The purpose of the doctoral dissertation study was to explore the relationship between employees’ perception of servant leadership and job satisfaction. The study expanded on previous studies with an application to a call center setting, addressed the characteristics of leaders, and explored leaders’ role in employees’ perception of job satisfaction. The research was a quantitative correlational study that used web-based survey tools.

Employees' perceptions of servant leadership were categorized into six domains: (a) values people, (b) develops people, (c) builds community, (d) displays authenticity, (e) provides leadership, and (f) shares leadership. Employees' perceptions of servant leadership were measured with the OLA (Laub, 1999) (see Appendix B). The OLA is an assessment tool used to measure the overall perception of organizational health. The survey was tested in 41 different organizations during the initial instrument development process as well as other research.

The validity and reliability of the OLA questionnaire are believed to be trustworthy (Laub, 2004). OLA was designed not only to collect data but also to identify the organizational culture and promote positive organizational changes. Job satisfaction was assessed with the MCMJSS (Mohrman et al., 1977).

The findings expanded on servant leadership theory and further validated the OLA instrument (Laub, 1999). This chapter presented quantitative research methods, design appropriateness, population, sampling, data collection procedures, validity, and data analysis. Included was the rationale for the choice of methodology.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The findings of the research study are presented in three sections in chapter 4. Section 1 is a description of the survey data, the collection process, and the demographic characteristics. Section 2 is an explanation of the data and instrument screening procedure. In Section 3, the data analysis procedures and the findings as they relate to the research questions are reported. The first research question addressed the relationship between the employees' perceptions of servant leadership and their job satisfaction. The data analysis was focused on the examination of demographic variables that can impact individuals' views of their leaders and determine employee job satisfaction. The demographic variables were (a) gender, (b) seniority, (c) license requirement, (d) education level, and (e) job position. The second research question addressed the reliability of the Laub's OLA instrument at a call center setting.

Data Collection

Upon receiving approval for the study proposal, the general manager and human resource (HR) director of the participating organization were contacted to discuss sampling methods and identify potential participants. Because of a restructuring of the organization, the entire sample frame pool had shrunk from 1376 employees, including 216 managers and 1160 subordinates, to 395 employees with 48 supervisors/managers and 347. The initial data collection plan was modified to accommodate a new set of conditions established by the general manager and HR director after the reorganization of the company.

The participants were not selected randomly; instead, all 395 employees received invitations to participate in the survey in an e-mail that included a consent form. Employees who voluntarily agreed to participate returned the informed consent forms with their

signature. Information on how to access the web-based survey was e-mailed to the participants who had returned a signed consent form.

The web-based survey was stored in a third-party, professional online survey service site. The survey consisted of the following three instruments: (a) a demographic questionnaire with questions on gender, seniority, highest education level, licensure requirement, and job position; (b) the OLA (Laub, 1999); and (c) the MCMJSS (Mohrman et al., 1977). There were 66 questions in the OLA and 8 questions in the MCMJSS.

According to Laub's design (1999), there are 60 questions for six constructs (i.e., subscales) strategically distributed throughout the OLA survey. The six subscales are (a) values people, (b) develops people, (c) builds community, (d) displays authenticity, (e) provides leadership, and (f) shares leadership. The terminology of the six subscales did not appear in the survey instrument. The phrase *servant leadership* was only shown in the informed consent form, and a brief definition of servant leadership was included in the e-mail invitation, at the request of the general manager and HR director of the participating organization.

All participants were given access to the online survey tool. All survey responses were anonymous and no individual identity was revealed or recorded before, during, or after completion of the survey. Only the individual internal protocol (IP) addresses were recorded to avoid multiple entries from any one user (Birnbaum, 2004; Couper et al., 2001; Stanton & Rogelberg, 2001).

The survey participants were allowed to return to the survey site and complete their surveys if they were interrupted while answering the questions as long as they signed in from the same computer. Once they clicked the *done* or *exit* button, their access to the survey was

terminated. To ensure confidentiality, the Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) encrypted the data during transmission over the Internet.

The access to the survey was available for 25 days. The general manager and the HR director of the participating organization acted as gatekeepers, and all communications to the entire sample were required to go through them. The general manager assisted in sending three e-mails to the entire sampling frame in order to invite and encourage all employees to participate. No incentive for participation was offered because the organization did not want this research to be confused with the organization's own employee survey for which incentives are always offered.

Within 25 days, 114 (24.4%) of 395 employees signed and returned the consent forms. Of the 114, 102 participants started the survey, but only 98 completed the survey. The four incomplete surveys were eliminated before data analysis. The preliminary analysis was based on the 98 completed and useable surveys. Only the mean scores of the 60 questions in six subscales, excluding the six items in the questions on job satisfactions, were used for OLA data analysis.

Descriptive Statistics and Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

From the pool of 395 employees, including 48 supervisors/managers and 347 subordinates, 102 participants accessed the survey, and 98 completed it. The usable response rate was 24.8%. The 10 participating supervisors/managers/upper leadership represented 20.8% of the supervisor population while 88 workforce employees represented about 25.4% of the workforce.

Table 5 illustrates the demographic distribution of the participants. The sampling frame consisted of 395 individuals with 327 (82.7%) females and 68 (17.3%) males. The

sample of 98 included 75 females (76.5%) and 23 males (23.5%). No significant differences were found between these proportions according to a chi-square test ($p = .15$). A one-way ANOVA analysis showed there were no significant differences between males and females in terms of OLA scores, $F(1, 96) = .33, p = .57$.

Table 5

Demographic Distribution and Description of Participation

Variable	Category	<i>n</i>	Percent	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Gender	Male	23	23.5%	3.514	0.686
	Female	75	76.5%	3.411	0.776
Seniority	Up to 5 Years	41	41.8%	3.567	0.749
	5-10 years	32	32.7%	3.209	0.761
	10 Years and more	25	25.5%	3.509	0.713
Licensure Requirement	Yes	56	57.1%	3.340	0.729
	No	42	42.9%	3.562	0.777
Highest Education	HS/ Associate	27	27.6%	3.567	0.882
	Bachelor's	10	10.2%	3.790	0.321
	Master/Doctorate	61	62.2%	3.319	0.724
Position in the organization	Management	10	10.2%	3.728	0.453
	Workforce	88	89.8%	3.402	0.776

The population consisted of 395 individuals. The number of subordinates in the population was 347 (87.8%); this number included 48 (12.2%) males. The sample included 98 individuals of whom 88 (89.7%) were subordinates and 10 (10.2%) were managers (see Figure 4). No significant differences were found between these proportions according to a

chi-square test ($p = .59$). A one-way ANOVA showed there were no significant differences based on job position in terms of OLA scores, $F(1, 96) = 1.691, p = .197$.

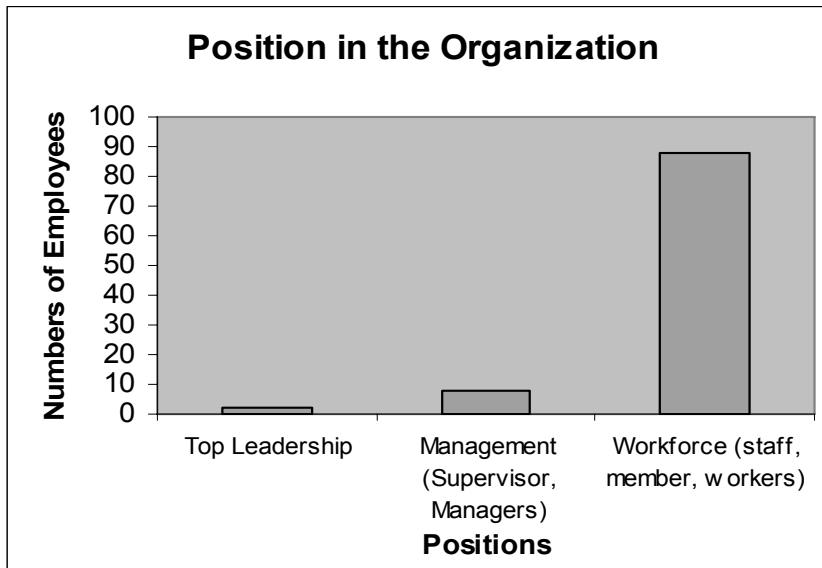


Figure 4. Position distribution of participants.

To answer the seniority question, the participants indicated the total of their employment years with the organization. In the population, there were 148 individuals (37.4%) with seniority under 5 years, 138 (34.9%) with seniority between 5 and 10 years, and 109 (27.7%) with more than 10 years seniority. In the sample (see Figure 5), there were 41 individuals (41.8%) with seniority under 5 years, 32 (32.7%) with seniority between 5 and 10 years, and 25 (25.5%) with more than 10 years seniority. No significant differences were found between these proportions according to a chi-square test ($p = .72$). A one-way ANOVA showed there were no significant differences based on seniority in terms of OLA scores, $F(2, 95) = 2.25, p = .11$.

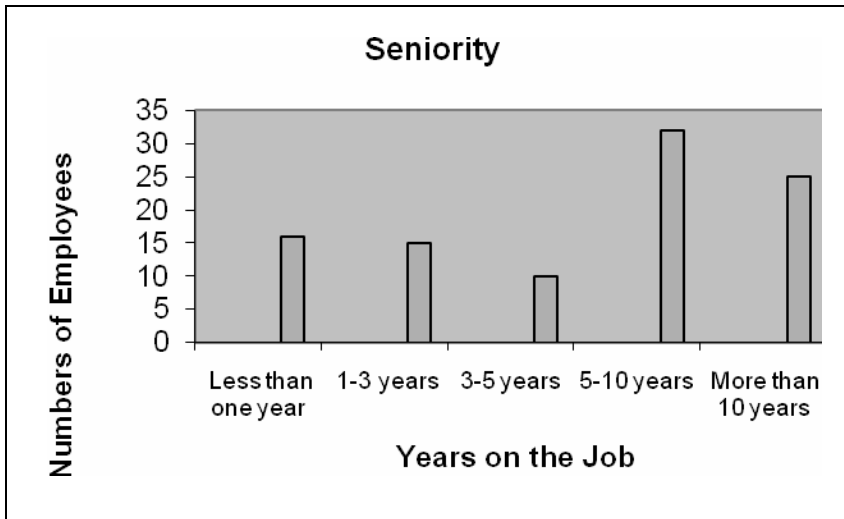


Figure 5. Years of employment (i.e., seniority) of participants.

