EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EXECUTIVE SERVANT LEADERSHIP

AND JOB SATISFACTION AMONG EMPLOYEES OF HUMAN SERVICE NONPROFIT

ORGANIZATIONS IN SOUTHWEST VIRGINIA

by

Carson Dane Ward

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Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Business Administration

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Liberty University, School of Business

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to determine if there is a relationship between executive servant leadership and job satisfaction in human service nonprofit organizations in southwest Virginia. The problem to be addressed was the leadership deficit in nonprofit organizations and the ability of nonprofit leaders to motivate employees to perform. This study was significant because the leadership is a critical success factor for nonprofit organizations, however, the nonprofit sector is confronting a situation of leadership deficit. There is limited research on effective leadership strategies for nonprofit organizations. This study serves as new research for effective leadership practices and their relationship to employee motivation for nonprofit organizations. The researcher applied a self-reporting questionnaire framework to measure the independent and dependent variables. The Job Satisfaction Survey was used to measure the dependent variable of employee job satisfaction and the Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment was used to measure the independent variable of servant leadership present in an organization. A random sample of 83 full time employees of human service nonprofit organizations in southwest Virginia participated in the study. The results of this study found a moderate-strong positive statistically significant relationship between servant leadership present in an organization and employee job satisfaction. The results of this study contribute to nonprofit leadership practices as the results indicate servant leadership does lead to increased employee job satisfaction and nonprofit leaders should seek to understand how implementing servant leadership practices into their own leadership will benefit their employees. Biblically, just as man is created with a purpose to serve others through Jesus Christ, business leaders also exist with a purpose to serve.

Keywords: servant leadership, motivation, nonprofit, human service, job satisfaction

Dedication

I dedicate this to my mother, Mattie, and my three wonderful children, Brock, Luke, and Leia. Each of you motivate me to succeed in different ways and I am thankful for you all so very much.

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I would like to thank Dr. Scott Quatro for serving as the Chair for my dissertation committee and the time he took to read and re-read and offer suggestions to strengthen my dissertation. I thank Dr. Christopher McChesney and Dr. Edward Moore for their work as part of my committee and their support and feedback in helping me complete this dissertation. I also thank Liberty University and all those at the College of Business who helped me along the way and provided me with the opportunity.

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Finally, I would like to thank Jesus Christ, my lord and savior, for guiding me through this dissertation for "I can do all things through Christ who strengthens me" (Phillipians 4:13)

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Background of the Problem

Organizations striving to maintain or increase their economic competitiveness must retain engaged employees, especially nonprofit organizations that operate with a finite amount of resources (Watts, 2017). The ability for nonprofit organizations to maintain an engaged and productive workforce can be the difference between success and extinction. Low employee engagement leads to a deterioration of organizational productivity and employee turnover (Johnson, 2014).

Research has suggested that transformational leaders influence the engagement of employees (Popli & Rizvi, 2015) along with his or her intention to quit (Tse, Huang, & Lam, 2013). While there is previous research supporting a relationship between leadership style and job satisfaction, research is limited that targets nonprofit human service organizations in Virginia and executive servant leadership with a goal of determining the level of job satisfaction with the level of servant leadership of his or her manager.

Problem Statement

The general problem to be addressed is the leadership deficit in nonprofit organizations and the ability of nonprofit leaders to motivate employees to perform. Nonprofit leaders' ability to consistently achieve strong results depends more on the quality of their people than on any other single variable (Tierney, 2006). Yet, today nonprofit organizations struggle to attract and retain the talented senior executives they need to fulfill their missions and over the coming decade, this leadership challenge will only become more acute (Tierney, 2006). The specific problem to be addressed is that job satisfaction at human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia is low when compared with for profit organizations. High performance work

practices, including onboarding, leadership development, compensation, and employee relations, are associated with lower voluntary turnover (Selden & Sowa, 2015). Selden and Sowa (2015) validated in their study that there is a relationship between leadership development and turnover in human service nonprofit organizations. It does not expand on what specific leadership characteristics and styles are present and how these relate to retaining employees. In their study on nonprofit volunteers, Sefora and Mihaela (2016) found that trust in organizational leadership is important in long term volunteer and staff involvement. Negative experiences with supervisors and boards of directors have been found as leading to low satisfaction, low commitment, and turnover.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study is to determine if there is a relationship between executive servant leadership and job satisfaction in human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. The nonprofit sector plays a large role in improving the quality of life for low-income individuals in many communities (Smalley, 2011) and is often an organization delivering government services. The nonprofit sector faces many challenges such as fluctuation in economic resources, maintaining a strong image in the community, and the constant threat of legislation that may threaten its well-being. Nonprofit leaders must be able to efficiently strategize, control, and motivate their organizations to be able to overcome these challenges. The Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment Instrument (SOLA; Laub, 1999) was used to determine the independent variable of executive servant leadership traits that are present in managers at these organizations. The research focused on 501(c)(3) nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia and used a Job Satisfaction Survey (Specter, 1985) to collect

information on the dependent variable of employee job satisfaction from employees at these organizations.

Nature of the Study

The nature of the study is driven by the research question (Larkin, Begley, & Devane, 2014). Qualitative methods use a systematic subjective approach to describe experiences and give them meaning with a goal of gaining insight, exploring depth, richness, and complexity in the phenomenon. Qualitative studies use a formal, objective, systematic process to obtain information about the world (Creswell, 2014). A qualitative method can help assist the researcher in determining causes of employee job satisfaction, as a qualitative method involves multiple sources of data including interviews, observations, documents, and audio/visual information (Creswell, 2014). Determining the cause of employee job satisfaction was outside the scope of this study. A mixed-methods study involves the collection, interpretation, and merging of both qualitative and quantitative data (Creswell, 2014). Quantitative methods are used to describe, test relationships, and examine the cause and effect of relationships (Creswell, 2014). The researcher selected a quantitative method for this study because quantitative analysis allows the researcher to observe the world using structured instruments, such as the SOLA and Job Satisfaction Survey to produce quantitative data that represents various behaviors, attitudes, or characteristics (Remler & Ryzin, 2011). Quantitative methods can be descriptive, correlational, experimental, or causal-comparative/quasi-experimental (Creswell, 2014).

A descriptive design has a foundation based on no manipulation of the independent variable, no random assignment of groups but it may include a control group (Cantrell, 2011). The researcher designed this study to examine the effects of executive servant leadership on

employee job satisfaction for employees of human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. Given there was no need for a control group, the descriptive design was rejected.

According to Charness, Gneezy, and Kuhn (2012), the experimental design searches for causality and involves the researcher observing the participants' behavior in an abstract, controlled environment. The experimental design was rejected because the study was not designed to observe participants or find causal factors related to employee job satisfaction.

The quasi-experimental/causal-comparative design is utilized to evaluate the effects of causal treatment. This type of study is further characterized by random assignment of the factors being studied, often leaving the researcher with limited control (Kim & Steiner, 2016). The quasi-experimental/causal-comparative design was rejected because the researcher had control over the SOLA and Job Satisfaction Survey instruments, the factors being studied were not random, and the study did not seek to find a causal relationship.

A correlational research design is a type of organizational study that analyzes data from a population at a specific point in time (Dorgham & Al-Mahmoud, 2013). This project was a correlational research designed to determine the relationship of executive servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in nonprofit human service organizations in Southwest Virginia. This quantitative study described relationships between variables and provide support for or against a theoretical framework (Brink & Wood, 1998). Self-reporting questionnaires were used to assess independent and dependent variables (Portney & Watkins, 2000). The independent variable in this project was the level of executive servant leadership. The dependent variable was employee job satisfaction. The SOLA (Laub, 1999) used to assess servant leadership levels in an organization and the Job Satisfaction Survey (Specter, 1985) was used to assess employee job satisfaction.