The question on licensure requirement was used to distinguish the degree of specialized service (Yeh, 2007). Because employees in the study organization provide general and specialized services, the company requires that all employees who provide specialized service be licensed by state professional boards such as Licensed Clinical Social Worker (LCSW), Licensed Professional Counselor (LPC), and Registered Nurse (RN). In the sample frame, there were 202 clinicians (51.1%) and 193 non-clinicians (48.9%). In the sample, there were 56 clinicians (57.1%) and 42 non-clinicians (42.9%) (see Figure 6). No significant differences were found between these proportions according to a chi-square test ($p = .28$). A one-way ANOVA showed there were no significant differences based on licensure requirement in OLA scores, $F(1, 96) = 2.10, p = .15$.

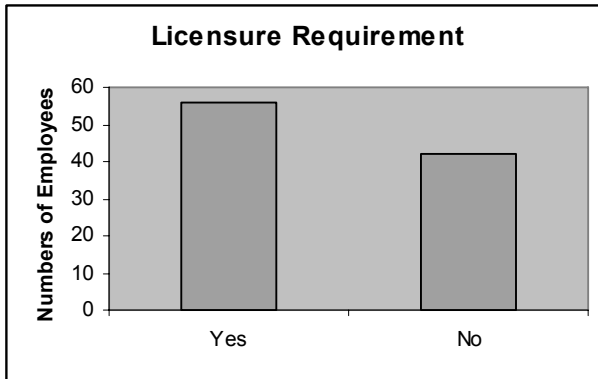


Figure 6. Licensure requirements among participants.

The survey question about education level asked participants to report their highest educational degree in 1 of 5 categories (high school diploma/GED, associate's degree, bachelor's degree, master's degree, and doctor's degree). There is no information on the highest education level of the population because all employees must meet the minimal education requirement when applying for a job, and the company does not collect employee census on the highest education level. In general, all clinicians must have a master's degree or higher, based on the state licensure requirement. Of 98 respondents, 27.6% held a high school diplomas/GED or an associate degree, 10.2% had a bachelor's degree, and 62.2% reported holding a master's degree or a doctoral degree (see Figure 7). A one-way ANOVA showed there were no significant differences based on education in terms of OLA scores, $F(2, 95) = 2.30, p = .11$.

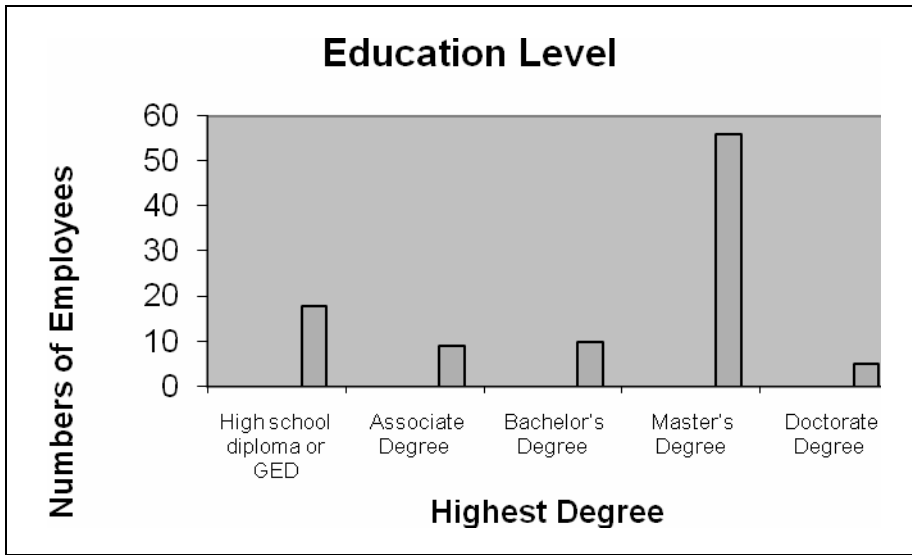


Figure 7. Highest education level distribution.

Data and Instrument Screening

Data Screening

The data collected through the web-based surveys were screened before hypothesis testing was performed to ensure accuracy of the data and to verify that all demographic variables were represented. The demographic variables included gender, seniority, license requirement, education level, and job position. As shown in Table 5, the demographic variables were represented in all groups.

During the coding process, four surveys with missing answers were identified. The respondents stopped answering the survey questions; they might have been interrupted during the process and left the rest of the questions unanswered. No SPSS missing data analysis was conducted because four incomplete surveys were not believed to cause serious missing data computation problems. There was no consistent pattern that could link the missing answers to any specific construct or subscale of OLA. Consequently, the four incomplete surveys were excluded from the statistical analysis conducted with SPSS.

Instrument Pilot Test

Before the web-based combined surveys became available to all study participants, they were pilot tested with 14 randomly selected participants who were not employed in any call center. The objective of the pilot test was to identify ambiguities or awkward wording in the instructions and the survey questions as well as technical difficulties in the survey administration process on the Internet. Based on the feedbacks from the pilot group, the following two modifications to the final version of the survey were made: (a) one typing error in the demographic questionnaire was corrected and (b) the survey online access set up was changed to allow the participants to return from the same IP address and complete the survey if they were interrupted. Overall, the pilot group participants agreed that the survey instructions and questions were clear and that the process of administration was easy to follow.

Data Analysis and Hypothesis Testing

This section is organized according to the two research questions that guided the study. The findings presented are focused on the data relevant to each research hypothesis. From a pool of 395 employees, 102 participated in the survey, but only 98 of the 102 respondents completed the survey. The usable 98 surveys represented a response rate of 24.8%. Based on a chi-square test results, the sample was representative of the population in terms of gender, position, seniority, and licensure requirement.

The first research question in the study asked whether there was any correlation between the employee perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction in a call center setting, based on the variables of gender, seniority, degree of specialized service, education level, and job position. Specialized services were measured by whether a professional license

or certificate was required. Employees' perceptions of servant leadership principles were computed based on the responses to the OLA Survey. Items were averaged according to the directions in the OLA survey manual in order to build scores for the following dimensions of perceptions of servant leadership: (a) values people, (b) develops people, (c) builds community, (d) displays authenticity, (e) provides leadership, and (f) shares leadership. The descriptive statistics of the OLA subscales are shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of the OLA Subscales

OLA Subscales	<i>n</i>	Min	Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Values People	98	10	50	35.70	7.68
Develops People	98	9	45	29.98	8.11
Builds Community	98	10	50	35.64	7.34
Displays Authenticity	98	12	60	40.76	9.64
Provides Leadership	98	9	45	31.47	6.32
Shares Leadership	98	10	50	32.58	9.09

Job satisfaction was primarily measured through the MCMJSS survey, and items were averaged in order to build the following three different job satisfaction scores: (a) overall job satisfaction, (b) intrinsic job satisfaction, and (c) extrinsic job satisfaction. As shown in Table 7, relatively strong correlations were observed between perceptions of servant leadership principles and all dimensions of job satisfaction, with Pearson's *r* ranging from 0.46 to 0.74. The correlation between the OLA totals and overall job satisfaction was 0.69, indicating that the perceptions of servant leadership overall were positively correlated

to the overall measure of job satisfaction. All correlation coefficients were significantly different from zero, $p = .05$.

Table 7

Pearson's Correlations Coefficients for the Whole Sample

	Overall JS	Intrinsic JS	Extrinsic JS
Values People	0.70	0.57	0.70
Develops People	0.70	0.53	0.74
Builds Community	0.64	0.48	0.67
Displays Authenticity	0.63	0.46	0.68
Provides Leadership	0.55	0.37	0.62
Shares Leadership	0.66	0.50	0.69
OLA Total	0.69	0.52	0.73

Note: All correlations were significant, $p = .05$.

Correlational coefficient analyses were conducted to understand whether gender, seniority, degree of specialized service provided, education, and job position made any difference in influencing how individuals perceived servant leadership and job satisfaction. The results are presented in the next section according to each hypothesis. In order to assess whether the correlation coefficients were different for samples with different characteristics such as males and females, 95% confidence intervals were computed for each correlation coefficient, and these confidence intervals were compared across groups. Non-overlapping confidence intervals suggested that the correlation coefficients were significantly different for samples with different characteristics.

Research Question One

Hypothesis 1

H1₀. In a call center setting, there is no correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of gender.

H1_A. In a call center setting, there is a correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of gender.

As shown in Table 8, correlation coefficients between perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction were obtained for males and females. While the correlations between perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction were somewhat stronger for males than for females, there were no significant differences found between the two groups in terms of the analyzed correlations. The comparison of results reflects no significant differences when controlling the factor of gender in the correlation between perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2

H2₀. In a call center setting, there is no correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of seniority.

H2_A. In a call center setting, there is a correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of seniority.

Table 8

Correlation Coefficients by Gender

	Male			Female		
	Overall	Intrinsic	Extrinsic	Overall	Intrinsic	Extrinsic
	JS	JS	JS	JS	JS	JS
Values People	0.85	0.73	0.77	0.67	0.54	0.69
Develops People	0.82	0.69	0.76	0.67	0.48	0.74
Builds Community	0.80	0.68	0.73	0.61	0.45	0.66
Displays Authenticity	0.69	0.52	0.73	0.63	0.47	0.67
Provides Leadership	0.61	0.41	0.70	0.53	0.36	0.60
Shares Leadership	0.81	0.68	0.74	0.61	0.43	0.68
OLA Total	0.83	0.67	0.80	0.66	0.48	0.72

In order to conduct a meaningful analysis, the data were condensed into a smaller set of variables that would help explain adequately the pattern of correlation. Based on the sample size, the data were split into three seniority groups of (a) up to 5 years, (b) from 5 to 10 years, and (c) more than 10 years. The correlation coefficients for these three groups are shown in Table 9. The correlation between perception of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction was generally weaker for individuals with up to 5 years of seniority. There were no significant differences found among the three groups in terms of any of the analyzed correlations. It is concluded that there are no differences when controlling the factor of seniority in the correlation between perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3

H3₀. In a call center setting, there is no correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of the degree of specialized service provided.

H3_A. In a call center setting, there is a correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of the degree of specialized service provided.

The level of specialized services is determined by whether a professional license or certificate is required. To conduct the analysis, the group was divided by whether the job required a professional license. As shown in Table 10, the correlations between perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction were generally stronger for individuals whose job required a professional license or certificate.