Discussion of method. A quantitative study was chosen for this project as this project is seeking to determine a relationship by using scientific procedures. Quantitative studies make it possible for conclusions to be drawn with a specific level of probability (Davies & Hughes, 2014). The researcher selected a quantitative method for this study because quantitative analysis allows the researcher to observe the world using structured instruments, such as the SOLA and Job Satisfaction Survey to produce quantitative data that represents various behaviors, attitudes, or characteristics (Remler & Ryzin, 2011).

Discussion of design. The researcher selected the correlational design because it produced numerical descriptions about the population studied, collected information by asking questions, and collected a sample as opposed to collecting data from the entire population (Fowler, 2014). Alternative quantitative study designs were considered but deemed unacceptable for the purposes of this study. These rejected designs included the descriptive design, experimental design, and the quasi-experimental/causal-comparative design. A correlational research design was chosen as it is a type of organizational study that analyzes data from a population at a specific point in time (Dorgham & Al-Mahmoud, 2013). The SOLA and Job Satisfaction Survey were chosen as instruments to survey participants due to their ease of use and history of reliable and valid results in similarly structured research projects.

Summary of the nature of the study. This quantitative correlational study described relationships between variables and provide support for or against a theoretical framework (Brink & Wood, 1998) by using quantitative scientific procedures. The independent variable of executive servant leadership was collected using the SOLA. The dependent variable of employee job satisfaction was collected using a Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985). The chosen method and design of this study enabled conclusions to be drawn with a level of

probability of the relationship between leadership style and employee job satisfaction in nonprofit human service organizations in Southwest Virginia

Research Questions

This project explored executive servant leadership in nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia and how this leadership style has a relationship with employee job satisfaction. Employees were given an anonymous Job Satisfaction Survey to determine how satisfied they were with their job and how likely they were to quit. They were given the SOLA survey to determine the level of servant leadership present in their organization. A specific researchable question for this project was:

Does executive servant leadership have a statistically significant relationship with employee job satisfaction?

Hypotheses

- $H1_0$: There is no statistically significant relationship between servant leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

- $H1_A$: There is a statistically significant relationship between servant leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

Theoretical Framework

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to examine the relationship between servant leadership on employee job satisfaction at nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. Servant leadership style was reviewed and analyzed and how this leadership style relates with employee motivational factors. Human resource management or strategic human resource management, largely bases its outcomes on the attributes of individuals or attributes of the job itself (Hollenbeck & Jamieson, 2015) and was also a central

theoretical concept of this study. The independent variable of executive servant leadership and how this affects employee motivational levels were involved in this study and to what extent this relates to job satisfaction (Lok & Crawford, 2004). Literature review on motivational theories (Herzberg, 1968) such as Hygiene Theory, Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, McClelland's Achievement and Higher Needs Theory, and research on needs based assessments at the time of recruitment were part of this study.

Servant leadership. Greenleaf (1977) suggested that leaders could legitimize their power through individual service (Spears, 1996). It was his belief that through this desire to serve, leaders could help build a serving society. The concept of servant leadership was born and there has been building academic interest and research on servant leadership and how it can help benefit an organization. Individuals are all born to be self-serving leaders rather than servant leaders (Blanchard & Hodges, 2003) and the need to be recognized (Fischer, 2016).

Servant leadership is made up of six traits (Van Direndock, 2011). These six traits are: empowering and developing people, expressing humility, authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, stewardship, and providing direction. Organizations going through change can benefit from applying servant leadership practices by organizational leaders practicing servant leadership to prepare their followers for change and guide them through the change process (Baldomir & Hood, 2016). Servant leadership has also been found to be a strong predictor of employee autonomy, competence, and relatedness needs (Chiniara & Bentein, 2016).