There were significant differences in some coefficients found between the two groups. For example, the correlation between the dimension of values people and overall job satisfaction was significantly stronger for individuals whose job requires a professional license ($r = 0.84$) than for individuals whose job does not require a license ($r = 0.49$). Individuals with professional certifications might have a higher expectation of being valued by their leaders. This expectation might be a determinant of the employees' level of job satisfaction. The correlation between perception of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction depends on whether individuals' jobs require a professional license.

Table 9

Correlation Coefficients by Seniority

	Up to 5 years			5-10 years			Higher than 10 years		
	Overall JS	Intrinsic JS	Extrinsic JS	Overall JS	Intrinsic JS	Extrinsic JS	Overall JS	Intrinsic JS	Extrinsic JS
Values People	0.55	0.49	0.55	0.83	0.67	0.82	0.79	0.50	0.83
Develops People	0.60	0.52	0.62	0.82	0.63	0.84	0.72	0.37	0.83
Builds Community	0.55	0.50	0.54	0.71	0.49	0.79	0.70	0.37	0.79
Displays Authenticity	0.54	0.51	0.52	0.67	0.43	0.77	0.71	0.38	0.80
Provides Leadership	0.46	0.35	0.52	0.59	0.38	0.68	0.63	0.36	0.70
Shares Leadership	0.58	0.51	0.58	0.73	0.59	0.72	0.68	0.31	0.83
OLA Total	0.58	0.51	0.58	0.79	0.58	0.84	0.75	0.40	0.85

Table 10

Correlation Coefficients by License or Certificate Requirement

	<i>A professional license or certificate is required</i>			<i>A professional license or certificate is NOT required</i>		
	Overall JS	Intrinsic JS	Extrinsic JS	Overall JS	Intrinsic JS	Extrinsic JS
Values People	0.84	0.69	0.85	0.49*	0.39	0.50*
Develops People	0.82	0.67	0.81	0.51*	0.30	0.62
Builds Community	0.81	0.65	0.82	0.41*	0.25	0.48*
Displays Authenticity	0.72	0.53	0.78	0.49	0.36	0.53
Provides Leadership	0.63	0.43	0.71	0.42	0.28	0.48
Shares Leadership	0.74	0.60	0.74	0.48	0.30	0.57
OLA Total	0.81	0.64	0.84	0.50*	0.33	0.56*

Note: (*) implies that the coefficient was significantly different between individuals whose job requires a professional license or certificate compared with individuals whose job doesn't require a professional license or certificate.

Hypothesis 4

H4₀. In a call center setting, there is no correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of education level.

H4_A. In a call center setting, there is a correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of education level.

The data were condensed into a smaller set of variables in order to adequately explain the patterns of correlation. Based on the sample size, the sample was divided into three

subgroups by education as follows: (a) high school diploma/GED or associate degree, (b) bachelor's degree, and (c) master's degree or doctorate. As shown in Tables 11-13, the correlation coefficients varied significantly by education level.

The only significant difference in the correlation coefficients between individuals with a high school diploma or associate degree and individuals with a bachelor's degree was between the dimension of develops people and intrinsic job satisfaction, which was significantly higher for individuals with a bachelor's degree ($r = 0.91$) than for individuals with a high school diploma or an associate degree ($r = 0.25$). Correlation coefficients for the subsample of individuals with a master's degree or a doctorate were generally stronger than those of the other two subsamples. These findings suggest that the correlation between perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction depends on educational level.

Table 11

Correlation Coefficients for Individuals with a High School Diploma or an Associate Degree

	Overall JS	Intrinsic JS	Extrinsic JS
Values People	0.39	0.25	0.44
Develops People	0.46	0.23	0.60
Builds Community	0.39	0.21	0.48
Displays Authenticity	0.43	0.26	0.51
Provides Leadership	0.32	0.14	0.42
Shares Leadership	0.39	0.18	0.51
OLA Total	0.42	0.23	0.52

Table 12

Correlation Coefficients for Individuals with a Bachelor's Degree

	Overall JS	Intrinsic JS	Extrinsic JS
Values People	0.55	0.65	0.11
Develops People	0.75	0.91*	0.13
Builds Community	0.09	0.29	-0.29
Displays Authenticity	0.55	0.63	0.17
Provides Leadership	0.78	0.83	0.32
Shares Leadership	0.64	0.71	0.22
OLA Total	0.66	0.77	0.15

Note: (*) Implies that the coefficient was significantly different between individuals with a high school diploma or associate degree and individuals with a bachelor's degree.

Table 13

Correlation Coefficients for Individuals with a Master's Degree or a Doctoral Degree

	Overall JS	Intrinsic JS	Extrinsic JS
Values People	0.85**	0.70	0.85**, +
Develops People	0.82	0.67	0.82+
Builds Community	0.81**, +	0.65	0.81+
Displays Authenticity	0.73	0.56	0.78
Provides Leadership	0.64	0.45	0.72
Shares Leadership	0.75	0.61	0.75
OLA Total	0.82**	0.66	0.84+

Note: (**) implies that the coefficient was significantly different between individuals with a high school diploma or associate degree and individuals with a master's degree or doctorate; (+) implies that the coefficient was significantly different between individuals with a bachelor's degree and individuals with a master's degree or doctorate.

Hypothesis 5

H5₀. In a call center setting, there is no correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of position.

H5_A. In a call center setting, there is a correlation between employees' perceptions of the servant leadership principles and employees' level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of position.

The correlations analysis by position is based upon two subsample groups of (a) management combining upper leadership and manager/supervisor levels and (b) workforce. As shown in Table 14, there were no significant differences found between these two job position groups in terms of any of the analyzed correlations. The findings suggest that there are no differences when controlling the factor of job position in the correlation between perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction.

Table 14

Correlation Coefficients for Individuals with Management or Workforce Positions

	Management			Workforce		
	Overall JS	Intrinsic JS	Extrinsic JS	Overall JS	Intrinsic JS	Extrinsic JS
Values People	0.66	0.55	0.57	0.71	0.58	0.71
Develops People	0.65	0.55	0.55	0.71	0.54	0.75
Builds Community	0.43	0.38	0.36	0.65	0.50	0.69
Displays Authenticity	0.59	0.51	0.50	0.63	0.46	0.69
Provides Leadership	0.79	0.76	0.54	0.54	0.36	0.62
Shares Leadership	0.68	0.54	0.64	0.66	0.51	0.69
OLA Total	0.68	0.58	0.58	0.70	0.52	0.74

Research Question Two

The second research question in the study related to the reliability of the Laub's OLA instrument in a call center setting. When Laub first designed the instrument, the field test was given to 847 participants from 41 different organizations and generated 828 usable responses. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was 0.98 ($SD = 48.78$) (Laub, 1999).

Hypothesis 6

H6₀. In a call center setting, there is no statistically significant difference in reliability in Laub's OLA when applied to the call center industry as opposed to other settings.

H6_A. In a call center setting, there is a statistically significant difference in reliability in Laub's OLA when applied to the call center industry as opposed to other settings.

Cronbach's alpha was used to examine the internal consistency reliability of the OLA instrument. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were computed for each of the OLA and MCMJSS subscales. Results are presented in Table 15. All subscales exhibited very good internal consistency reliability and validity with Cronbach's alpha coefficients from 0.84 to 0.98.

Summary

The data collected through the OLA and MCMJSS instruments and the demographic questionnaire were used to examine the correlations between the employees' perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction in a call center setting, when controlling the variables of gender, seniority, degree of specialized service, education level, and job position. The data were further used to determine the reliability of OLA in a call center setting. Based on the chi-square test, there is evidence that the sample was representative of the population in terms of gender, position, seniority, and licensure requirement.

Table 15

Reliability Based on Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for all Subscales

Scale	Subscale	Cronbach's Alpha
OLA	Values People	0.91
	Develops People	0.93
	Builds Community	0.91
	Displays Authenticity	0.93
	Provides Leadership	0.87
	Shares Leadership	0.93
	Job Satisfaction	0.85
	OLA Total	0.98
MCMJSS	Overall JS	0.90
	Intrinsic JS	0.90
	Extrinsic JS	0.84

The major findings that resulted from the data analysis include the following:

1. The perception of servant leadership overall is positively correlated to the overall measure of job satisfaction ($r = 0.69$).
2. There are no significant differences when controlling the factor of gender, seniority, and job position in the correlation between perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction.
3. There are statistically significant differences in education level and licensure requirement that impact employees' perceptions of servant leadership principles and

job satisfaction. Employees with a higher education level or with a professional certificate might have a level of job satisfaction when controlling the factor of their perceptions of servant leadership principles.

4. There was very good internal consistency reliability and validity of the OLA instrument in a call center setting.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of the doctoral dissertation study was to explore relationships between employees' perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction in a call center setting. Empirical data that helped gain a deeper understanding in leader-subordinate dynamics were collected. The demographic characteristics of gender, seniority, licensure requirement, education level, and position and the role of these variables in influencing an individual's perceptions were examined.

This chapter summarizes the results of the study and includes an interpretation of the results related to the research questions and hypotheses. The important findings, lessons learned, and ethical dimensions are presented. Further discussions of the leadership implications of the findings of the current study, personal views on the broader social significance of the study, and recommendations for future research are included.

Discussion of Findings

The purpose of the study was to gather empirical data to expand the body of knowledge concerning leadership in the call center industry. The quantitative, correlational research project was carried out with surveys of managers and frontline employees who provide services to customers through inbound telephone contacts at a call center located in the Saint Louis, Missouri metropolitan area. The correlational data analysis determined the existence, direction, and strength of relationships (Anderson, 2005; Creswell, 2005). The data collection was executed through a web-based survey service site.

Of 395 employees, including 48 supervisors/managers and 347 subordinates, 102 participants accessed the survey. Of the 102 respondents, 98 respondents completed the survey. The usable 98 surveys represent a response rate of 24.8%. Based on a chi-square test,

the sample was determined to be representative of the population in terms of gender, position, seniority, and licensure requirement.

The correlational data analysis was focused on answering the following two research questions:

1. How do perceptions of servant leadership relate to job satisfaction for employees in a call center setting, when controlling the factor of gender, seniority, degree of specialized service, education level, and job position?
2. What is the reliability of the Laub's OLA within a call center setting?

The data produced in the study demonstrated a positive correlation between employees' perceptions of servant leadership and individual job satisfaction ($r = 0.69$). The correlational analysis results for Research Question 1 support the following hypotheses:

H1₀: In a call center setting, there are no statistical differences when controlling the factor of gender in the correlation between perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction.