Discussion of relationships between theories and variables. This study aimed to prove if there is a relationship between servant leadership style and employee job satisfaction in nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. Other leadership theories, such as transformational leadership theory and transactional leadership theory, suggest that leaders can

influence the work of their employees by providing meaning to the work being done (Purvanova, Bono, & Dzieweczynski, 2006), which increases job satisfaction (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2008).

Summary of the conceptual framework. Much research has come to the conclusion that transformational leadership is more closely related to employee job satisfaction than other leadership styles, however, not all research has come to this conclusion (Burns, 2007). There have been studies that have shown that employee job satisfaction might possibly be more closely related to transformational leadership than it is to transactional leadership (Chen & Baron, 2006), however, there is no demonstration that transformational leadership is any more correlated with employee job satisfaction than transactional or servant leadership (Burns, 2007). There is no evidence of any studies examining leadership style and employee job satisfaction in nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia.

Definition of Terms

Descriptive cross sectional research design: A type of organizational study that analyzes data from a population at a specific point in time (Dorgham & Al-Mahmoud, 2013).

Executive leadership: Executive leadership is those who manage, direct, influence, and guide employees in an organization. Those leading executive leadership processes typically oversee such business activities as fulfilling organizational goals, strategic planning development and overall decision making (Rens & Herman, 2016).

Framework: The structure that can hold or support a theory of a research study. The theoretical framework introduces and describes the theory that explains why the research problem under study exists.

Job Satisfaction: The structure that can hold or support a theory of a research study. The theoretical framework introduces and describes the theory that explains why the research problem under study exists (Locke, 1976).

Leadership style: Leadership style is a typical pattern of behavior that a leader uses to influence employees to achieve organizational goals.

Motivation: Psychological forces that determine an employee's level of effort and persistence in the face of obstacles (SHRM, 2010).

Nonprofit organization: An organization dedicated to furthering a particular social cause exempt from federal income tax (Anheier, 2005).

Quantitative study: A study concerned with collecting and analyzing data that is structured and able to be represented numerically (Goertzen, 2017).

Servant leadership: A leadership model servant characterized by a desire from leaders to motivate, guide, offer hope, and provide a caring experience by establishing a quality relationship with the followers and subordinates (Choudhary, Akhtar, & Zaheer, 2013).

Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment Instrument (SOLA): A survey instrument designed to address the questions (Lamb, 1999):

1) Do people sense that they are served well within their organizations?

2) Do your leaders exhibit the characteristics of servant leadership?

3) Can the information be useful in training people to develop into leaders who exhibit the characteristics of servant leadership?

Statistically significant relationship: The likelihood that a relationship between two or more variables is caused by something other than random chance (Gallo, 2016). When a finding is statistically significant, there is confidence that it is real rather than due to luck.

Transactional leadership: A leadership model characterized by the leader focusing on contingent reward, management by active and passive exception (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Contingent reward is the degree to which the leader sets up constructive transactions or exchanges with followers: The leader clarifies expectations and establishes the rewards for meeting these expectations (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Transformational leadership: A leadership model characterized by leaders who help followers grow and develop into leaders by responding to the followers' needs by empowering them and by aligning the objectives and goals of the individual followers, the leader, the group, and the larger organization (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The four dimensions of transformational leadership are charisma or idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

Assumptions. An assumption of the study was that there is a large number of individuals willing to respond and reflect on the leadership style of their executives as it relates to the level of their personal motivation. It was assumed that a large enough sample would participate in this study. It was also assumed that their responses regarding the leadership style of their executives and their level of personal motivation are honest answers so as to provide valid data.

It was assumed that the selected research instruments were reliable and valid tools. This study also assumed that servant leadership style was represented in the sample. It was assumed that leaders and employees had been in their positions for a long enough time to accurately assess the leadership in the organization and their own motivation levels. Finally, it was assumed that participants had an opinion of their leaders along with knowledge of motivation.

Limitations/Delimitations. The study was restricted to the analysis of nonprofit employees working in Southwest Virginia. The study represented a small population of the

nonprofit workforce in Virginia and is related to the number of returned surveys. The number of completed and returned surveys was a limitation of this study. The type of nonprofit organization was not included as an independent variable in this study. Differences between the specific types of nonprofit (i.e., human service, arts, education, etc.) in Southwest Virginia and the effect of leadership styles and employee motivation may be an implication for future research.

Significance of the Study

The nonprofit sector plays a vital role in the quality of life in any community (Smalley, 2011). The sector has faced many challenges such as economic fluctuations, image in the community, and legislative policies that threatened the well-being of organizations. It is therefore necessary for nonprofit leaders to enable their organizations to overcome these challenges and important to understand successful leadership characteristics and practices of organizations that achieve a high-level of performance and have the ability to overcome threats to their success (Smalley, 2011). A study by Spector (1985) used a Job Satisfaction Survey to measure employee job satisfaction specifically in human service and nonprofit sector organizations. The study found a strong relationship between job perceptions, the supervisor, and employee's intentions of quitting. Modest correlations were also found with employee absenteeism and turnover. The average turnover rate for 300 nonprofits participating in a survey reported by Schipp (2014) was 16%, with a staggering 35% rate coming from arts, culture, and humanities organizations. Additionally, 60% of nonprofits participating in the study identified staff turnover as an organizational problem. Organizational change is orchestrated and put in action by the leadership at all levels of the organization and the goals

of this research will provide organizations with information on the type of leadership that is needed to help reduce turnover levels.

Reduction of gaps. The significance of management control has been argued by some to be greater for nonprofit organizations than it is for organizations in the for profit sector (Tucker & Parker, 2013). This study provides further research on executive leadership practices as they apply to the nonprofit sector. Leadership is a critical success factor for nonprofit organizations. However, scholars and practitioners both consistently claim that the nonprofit sector is confronting a situation of leadership deficit (Palumbo, 2016). This study serves as new research for effective leadership practices and their relationship to employee motivation for nonprofit organizations in southwest Virginia.

Implications for Biblical integration. God's plan for His creation and for business is clearly laid out and the path to redemption is offered. God's plan for business is the same as it is for man. Man is created with a purpose to serve others through Jesus Christ. Business also exists with a purpose to serve (Van Duzer, 2010), be sustainable, and work in concert with others to support one another as each pursues the common good. Work itself is a divine vocation (Hardy, 1990) and executive leadership should be designed in line with this, where the employees are served to help fulfill their vocation and prosper. According to the apostle Paul, Jesus Christ called those who would serve as the foundation stones of his church:

> So Christ himself gave the apostles, the prophets, the evangelists, the pastors and teachers, to equip his people for works of service, so that the body of Christ may be built up until we all reach unity in the faith and in the knowledge of the Son of God and become mature, attaining to the whole measure of the fullness of Christ. (Ephesians 4:11-13, NIV)

The parallels between God's plan for business and how he used his apostles, prophets, evangelists, pastors, and teachers to serve as leaders in service to others and the role of executive leaders, are hard to miss. Executive leadership moving from a transactions based approach toward an approach where employees are served and empowered is a role that is more defined by God's purpose for His creation and for business. Talent management, recruiting, leadership, and training were all identified as four of the eight best practices used in this study to evaluate an organization's strategic HR abilities. Each of these are present in the following passage from Exodus where Moses is given instruction on how to lead in accordance with God:

> Teach them his decrees and instructions, and show them the way they are to live and how they are to behave. But select capable men from all the people—men who fear God, trustworthy men who hate dishonest gain—and appoint them as officials over thousands, hundreds, fifties and tens. (Exodus 18:20-21)