H2₀: In a call center setting, there are no differences when controlling the factor of seniority in the correlation between perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction.

H3_A: In a call center setting, there is a statistical correlation between perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction depended on whether the individuals' jobs require a professional license.

The correlations were generally stronger for individuals whose job required a professional license or certificate.

H4_A: In a call center setting, there is a correlation between perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction depended on education level.

Individuals with bachelor's degree ($r = 0.908$) had significantly higher correlations between the dimension of develops people and intrinsic job satisfaction than those with a high school or associate degree ($r = 0.252$). Correlation coefficients for the individuals with a master's degree or doctorate degree were generally stronger than the other two subgroups.

H5₀: In a call center setting, there are no differences when controlling the factor of job position in the correlation between perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction.

Compared with previous research and the present body of knowledge, the findings of the present study add perspectives to the topics of servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Laub (1999) and Horsman (2000) suggested that employee position levels (i.e., top leadership, management, and workforce) impacted perceptions of servant leadership.

Thompson (2002) disagreed with these findings, neither did the results of this current study.

Hebert (2003) found the number of years in the workforce (i.e., seniority) and whether individuals worked directly with the products or services of their organization (i.e., position) reflected significant differences in perceiving servant leadership and job satisfaction, but there was no evidence to support such observations at the call center in the current study.

Anderson (2005) noted no significant relationship between employee job satisfaction and any of the demographic characteristics (i.e., age, gender, work assignment, years of employment, years of current assignment) which coincided with the findings found in the current study.

One-way ANOVA analysis showed there were no statistically significant differences within the various demographic characteristics of gender, seniority, licensure requirement,

education level, and position in the employees' views of servant leadership. Conversely, the correlational analysis results highlight positive correlations between licensure requirements and education level, possibly impacting individuals' perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction. The purpose of correlational studies is not to isolate causes but to provide evidence of the direction and strength of relationships between variables (Anderson, 2005; Creswell, 2005). The findings of the present study show that employees with a similar understanding of servant leadership principles might have different expectations of their leaders, when controlling the factor of education level and possession of professional certification. This finding is important when working with knowledge or professional workers.

The study was conducted at a knowledge-intensive operating call center. The company requires all employees who provide specialized services to be licensed. In the State of Missouri, all professional clinical licensees must hold at least a master's degree and have several years of experiences. Of the 98 participants in the study, 57.1% held professional licenses, and 62.2% had a master's degree or a doctoral degree. Overall, 74.4% had a bachelor's degree and higher degree.

The majority of the employees at the call center participating in the study were considered knowledge or skilled workers. The research results show that the factors of education level and licensure requirement influence individuals' perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction. The principles of servant leadership were categorized as six dimensions: (a) values people, (b) develops people, (c) builds community, (d) displays authenticity, (e) provides leadership, and (f) shares leadership. The overall correlation scores between individuals' perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction

for individuals with a high school diploma/GED or an associate degree were relatively low and evenly distributed among the six dimensions.

Among the six subscales of the OLA instrument (see Table 11), the highest correlational scores were obtained for the dimension of develops people followed by the dimension of displays authenticity. The lowest correlational score was for the dimension of provides leadership. An interpretation of these results might be that individuals with a high school diploma/GED or associate degree look for leaders who are authentic, promote personal growth, and encourage contributions. These employees prefer leaders who are not intensely directive because they want to share leadership responsibilities.

Results for people with a master's degree or a doctoral degree show stronger correlations in the extrinsic job satisfaction (see Table 13). The top three indicators of servant leadership principles to their overall job satisfactions are the dimensions of values people, develops people, and builds community. These three strong correlations distinguish employees with a higher degree from people with less education with the implication that people with a higher level of education place great emphasis on their personal goals and values. The personal values were (a) feeling valued, (b) be able to grow, (c) have a feeling of belonging, and (d) have room to be creative and autonomous. Individuals with these values tend to be self-motivated, self-directed, and personally accountable for their growth rather than expect their leaders to fulfill their needs.

This result supports findings from a previous research study on knowledge workers in which it was concluded that employees with high movement capitals such as education, special experiences, transferable skills, and cognitive abilities were more committed to their profession than to their organization (Yeh, 2007). It is important that leaders and managerial

staff foster an organizational culture that brings employees' own beliefs and values in alignment with the organization's goals, mission, and values in order to promote individual job satisfaction and sustain organizational success.

Another important finding in the current study is the significant coefficient difference between individuals with a professional license and those without. For people with professional licenses or certificates, the top three indicators to their overall job satisfaction are the same as for people with a master's degree and higher education (i.e., dimensions of values people, develops people, and builds community) (see Table 10). These three indicators had statistical significance in overall job satisfaction when compared to people without a professional license.

People without licenses and certificates seem to place more importance on the dimensions of develops people, displays authenticity, and shares leadership. This finding implies that leaders in knowledge-intensive operations must recognize the professional and psychological needs of their agents. Instead of using one-size-fits-all leadership approaches, leaders must implement personalized approaches that are appropriate to their subordinates' levels in order to lead, manage, train, and develop them effectively.

The findings of the current study serve to highlight the issue of retaining knowledge workers at knowledge-intensive call centers. In a recent study, Chang and Choi (2007) observed the fragile relationship between knowledge workers and organizations at the beginning of the workers' employment. Chang and Choi found there were complementary dynamics between organizational and professional commitment in the initial phase from entry to approximately 12-18 months after entry in the organization. Knowledge workers tend to have higher organizational commitment for the first 6 months, and their professional

commitment starts to increase afterwards. Three years after job entry, knowledge workers seemed to recover and re-establish the homeostasis between organizational and professional commitment, which is reflected in the stabilization of the turnover rate (Chang & Choi, 2007).

The findings of the doctoral study are focused on knowledge workers and the determinants of their job satisfaction. Leaders are encouraged to pay special attention to knowledge workers and their positions in the area of professional and organizational commitment. It would be helpful for leaders to be proactive and promote an environment in which organizational commitment and professional commitment can be balanced at the beginning of employment in order to retain knowledge workers (Chang & Choi, 2007). Top management leadership are advised to communicate regularly and with transparency, promote an engaging working environment, provide a compensation package that reflects the knowledge workers' achievements, and offer career advancement opportunities (Horwitz, Heng, & Quazi, 2003). Factors that improve knowledge workers' job satisfaction might be instrumental in strengthening organizational commitment and workers' intention to stay.

With regard to the second research question, good internal consistency reliability was found for all subscales with Cronbach's alpha coefficients from 0.84 to 0.98. This finding supports Hypothesis H6₀: In a call center setting, there is no statistically significant difference in reliability in Laub's OLA when applied to the call center industry as opposed to other settings. The results contribute to establishing the reliability and validity of the OLA instrument in a new field.

One application of the OLA survey, according to Laub (1999), is to use the instrument to examine organizational health. The overall OLA mean score for the

participating organization is 206.13 of a possible total score of 300, $SD = 45.24$. The mean score is used as a general indicator of the extent to which employees of the organization perceive servant leadership (Anderson, 2005; Laub, 2003a). Table 16 is a summary of overall mean scores for servant leadership in previous studies compared with the mean score in the current study.

Table 16

Overall Mean Score Comparison with Previous Studies

Studies using OLA	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Laub (1999)	828	223.79	41.08
Horsman (2001)	540	214.74	48.57
Thompson (2002)	116	213.73	35.10
Ledbetter (2003) test	138	210.52	39.16
Ledbetter (2003) retest	138	214.80	36.76
Hebert (2003)	136	200.76	41.92
Drury (2004)	170	224.65	34.18
Miears (2004)	165	211.43	50.67
Anderson (2005)	430	247.08	38.85
Van Tassell (2006)	166	195.70	50.04
Current Study - Chu (2007)	98	206.13	45.24

When using the overall organizational mean score in Laub's Six Organizational Categories chart (see Table 4), the call center participating in the current study is classified in the Org³ Category of *Limited Organizational Health* within the score range 179.5-209.4. Organizations in this category are described as negatively paternalistic (see Appendix H).

Org³ organizations, according to Laub (2003b), are considered non-servant leadership organization and are characterized by minimal to moderate levels of trust and trustworthiness accompanied by an underlying uncertainty and fear.

Leaders in Org³ organizations often take the role of critical parents and expect conformity. Individual expressions or creativity are not often encouraged, and employees sometimes believe that they must earn the leaders' approval and are listened to only if they speak in line with the priorities of leaders (Laub, 2003b). Employees generally desire to be valued and to participate in organizational processes. When working in an Org³ organization where ownership and innovation are not encouraged, individuals can find their jobs discouraging and disappointing, leading to low morale, disloyalty, and voluntary employment termination. This process is a serious threat to organizations' internal and external competitiveness.

A specific observation made from the data gathered was about the organization's perception match. An organization's perception match is determined "by the closeness of perception between the leaders and the workforce regarding the presence and strength of the six characteristic of organizational health" (Laub, 2003a, p. 9). The mean scores of the three subgroups (i.e., upper management, management, and workforce) presented a phenomenon that the top leadership and the workforce seem to have slight different perceptions on the six organizational health constructs (see Table 17). While the sample sizes of upper management ($n = 2$) and management ($n = 8$) were too small to draw a statistical conclusion or make a comparison among these three subgroups, this observation, according to Laub (2003b), might suggest low levels of shared awareness and open communication among them.

Table 17

Mean Scores of the six OLA Subscales among Three Position Groups

	Upper			
	Management	Management	Workforce	Max
	(<i>n</i> = 2)	(<i>n</i> = 8)	(<i>n</i> = 88)	Score
Values People	43.0	38.9	35.3	50
Develops People	33.0	32.9	29.6	45
Builds Community	37.0	38.0	35.4	50
Displays Authenticity	47.5	43.0	40.4	60
Provides Leadership	32.5	32.4	31.4	45
Shares Leadership	39.0	36.5	32.1	50
Job Satisfaction	28.0	23.1	23.0	30

Perception match is a crucial factor in psychological contracts. According to Rousseau (1989), psychological contracts are focused on the perceptions held by individuals concerning their organizations and leaders. When psychological contracts are broken, the relationship between members and organizations is damaged, which often weakens the employees' commitment to the organization, their willingness to contribute, and their perception of job satisfaction (Ntalianis & Darr, 2005; Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Rousseau, 1989). A perception gap can become a critical problem during organizational change. Successful organizational change occurs when there is congruence in perceptions and understanding between upper management and the organization's members (Scroggins, 2006). Leaders need to realign and reconnect with their subordinates in order to lead effectively.