It can be argued then, with strong warrant, that strategic HR management best practices are given to us straight from the Bible. The Bible instructs to recruit and select God fearing men who are capable, lead them by teaching and developing them how they should be working, and then trust them to lead others in God's way. HR best practices stress the competencies needed to recruit the appropriate talent and deliver the most value to the organization. HR champions must pay close attention to the employee candidates and their personal characteristics, capabilities, and motivating factors. HR champions must manage the performance of employees and develop them along the way by providing daily management and leadership to ensure that they are meeting the decrees and instructions that had been previously provided to them to help them meet the requirements, objectives, and goals of their job and of the organization. Those who are identified as leaders and given the authority to reign over a selected group of individuals then

should be held accountable that their leadership is in service to others and the organization and each may prosper and be sustained in the future. God's purpose for his Creation is for them to serve, which cannot be stressed enough

Summary of the significance of the study. The findings from this study will contribute to the literature on the theory of servant leadership in the nonprofit sector. The results will contribute to the argument on executive servant leadership style in nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia and how this leadership style relates to employee job satisfaction. The results of this study may provide useful for leaders in the nonprofit sector in Southwest Virginia by helping them understand if executive servant leadership style may help increase the level of job satisfaction in their organizations.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

There is a substantial amount of research and literature that strives to define and address issues on nonprofit accountability from many perspectives (Geer, Maher, & Cole, 2008). A considerable body of knowledge about the ways in which leadership strategy and control combined is present in much literature however the majority of this has been geared toward the for-profit sector (Tucker & Parker, 2013). Although research on the similarities and differences between for-profit and nonprofit organizations is vast (Heinrich, 2000), the question of how leadership strategy and control combine within a nonprofit context has rarely been explicitly considered, despite the considerable social and economic impact the nonprofit sector has on most western economies (Tucker & Parker, 2013).

Nonprofit accountability is a very strong, central issue of today (Christensen, 2004), defined as holding nonprofit leaders and organizations responsible for objectively measured performance of the organization. Literature were reviewed on existing studies that have

measured executive leadership styles in organizations and employee motivation. There has been shown to be a relationship between executive leadership style and motivation in some studies but not a lot focus on nonprofit organizations. The researcher reviewed literature specifically on studies involving transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and servant leadership as well as literature explaining management and leadership, emotional intelligence, and organizational engagement.

Nonprofit Organizations

The nonprofit industry is a strong force in the United States, trailing only the retail and trade industry in size. It accounts for 9.2% of national wages, employing 10.7 million paid workers (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2015; Salamon, Sokolowski, & Geller, 2012). In 2015, there were 1,532,250 nonprofit organizations in the United States, comprised largely of public charities and private foundations (National Center for Charitable Statistics, 2015). This results in a ratio of approximately one nonprofit organization for every 175 Americans (Roeger, Blackwood, & Pettijohn, 2012).

The nonprofit industry includes over 30 types of legal entities that the Internal Revenue Service classifies as 501(c) organizations (Roeger et al., 2012). In 2012, nonprofit organizations contributed over $800 billion to the United States economy, or approximately 5.4% of the national gross domestic product (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014). Also, in 2012, nonprofit industry revenues and expenses totaled more than $2 trillion and net assets totaled $4.84 trillion (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014). Further, in 2013, there were 62.7 million volunteers accounting for 8.1 billion hours of service that produced an estimated value of $163 billion (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014). Additionally, in 2013, 25.4% of the adult population in the United States

volunteered with a nonprofit organization for an average of 129 hours per volunteer (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014).

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

Management and leadership. Leadership and management are two terms often used interchangeably, however, leadership and management are two opposing styles of employee supervision that are actively used in today's business world (Kumle & Kelly, 2018). Leading can be defined as guiding someone or something along a way therefore leadership can be defined as one's capacity to leader (Kumle & Kelly, 2018). Leadership deals with growing others rather than growing oneself.

On the other hand, managers deal more with opposing ideas such as being told to be global and local, collaborate and compete, make the numbers but also nurture people and other contradictions (Kilbort, 2004). Management tasks can be organized around five tasks with five different mindsets (Kilbort, 2004):

1) The reflective mindset. Reflective managers have a respect for the past and history of the organization and must be able to understand the past, use the present, and get to the future

2) The analytical mindset. The analytical mindset must know how to analyze situations by evaluating diligently and completely rather than analyzing with simple solutions

3) The worldly mindset. Managers must think outside the box to think globally rather than locally.