Implications of the Study

The findings of the current study add important information to the field of leadership and the understanding of call center dynamics. The significant implications of the study consist of (a) implication for research, (b) implications for theory, and (c) implications for practice. The next three sections address implications of the study findings.

Implications for Research

The study made three significant contributions. First, the study generated needed research data in servant leadership that filled the gap in the empirical literature. Second, the empirical data collected in the study have broadened the body of knowledge about call centers. Third, the statistical results of the OLA survey instrument provided valuable data that validated the reliability of the instrument for the call center.

The study generated needed research data in servant leadership that filled the gap in the empirical literature. Despite abundant research and studies in leadership and employees' job satisfaction, there were few studies focused on servant leadership or focused on leaders' influence on employees at call centers. Several scholars identified a relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction (Anderson, 2005; Drury, 2004; Hamilton, 2005; Hebert, 2003; Laub, 1999; Ledbetter, 2003; Mears, 2004; Thompson, 2002). These scholars recommended more studies be conducted to provide empirical data on the effectiveness of servant leadership across traditional for-profit service organizations. The current study was designed to expand the research field into non-religious and for-profit organizations. The findings allow scholars to further examine the generalizability of servant leadership theory and the application of servant leadership in a variety of businesses and institutions.

Secondly, the empirical data collected in the study have broadened the body of knowledge in call centers. Call centers, often known as *an assembly line in the head* (Dean, 2002, 2004; Deery & Kinnie, 2002; Grebner et al., 2003; Halliden & Monks, 2005; Mascia et al., 2000; Rose & Wright, 2005; Siong et al., 2006; Varca, 2006), have become a critical business tool to connects businesses with customers and sustain success. In the current global economic market and *flat world* (Friedman, 2005), call centers have grown at a rate of 40% worldwide each year (Lewig & Dollard, 2003). With the advancement of technology, people call customer services located thousands of miles away. When consumers make their business decisions, they start to pay close attention to the customer support services, their accessibility, and their quality. Research findings in the present study highlighted the fact that customer service agents with a high level of job satisfaction contribute to better customer satisfaction (Marketline, 2005a).

The biggest challenge for call centers is managing frontline agents (Mahesh & Kasturi, 2006). While modern call centers still follow the traditional model that pushes the staff to maximize their efficiency, one new challenge is the increased practice of knowledge-intensive operations. In knowledge-intensive working environments, all agents are expected to be specialized, experienced, knowledgeable, and skilled in the field they serve. Some examples of these knowledge-intensive operations are hotlines for information technology support, nurse consultation, and mental health evaluation. The agents are often required to maintain a professional license or certificate as part of their employment.

With a turnover rate ranging from 5% to 50% (Cleveland, 2005), it has become a leadership and managerial task to maintain a trained workforce that provides consistent and high quality work. The current study provided research data that reflect employees'

perceptions of leadership and job satisfaction. The conclusions of the research can be used as a blueprint to enhance organizational commitment and effectiveness as well as leadership training and executive coaching.

The statistical results of OLA in the study validated the reliability of the instrument in call centers. In previous studies, researchers primarily used OLA in religious or non-for-profit institutions. In this study, OLA was administered to employees in a for-profit and non-religion affiliate business operation. The findings support a broadened application of the OLA instrument.

Implication for Theory

The study in the call center industry provided additional reliable evidence on the servant leadership style and leaders' role in employees' perceptions of job satisfaction. Servant leadership is but one among several mainstream leadership styles such as transactional, transformational, inspiration leadership. Compared to the other styles, servant leadership is a relatively new concept for which there has been growing evidence and interest (Covey, 2002; Spears, 2002). Most of the current literature on servant leadership was focused on practical applications.

The primary goal of servant leaders is to serve (Greenleaf, 1998, 2002). Spears (1995a, 1995b, 2002) identified the following 10 characteristics of servant leaders: (a) listening, (b) empathy, (c) healing, (d) awareness, (e) persuasion, (f) conceptualization, (g) foresight, (h) stewardship, (i) commitment to the growth of people, and (j) building community. Based on an extensive literature review and a pilot study, Laub (1999) categorized servant leader behaviors into six dimensions that were (a) values people, (b) develops people, (c) builds community, (d) displays authenticity, (e) provides leadership, and

(f) share leadership. Ostrem (2006) further named five servant leader behaviors that were (a) altruistic calling, (b) emotional healing, (c) organizational stewardship, (d) persuasive mapping, and (e) wisdom.

To expand the application of servant leadership, Irving (2005) suggested that individual job satisfaction had a substantial moderating effect that led to successful outcomes such as team effectiveness and cohesiveness. Ostrem (2006) noted that servant leaders fostered trust, hope, sense of coherence, and engagement within organizations, leading to positive experiences between supervisors and employees. Ostrem noted that positive relationships between leaders and subordinates were a key determinant in organizational commitment. Servant leaders effectively and efficiently use resources to minimize exhaustion; they foster resilience and increase productivity (Ostrem, 2006)

Implication for Practice

The findings of the current study coincide with Hebert's conclusions (2003) on servant leadership and job satisfactions from the perspectives of followers. Hebert emphasized that followers appreciated being treated as human beings instead of machines or quota. The desire for appreciation was found to be particularly important in a call center setting.

As call centers are known to be operations in which managers predominately focus on efficiency and productivity. Little and Dean (2006) has been one of the most vocal critics of personnel management and of managers' subjection of employees to high level of stress. Little and Dean suggested that the managerial practice and human resources management had significant influences on employees' commitment to the organization and to the quality of services. The findings of the current research support a recommendation for managers of

call centers to produce a positive service climate that facilitates employees' perceptions that they are valued and a commitment to increasing the levels of job satisfaction.

One other significant implication of the study is the insight about job satisfaction among knowledge workers. While organizations might have limited resources to reward their knowledge employees through positional advancement or monetary incentives (i.e. extrinsic job satisfaction), the overall job satisfaction of knowledge workers seems to be focused on careers or professional growth (Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2004; Yeh, 2007). The interpretation of data on job satisfaction points to the need for a psychological contract between employees and organizations. Atkinson and Cuthbert (2006) advised that different groups of organizational employees had a different understanding of the nature of psychological contracts. The findings of the present study support a recommendation to managers that they adjust their managerial and leadership strategies to different groups of employees.

The literature showed that dissatisfaction often was the result of a breach or violation of the psychological contract (Conway & Briner, 2005). Breach of the psychological contract at work refers to "perceived discrepancies between what has been promised and what is delivered" (p. 64) and violations in which "the emotional reaction that may also be experienced when such discrepancies are perceived" (p. 64). It is critical that leaders detect and clarify differences between promises to employees and expectations and obligations of employees toward the organization and leaders. The findings of the present research suggest that leaders or managers at call centers must identify ways to facilitate positive career experiences and minimize breaches of psychological contracts. Because servant leadership emphasizes putting others' needs first and seeking to enable followers to "grow healthier,

wiser, freer, more autonomous" (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002, pp. 57-58), the servant leadership style has become a potential solution to low levels of knowledge workers' job satisfaction.

Significance of the Research to Leadership

Critics of servant leadership pointed out that the theory lacked academic and non-empirical support (Crippen, 2005; Eicher-Catt, 2005; Laub, 1999; Stone et al., 2004). Some scholars maintained that the servant leadership theory was impractical, idealistic, overly moralistic, and obscure (Bridges, 1996; Brumback, 1999; Quay, 1997, as cited in Anderson, 2005). In the current study, data for practical applications of servant leadership theories in the business world were collected. The positive relationship found between employees' perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction in a call center supported the conclusion that servant leadership is not only suitable for practical application in the religious based institutions, but also in the commercial, for-profit organizations. The research findings provide reliable evidence that helps close the gap between empirical and non-empirical studies and increase the validity of servant leadership theory.

Study Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The data produced in the study have limited generalization. Because the participation rate was low (24.8%), the results do not necessarily reflect the views of the entire organization, and the perceptions of the respondents do not necessarily generalize to all employees. Although the participating organization was a national service center, its specialized service and knowledge-intensive operation might distinguish this organization from other call centers that provide general services. The results cannot be generalized to all types and all locations of call centers. Further research is recommended to conduct similar studies in other non-knowledge intensive operation call centers in order to develop a broader

understanding of how demographic characteristics influence the correlation between employees' perceptions of servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Two major obstacles were encountered during the data collection process. The gatekeepers (i.e., general manager and HR director) established strict communication rules, and the collection of the signed, hard copies of consent forms presented some difficulties. Because of the reorganization of personnel, the general manager and the HR director were not the same persons who originally gave permission to conduct the research at the site. The study was the first academic research ever conducted in the company, and personnel were not experienced in handling research requests. While the new general manager and the HR director honored the previous agreement, they instituted strict communication rules that prohibited direct contacts with the entire population. Because of the company's HR confidentiality policy, the entire employee bank was not accessible for a systematic random sampling. Consequently, the general manager and HR director requested that the entire employee population be invited and given information about the research, including the informed consent form and the e-mail and phone number of the researcher.

All previously planned and arranged introductions and questions-and-answers sessions to have been held during different team meetings were cancelled, and all communication was carried out by e-mails. The change in sampling method appeared to create unforeseen delays in responses or suppress employees' willingness to participate. Those who participated in this study were either truly motivated or interested in the topic, or they may know this researcher through acquaintance or reputation. Further research in call center settings is recommended to address the organization's expectations in the early stage

of research design in order to incorporate the organization's input, address different perspectives, and minimize the interruptions in data collection process.

The second obstacle encountered was to collect the signed hard-copy participant consent forms. The study was originally designed to collect the informed consent forms electronically. The process was changed to collect the consent forms in hard copy format with ink signatures. .

In the course of data collection, gathering ink signatures from each participant noticeably slowed down the process. Being obligated to stay at the telephone throughout their shifts, the agents found it difficult to leave their desks and print the consent forms because the printers are centrally located in a secured room far from the frontline agents. After realizing the problem, the blank hard copies of the consent form were distributed to those who were interested. It is recommended that future researchers work with the academic oversight organization to clarify and identify acceptable ways, consistent with legal and ethical requirements of the profession, to allow participants' electronic signatures.

The call center agents usually work in a computerized environment. They have above average comfort levels working with computers and Internet. The high-speed Internet network and state-of-art computer equipment allowed the respondents to finish the surveys without delays or technical problems. Despite the agents' productivity being closely monitored, the web-based survey design seemed to encourage participation and completion of the questions. Online surveys are highly recommended.

Conclusion

Research indicated that high-quality leader-member partnering relationships led to lower employee turnover, more positive performance evaluation, more frequent promotions,

increased employee commitment, more positive job attitudes, more employee participation, more desirable work assignments, and the provision of more support and attention to followers (Stringer, 2006). The results of this study indicated that in the call center, servant leadership was positively correlated to individuals' job satisfaction. There were no significant statistical differences when controlling the factors of gender, seniority, and job position, but education level and licensure requirement did impact employees' perceptions of servant leadership principles and job satisfaction.

For executive leaders, the research study provides valuable information on overall organizational health. One common purpose of employee surveys is to focus on collecting descriptive statistics about organizations. The findings of the OLA instrument provided a macro picture of the organization's health that allowed the leaders to re-examine the power distribution and the psychological contracts between the organization and its people.

Some of the characteristics of limited organizational health such as negatively paternalistic organization (Laub, 1999, 2003b) included the following: (a) the organization is more an individualistic environment with little true team collaboration; (b) the leaders tend to be dominant and critical, and they expect conformity among subordinates; (c) most workers do not sense that they are valued, and they have minimal to moderate level of trust and trustworthiness to the management or the organization. In negatively paternalistic organizations, leaders spend significant time and energy dealing with internal personnel power struggles, and the organization can quickly lose its best and most creative workers. It is recommended that leaders put their efforts in nurturing optimal organizational health and in developing servant-minded organizations (Laub, 1999, 2003b) in which leaders put employees first. Leadership is not about leaders but about followers (Hebert, 2003).

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APPENDIX A: STUDY PARTICIPATION INFORMED CONSENT

Part I. E-mail Invitation

Dear (Volunteer/Colleague) _____:

I am a student at the University of Phoenix working on a doctoral degree in Organizational Leadership. I am conducting research entitled "*A Correlational Quantitative Study of Employee Perception of Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction in a Call Center.*" The purpose of the research study is to examine the employees' perception of leadership style and how it is related to their job satisfaction in a call center setting. Demographic data will be collected to serve as control variables. The research is anticipated to take four to six months to complete.

I would like to invite you to participate in this study. All participants must be 18 years or older to participate. It may take about 10-20 minutes to complete a Web-based survey.

Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, you can do so without any further obligation, penalty, or adversely affecting your relationship with me, your organization, or the University of Phoenix. All survey responses are anonymous and will be kept confidential. Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) is used to encrypt the survey and to transmit information privately over the Internet. The results of the research may be published but no individual's identity will be used or recognized. The data is collected through a third-party on-line survey host to ensure anonymity and confidentiality.

In participating in this research, there are no foreseeable risks to you. Although there may be no direct benefit to you, it has the capability to help your organization to discover how its leadership practices and beliefs impact upon the different ways in which people function within the organization. Your participation will also help to expand the body of knowledge of leadership theories, application and call center operation.

You may ask questions about the research study before agreeing to participate or during the study. Please feel free to contact me at (314) 276-5844, haiwen.chu@att.net or hwchu@email.uophx.edu. If you have questions concerning your right as a research subject that have not been answered by me or would like to report any concerns about this study, you may contact the University of Phoenix Institutional Review Board at (602) 387-2707 ext. 72707.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please complete and sign the attached consent form, and forward your signed consent in a sealed confidential envelop to "Hai-Wen Chu, MO-40." Once I receive your consent, I will e-mail you the website link and password to access the on-line survey. Please note that University of Phoenix Institutional Review Board requires *all* participants must provide a signed, hard-copy informed consent prior to completing the survey.

You may print a copy of this consent form to keep for your records or request a copy from me. You may also request to receive a copy of the study summary.

Thank you in advanced for your time and willingness to participate.

Sincerely,

Hai-Wen Chu

Part II. Informed Consent

(This is given out as a separated attachment for individuals to sign and return to the researcher)

Dear Participant,

Hai-Wen Chu, a doctoral student at the University of Phoenix and an independent researcher, has been granted permission by Magellan Health Services to conduct a research as part of the requirement to complete a doctoral dissertation. The purpose of the research study is to examine the employees' perception of leadership style and how it is related to their job satisfaction in a call center setting.

Participant:

I, _____, an employee of Magellan Health Services have volunteered to participate in this research study.

By signing this form I acknowledge that I understand the nature of the study, the potential risks to me as a participant, and the means by which my identity will be kept confidential. My signature on this form also indicates that I am 18 years old or older and that I give my permission to voluntarily serve as a participant in the study described.

There are no other agreements, written or verbal, related to this study beyond that expressed in this consent and confidentiality form.

Signature of the Participant: _____ Date _____

Signature of the Researcher: _____ Date _____

Part III. Participant's *Web-Based* Informed Consent Form

Study title: A Correlational Quantitative Study of Employee Perception of Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction in a Call Center.

Dear Participant:

I am a student at the University of Phoenix working on a doctoral degree in Organizational Leadership. This research is part of the requirement to complete a doctoral dissertation. The purpose of the research study is to examine the employees' perception of leadership style and how it is related to their job satisfaction in a call center setting. Demographic data will be collected to serve as control variables. The research is anticipated to take four to six months to complete.

All participants must be 18 years or older to participate. It may take about 10-20 minutes to complete the Web-based survey.

Your participation in this study is strictly voluntary. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, you can do so without any further obligation, penalty, or adversely affecting your relationship with me, your organization, or the University of Phoenix. All survey responses are anonymous and will be kept confidential. Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) is used to encrypt the survey and to transmit information privately over the Internet. The results of the research may be published but no individual identity will be used or recognized. The data is collected through a third-party on-line survey host to ensure anonymity and confidentiality.

In participating in this research, there are no foreseeable risks to you. Although there may be no direct benefit to you, it has the capability to help your organization to discover how its leadership practices and beliefs impact upon the different ways in which people function within the organization. Your participation will also help to expand the body of knowledge of leadership theories, application and call center operation.

You may ask questions concerning the research study before agreeing to participate or during the study. Please feel free to contact me at (314) 276-5844 or hwchu@email.uophx.edu or haiwen.chu@att.net. If you have questions concerning your right as a research subject that have not been answered by me or would like to report any concerns about this study, you may contact the University of Phoenix Institutional Review Board at (602) 387-2707 ext. 72707.

By selecting "I agree" below, you are verifying that you are 18 years or older, have read and understood the information presented and have agreed to participate in this study. You may print a copy of this consent form to keep for your records or request a copy from me. You may also request to receive a copy of the study summary.

Thank you in advanced for your time and willingness to participate.

Sincerely,

Hai-Wen Chu

APPENDIX B: ORGANIZATION LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT (OLA)



Organizational Leadership Assessment

4243 North Sherry Drive
Marion, IN 46952
OLA@OLAGroup.com
(765) 664-0174

General Instructions

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

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

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

IMPORTANT ... Please complete the following

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

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

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

- 1 = Top Leadership (top level of leadership)
- 2 = Management (supervisor, manager)
- 3 = Workforce (staff, member, worker)

Please provide your response to each statement by placing an X in one of the five boxes

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

Section 1

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

In general, people within this organization

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

© James Alan Laub, 1998

Please provide your response to each statement by placing an X in one of the five boxes

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

Section 2

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

Managers/Supervisors and Top Leadership in this Organization

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

Please provide your response to each statement by placing an X in one of the five boxes

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

Managers/Supervisors and Top Leadership in this Organization

	1	2	3	4	5
46 Build people up through encouragement and affirmation					
47 Encourage workers to work together rather than competing against each other					
48 Are humble - they do not promote themselves					
49 Communicate clear plans & goals for the organization					
50 Provide mentor relationships in order to help people grow professionally					
51 Are accountable & responsible to others					
52 Are receptive listeners					
53 Do not seek after special status or the “perks” of leadership					
54 Put the needs of the workers ahead of their own					

Section 3

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

In viewing my own role ...

	1	2	3	4	5
55 I feel appreciated by my supervisor for what I contribute					
56 I am working at a high level of productivity					
57 I am listened to by those above me in the organization					
58 I feel good about my contribution to the organization					
59 I receive encouragement and affirmation from those above me in the organization					
60 My job is important to the success of this organization					
61 I trust the leadership of this organization					
62 I enjoy working in this organization					
63 I am respected by those above me in the organization					
64 I am able to be creative in my job					
65 In this organization, a person's work is valued more than their title					
66 I am able to use my best gifts and abilities in my job					

APPENDIX C: MOHRMAN-COOKE-MOHRMAN JOB SATISFACTION SCALE
(MCMJSS)

Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS)

Indicate your level of satisfaction with various facets of your job by selecting one number on the six-point scale after each statement.

The scale ranges from 1 = low to 6 = high

Intrinsic Satisfaction		Low	1	2	3	4	5	6	High
1	The feeling of self-esteem or self-respect you get from being in your job.	1	2	3	4	5	6		
2	The opportunity for personal growth development in your job	1	2	3	4	5	6		
3	The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment in your job	1	2	3	4	5	6		
4	Your present job when you consider the expectations you had when you took the job	1	2	3	4	5	6		
Extrinsic Satisfaction		Low	1	2	3	4	5	6	High
5	The amount of respect and fair treatment your receive from your supervisors	1	2	3	4	5	6		
6	The feeling of being informed in your job	1	2	3	4	5	6		
7	The amount of supervision you receive	1	2	3	4	5	6		
8	The opportunity for participation in the determination of methods, procedures, and goals	1	2	3	4	5	6		

Developed by Allan M. Mohrman, Jr; Robert A. Cooke; and Susan Albers Mohrman (1977)

APPENDIX D: DEMOGRAPHIC SURVEY

Please fill out the Following Demographic Information:

Gender: ☐ 1. Female ☐ 2. Male

Seniority: ☐ 1. Less than one year ☐ 2. One to three years
☐ 3. Three to five years ☐ 4. Five to ten years
☐ 5. More than ten years

Does your job require a professional license or certificate? ☐ 1. Yes ☐ 2. No

Education Level: ☐ 1. High school diploma or GED ☐ 2. Associate Degree
☐ 3. Bachelor's Degree ☐ 4. Master's Degree
☐ 5. Doctorate Degree

Current Position (select one):

- ☐ 1. Customer Service Associate, Follow-up specialist and support
- ☐ 2. Clinician
- ☐ 3. Life Management
- ☐ 4. Operation (Appeals, Learning, Ops Hubs, Quality).
- ☐ 5. Information Technology
- ☐ 6. Other _____

APPENDIX E: PERMISSION TO USE THE INSTRUMENT

I. Permission to use Organization Leadership Assessment (OLA)

UNIVERSITY OF PHOENIX Permission to Use an existing survey

May 31, 2007

Ms. Hai-Wen Chu
5009 Glennon Drive
St. Louis, MO 63119

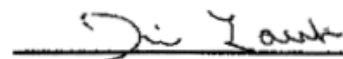
Thank you for your request for permission to use Organization Leadership Assessment (OLA) in your research study. We are willing to allow you to reproduce the instrument as outlined in your summarized methodology description with the following understanding:

- You will use the OLA in its entirety, as it is, without changes (sections of the OLA can not be taken out and used separately)
- You will use this survey only for your research study and will not sell or use it with any compensated management/curriculum development activities.
- You will include the copyright statement on all copies of the instrument.
- You will need to do the demographic questions and additional instruments separately from OLA on-line though you may be able to contain all of them together on the same website. It would be necessary that the OLA remains a distinct assessment.
- You will need to agree to place the OLA on this survey website temporarily, for the purpose of your study only and would agree to remove it completely from the website once the data is collected. You will need to provide me a link to the survey website so that I could see how it is being displayed.
- You will send your research study and one copy of reports, articles, and the like that make use of this survey data promptly to our attention.
- Allow me permission to use your research on our web-site

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by signing one copy of this letter and returning it to us.

Best wishes with your study.

Sincerely,



Jim Laub
OLAgrouop

I understand these conditions and agree to abide by these terms and conditions.

Signed  Date 5/31/07
Hai-Wen Chu

II. Permission to use Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS)

UNIVERSITY OF PHOENIX PERMISSION TO USE AN EXISTING SURVEY

May 30, 2007

Ms. Hai-Wen Chu
5009 Glennon Drive
St. Louis, MO 63119

Thank you for your request for permission to use Mohrman-Cooke-Mohrman Job Satisfaction Scale (MCMJSS) in your research study. We are willing to allow you to reproduce the instrument as outlined in your letter at no charge with the following understanding:

- You will use this survey only for your research study and will not sell or use it with any compensated management/curriculum development activities.
- You will include the copyright statement on all copies of the instrument.
- You will send your research study and one copy of reports, articles, and the like that make use of this survey data promptly to our attention.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by signing one copy of this letter and returning it to us.

Best wishes with your study.

Sincerely,



Signature

Susan A. Mohrman
Senior Research Scientist
Center for Effective Organizations
University of Southern California

I understand these conditions and agree to abide by these terms and conditions.

Signed 

Date 6/1/07
JUNE 1, 2007

APPENDIX F: PERMISSION TO USE PREMISES

University of Phoenix

**INFORMED CONSENT: PERMISSION TO USE PREMISES, NAME,
AND/OR SUBJECTS**

Magellan Health Services

(Name of Facility, Organization, University, Institution, or Association)

I, hereby authorize Hai-Wen Chu, student of the University of Phoenix, to use the premises, name, and or/subjects requested to conduct a study (as outlined in her proposal sent to me via e-mail on May 10, 2007) entitled "A Correlational Quantitative Study of Employee Perception of Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction in a Call Center."

David M. Wadell

Signature

5/17/2007
11

Date

General Manager

Title

Magellan Health Services: Midwest Care Management
Center

Name of Facility

APPENDIX G: BREAKDOWN OF THE ORGANIZATION LEADERSHIP ASSESSMENT
(OLA)

Values People	
1	Trust each other
4	Respect each other
9	Are caring & compassionate toward each other
15	Are aware of the needs of others
19	Accept people as they are
52	Are receptive listeners
54	Put the needs of the workers ahead of their own
55	I feel appreciated by my supervisor for what I contribute
57	I am listened to by those above me in the organization
63	I am respected by those above me in the organization
Develops People	
20	View conflict as an opportunity to learn & grow
31	Create an environment that encourages learning
37	Practice the same behavior they expect from others
40	Lead by example by modeling appropriate behavior
42	Provide opportunities for all workers to develop to their full potential
44	Use their power and authority to benefit the workers
46	Build people up through encouragement and affirmation
50	Provide mentor relationships in order to help people grow professionally
59	I receive encouragement and affirmation from those above me in the organization
Builds Community	
7	Work well together in teams
8	Value differences in culture, race & ethnicity
12	Relate well to each other
13	Attempt to work with others more than working on their own
16	Allow for individuality of style and expression
18	Work to maintain positive working relationships
21	Know how to get along with people
25	Work alongside the workers instead of separate from them
38	Facilitate the building of community & team
47	Encourage workers to work together rather than competing against each other

Displays Authenticity	
3	Are nonjudgmental – they keep an open mind
6	Maintain high ethical standards
10	Demonstrate high integrity & honesty
11	Are trustworthy
23	Are open to learning from those who are below them in the organization
28	Promote open communication and sharing of information
32	Are open to receiving criticism & challenge from others
33	Say what they mean, and mean what they say
35	Admit personal limitations & mistakes
43	Honestly evaluate themselves before seeking to evaluate others
51	Are accountable & responsible to others
61	I trust the leadership of this organization
Provides Leadership	
2	Are clear on the key goals of the organization
5	Know where this organization is headed in the future
14	Are held accountable for reaching work goals
22	Communicate a clear vision of the future of the organization
27	Don't hesitate to provide the leadership that is needed
30	Provide the support and resources needed to help workers meet their goals
36	Encourage people to take risks even if they may fail
45	Take appropriate action when it is needed
49	Communicate clear plans & goals for the organization
Shares Leadership	
17	Are encouraged by supervisors to share in making important decisions
24	Allow workers to help determine where this organization is headed
26	Use persuasion to influence others instead of coercion or force
29	Give workers the power to make important decisions
34	Encourage each person to exercise leadership
39	Do not demand special recognition for being leaders
41	Seek to influence others from a positive relationship rather than from the authority of their position
48	Are humble – they do not promote themselves
53	Do not seek after special status or the “perks” of leadership
65	In this organization, a person's work is valued more than their title
Job Satisfaction	
56	I am working at a high level of productivity
58	I feel good about my contribution to the organization
60	My job is important to the success of this organization
62	I enjoy working in this organization
64	I am able to be creative in my job
66	I am able to use my best gifts and abilities in my job

APPENDIX H: LAUB'S SIX ORGANIZATIONAL LEVELS

Six Organizational Health Level Descriptions

Servant Leadership	Org ⁶	Optimal Health	Workers experience this organization as a servant-minded organization characterized by authenticity, the valuing and developing of people, the building of community and the providing and sharing of positive leadership. These characteristics are evident throughout the entire organization. People are trusted and are trustworthy throughout the organization. They are motivated to serve the interests of each other before their own self-interest and are open to learning from each other. Leaders and workers view each other as partners working in a spirit of collaboration.
	Org ⁵	Excellent Health	Workers experience this organization as a servant-oriented organization characterized by authenticity, the valuing and developing of people, the building of community and the providing and sharing of positive leadership. These characteristics are evident throughout much of the organization. People are trusted and are trustworthy. They are motivated to serve the interests of each other before their own self-interest and are open to learning from each other. Leaders and workers view each other as partners working in a spirit of collaboration.
Paternalistic Leadership	Org ⁴	Moderate Health	Workers experience this organization as a positively paternalistic (parental-led) organization characterized by a moderate level of trust and trustworthiness along with occasional uncertainty and fear. Creativity is encouraged as long as it doesn't move the organization too far beyond the status quo. Risks can be taken, but failure is sometimes feared. Goals are mostly clear, though the overall direction of the organization is sometimes confused. Leaders often take the role of nurturing parent while workers assume the role of the cared-for child.
	Org ³	Limited Health	Workers experience this organization as a negatively paternalistic (parental-led) organization characterized by minimal to moderate levels of trust and trustworthiness along with an underlying uncertainty and fear. People feel that they must prove themselves and that they are only as good as their last performance. Workers are sometimes listened to but only when they speak in line with the values and priorities of the leaders. Conformity is expected while individual expression is discouraged. Leaders often take the role of critical parent while workers assume the role of the cautious child.
Autocratic Leadership	Org ²	Poor Health	Workers experience this organization as an autocratic-led organization characterized by low levels of trust and trustworthiness and high levels of uncertainty and fear. People lack motivation to serve the organization because they do not feel that it is <i>their</i> organization or <i>their</i> goals. Leadership is autocratic in style and is imposed from the top levels of the organization. It is an environment where risks are seldom taken, failure is often punished and creativity is discouraged. Most workers do not feel valued and often feel <i>used</i> by those in leadership. Change is needed but is very difficult to achieve.
	Org ¹	Toxic	Workers experience this organization as a dangerous place to work ... a place characterized by dishonesty and a deep lack of integrity among its workers and leaders. Workers are devalued, <i>used</i> and sometimes <i>abused</i> . Positive leadership is missing at all levels and power is used in ways that are harmful to workers and the mission of the organization. There is almost no trust and an extremely high level of fear. This organization will find it nearly impossible to locate, develop and maintain healthy workers who can assist in producing positive organizational change.



Description

Optimal Organizational Health

*When an organization reaches this level, it operates with **Optimal Organizational Health** in terms of its workers, leadership and organizational culture, and it exhibits these characteristics to a very high level throughout all levels of operation.*

The Workers: *Motivation, morale, attitude & commitment, listening, relationships vs. tasks*

All workers are valued here, for who they are as well as for what they contribute to the organization. They are believed in and are encouraged to develop to their full potential as workers and as individuals. All leaders and workers listen receptively to one another and are involved together in many of the important decisions of the organization. Relationships are strong and healthy and diversity is valued and celebrated.

The Leadership: *Power, decision making, goals & direction*

People provide dynamic and effective leadership at all levels of the organization. Power and leadership are shared so that all workers are empowered to contribute to important decisions, including the direction that the organization is taking. Appropriate action is taken, goals are clear and vision is shared throughout the entire organization.

The Team: *Community, collaboration and team learning*

An extremely high level of community characterizes this positive work environment. People work together well in teams and choose collaborative work over competition against one another.

The Culture: *Authenticity, integrity, accountability, creativity, trust, service, communication*

This is an environment characterized by the authenticity of its workers, supervisors and executive leaders. People are very open and accountable to others. They operate with complete honesty and integrity. This is a “people first” environment where risks are taken, failure is learned from and creativity is encouraged and rewarded. People throughout the entire organization are highly trusted and are highly trustworthy. Fear does not exist as a motivation. People are highly motivated to serve the interests of each other before their own self-interest and are open to learning from each other. This is an environment that is characterized by open and effective communication throughout the organization.

The Outlook: *Type of workers attracted, action needed*

This is a servant-minded organization throughout, which will continue to attract the very best and most motivated workers who can welcome positive change and continuous improvement. It is a place where energy and motivation are continually renewed to provide for the challenges of the future. The outlook is extremely positive. Ongoing attention should be given to building new strengths and continuing to maintain and develop as an optimally healthy organization.



Description

Excellent Organizational Health

This organization is now operating with Excellent Organizational Health in terms of its workers, leadership and organizational culture and it exhibits these characteristics throughout most levels of operation.

The Workers: *Motivation, morale, attitude & commitment, listening, relationships vs. tasks*

Most workers feel valued here, for who they are as well as for what they contribute to the organization. They are believed in and are encouraged to develop to their full potential as workers and as individuals. Most leaders and workers listen receptively to one another and are involved together in some of the important decisions of the organization. Most relationships are strong and healthy and diversity is valued and celebrated.

The Leadership: *Power, decision making, goals & direction*

People are encouraged to provide leadership at all levels of the organization. Power and leadership are shared so that most workers are empowered to contribute to important decisions, including the direction that the organization is taking. Appropriate action is taken, goals are clear and vision is shared throughout most of the organization.

The Team: *Community, collaboration and team learning*

A high level of community characterizes this positive work environment. People work together well in teams and prefer collaborative work over competition against one another.

The Culture: *Authenticity, integrity, accountability, creativity, trust, service, communication*

This is an environment mostly characterized by the authenticity of its workers, supervisors and senior leaders. People are open and accountable to others. They operate with honesty and integrity. This is a “people first” environment where risks are encouraged, failure can be learned from and creativity is encouraged and rewarded. People are trusted and are trustworthy throughout the organization. Fear is not used as a motivation. People are motivated to serve the interests of each other before their own self-interest and are open to learning from each other. This is an environment that is characterized by open and effective communication.

The Outlook: *Type of workers attracted, action needed*

This is a servant-oriented organization, which will continue to attract some of the best and most motivated workers who can welcome positive change and continuous improvement. It is a place where energy and motivation are continually renewed to provide for the challenges of the future. The outlook is very positive. Ongoing attention should be given to building on existing strengths and continuing to learn and develop toward an optimally healthy organization.



Description

Moderate Organizational Health

This organization is now operating with Moderate Organizational Health in terms of its workers, leadership and organizational culture and it exhibits these characteristics throughout most levels of operation.

The Workers: *Motivation, morale, attitude & commitment, listening, relationships vs. tasks*

The Leadership: *Power, decision-making, goals & direction*

Leadership is positively paternalistic in style and mostly comes from the top levels of the organization. Leaders often take the role of nurturing parent while workers assume the role of the cared-for child. Power is delegated for specific tasks and for specific positions within the organization. Workers are encouraged to share ideas for improving the organization. Goals are mostly clear though the overall direction of the organization is sometimes confused.

The Team: *Community, collaboration and team learning*

Some level of cooperative work exists, and some true collaboration. Teams are utilized but often compete against one another when resources are scarce.

The Culture: *Authenticity, integrity, accountability, creativity, trust, service, communication*

Workers are sometimes unsure of where they stand and how open they can be with one another and especially with those in leadership over them. This is an environment where some risks can be taken but failure is sometimes feared. Creativity is encouraged as long as it doesn't move the organization too much beyond the status quo. There is a moderate level of trust and trustworthiness along with occasional uncertainty and fear. People feel trusted but know that trust can be lost very easily. People are motivated to serve the organization because it is their job to do so and they are committed to doing good work. This is an environment characterized by openness between select groups of people.

The Outlook: *Type of workers attracted, action needed*

This is a positively paternalistic organization that will attract good motivated workers but may find that the "best and brightest" will seek professional challenges elsewhere. Change here is ongoing but often forced by outside circumstances. Improvement is desired but difficult to maintain over time. The outlook for this organization is positive. Decisions need to be made to move toward more healthy organizational life. This organization is in a good position to move toward optimal health in the future.



Description

Limited Organizational Health

This organization is now operating with Limited Organizational Health in terms of its workers, leadership and organizational culture, and it exhibits these characteristics throughout most levels of operation.

The Workers: *Motivation, morale, attitude & commitment, listening, relationships vs. tasks*

Most workers sense they are valued more for what they can contribute than for who they are. When they receive training in this organization it is primarily to increase their performance and their value to the company not to develop personally. Workers are sometimes listened to but only when they speak in line with the values and priorities of the leaders. Their ideas are sometimes sought but seldom used, while the important decisions remain at the top levels of the organization. Relationships tend to be functional and the organizational tasks almost always come first. Conformity is expected while individual expression is discouraged.

The Leadership: *Power, decision making, goals & direction*

Leadership is negatively paternalistic in style and is focused at the top levels of the organization. Leaders often take the role of critical parent while workers assume the role of the cautious child. Power is delegated for specific tasks and for specific positions within the organization. Workers provide some decision making when it is appropriate to their position. Goals are sometimes unclear and the overall direction of the organization is often confused.

The Team: *Community, collaboration and team learning*

This is mostly an individualistic environment. Some level of cooperative work exists, but little true collaboration. Teams are utilized but often are characterized by an unproductive competitive spirit.

The Culture: *Authenticity, integrity, accountability, creativity, trust, service, communication*

Workers are unsure of where they stand and how open they can be with one another, and especially with those in leadership over them. This is an environment where limited risks are taken, failure is not allowed and creativity is encouraged only when it fits within the organization's existing guidelines. There is a minimal to moderate level of trust and trustworthiness along with an underlying uncertainty and fear. People feel that they must prove themselves and that they are only as good as their last performance. People are sometimes motivated to serve the organization but are not sure that the organization is committed to them. This is an environment that is characterized by a guarded, cautious openness.

The Outlook: *Type of workers attracted, action needed*

This is a negatively paternalistic organization that tends to foster worker compliance. The best and most creative workers may look elsewhere. Change here is long term and incremental and improvement is desired but difficult to achieve. The outlook for this organization is uncertain. Decisions need to be made to move toward more healthy organizational life. In times of organizational stress there will be a tendency to move toward a more autocratic organizational environment.



Description

Poor Organizational Health

This organization is now operating with Poor Organizational Health in terms of its workers, leadership and organizational culture and it exhibits these characteristics throughout most levels of operation.

The Workers: *Motivation, morale, attitude & commitment, listening, relationships vs. tasks*

Most workers do not feel valued or believed in here. They often feel used and do not feel that they have the opportunity of being developed either personally or professionally. Workers are rarely listened to and only when they speak in line with the values and priorities of the leaders. Their ideas are rarely sought and almost never used. Most decisions are made at the top levels of the organization. Relationships are not encouraged and the tasks of the organization come before people. Diversity is not valued or appreciated.

The Leadership: *Power, decision making, goals & direction*

Leadership is autocratic in style and is imposed from the top levels of the organization. Power is held at the highest positions only and is used to force compliance with the leader's wishes. Workers do not feel empowered to create change. Goals are often unclear and the overall direction of the organization is confused.

The Team: *Community, collaboration and team learning*

This is a highly individualistic and competitive environment. Almost no collaboration exists. Teams are sometimes utilized but often are put in competition with each other in order to motivate performance.

The Culture: *Authenticity, integrity, accountability, creativity, trust, service, communication*

This is an environment often characterized by lack of honesty and integrity among its workers, supervisors and senior leaders. It is an environment where risks are seldom taken, failure is often punished and creativity is discouraged. There is a very low level of trust and trustworthiness along with a high level of uncertainty and fear. Leaders do not trust the workers and the workers view the leaders as untrustworthy. People lack motivation to serve the organization because they do not feel that it is their organization or their goals. This is an environment that is characterized by closed communication.

The Outlook: *Type of workers attracted, action needed*

This is an autocratic organization, which will find it very difficult to find, develop and maintain healthy productive workers. Change is needed but very difficult to achieve. The outlook is not positive for this organization. Serious measures must be instituted in order for this organization to establish the necessary improvements to move toward positive organizational health.



Description

Toxic Organizational Health

This organization is now operating with Toxic Organizational Health in terms of its workers, leadership and organizational culture and it exhibits these characteristics throughout most levels of operation

The Workers: *Motivation, morale, attitude & commitment, listening, relationships vs. tasks*
Workers are devalued here. They are not believed in and in turn do not believe in one another. Workers are used and even abused in this work setting. There is no opportunity for personal development. Workers are not listened to. Their ideas are never sought or considered. All decisions are made at the top levels of the organization. Relationships are dysfunctional and people are only valued for conformity to the dominant culture. Diversity is seen as a threat and differences are cause for suspicion.

The Leadership: *Power, decision making, goals & direction*
True leadership is missing at all levels of the organization. Power is used by leaders in ways that are harmful to workers and to the organization's mission. Workers do not have the power to act to initiate change. Goals are unclear and people do not know where the organization is going.

The Team: *Community, collaboration and team learning*
People are out for themselves and a highly political climate exists. People are manipulated and pitted against each other in order to motivate performance. Focus is placed on punishing non-performers.

The Culture: *Authenticity, integrity, accountability, creativity, trust, service, communication*
This is an environment characterized by dishonesty and a deep lack of integrity among its workers, supervisors and senior leaders. It is an environment where failure is punished, creativity is stifled and risks are never taken. People are suspicious of each other and feel manipulated and used. There is almost no trust level and an extremely high level of fear because people, especially the leadership, are seen as untrustworthy. At all levels of the organization, people serve their own self-interest before the interest of others. This is an environment that is characterized by totally closed communication.

The Outlook: *Type of workers attracted, action needed*
This is an organization in name only that will find it impossible to find, develop and maintain healthy productive workers who can navigate the changes necessary to improve. The outlook for this organization is doubtful. Extreme measures must be instituted in order for this organization to establish the necessary health to survive.