4) The collaborative mindset. The collaborative mindset involves managing relationships among people in teams and projects, divisions, and alliances rather than simply managing individuals.

5) The action mindset. Developing a sensitive awareness of the business landscape in order to get the organization where it needs to go.

Managers are responsible for controlling and administering all or smaller parts of an organization as well as setting goals (Tschohl, 2014). Managers often do not work well with others, rather they implement their own guidelines for others to follow with their main objective being to hit goals (Tschohl, 2014). Leadership on the other hand is the tool that motivates, coaches, inspires, develops, fixes break downs, creates opportunities for others, challenges the status quo, innovates, and does the right things (Tschohl, 2014).

Emotional intelligence and leadership perceptions. Emotional intelligence is the ability for an individual to monitor his or her own feelings as well as the feelings of others, their beliefs, and internal states and to use the information gathered to guide the thinking and actions of themselves and others (Barbuto, Gottfredson, & Searle, 2014). In their study on emotional intelligence as an antecedent of servant leadership, Barbuto et al. (2014) found previously that only one study had identified the personality traits of being agreeable and extravert as antecedents of servant leadership (Hunter et al., 2013).

Another potential antecedent of servant leadership may be emotional intelligence (Barbuto et al., 2014) as it is not new to studies on leadership, as it had previously been studied

and identified as an antecedent to other leadership styles (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Clarke, 2010; Harms & Crede, 2010; Higgs & Aitken, 2003).

Barbuto et al. (2014) found in their study that emotional intelligence was positively related to each of the five dimensions of servant leadership. This provides some evidence that leaders who possess higher levels of emotional intelligence may will rate themselves higher in the ideologies of servant leadership. Followers' perceptions of their leader's servant-leader behavior only found a correlation between emotional intelligence and persuasive mapping, which was a positive relationship (Barbuto et al., 2014).

In Gelaidan, Al-Swidi, and Mabkhot's (2018) study on employee readiness for change in public higher education institutions, the joint effect of leadership behaviors and emotional intelligence was examined. Their findings showed that leadership behavior and emotional intelligence have significant effects on employees being ready for change and it also confirmed the moderating effect of organizational engagement (Gelaidan et al., 2018). Dabke (2016) additionally found evidence that supported the pivotal role that emotional intelligence plays in leadership effectiveness. Results showed that emotional intelligence is positively associated with leadership effectiveness perceptions but could not be a positive predictor (Dabke, 2016). Transformational leadership behaviors were able to be positive predictors of leadership effectiveness perceptions.

Organizational engagement. Organizations collaborate with stakeholders at various levels such as customers, communities, donors, employees, and other groups to pursue shared goals (Desai, 2018). These partnerships are known to affect an organization's legitimacy with those groups along with its ability to access information from them. Evidence suggests that leader-member exchange (LMX) agreement is only moderate as it typically only examines the

relationship from a single perspective: that of the leader or that of the subordinate (Matta, Scott, Koopman, & Conlon, 2015). In their study, Matta et al. (2015) found that situations where both leaders and subordinates evaluated their relationship as low quality were associated with higher work engagement than were situations of disagreement in which a single member evaluated the relationship as high quality. Further, this effect was consistent regardless of whether the leader or the subordinate evaluated the relationship highly. In order to fully understand the implications of leadership theory to an LMX, the perspectives of both members of the LMX must be considered simultaneously (Matta et al., 2015).

Kahn (1990) was one of the first researchers to use the term employee engagement and defined it as the level of energy, dedication, and absorption of the employees towards their organization. Many organizations and consulting firms consider employee engagement as being similar to other work-related constructs such as employee job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. Some recent studies in this such as the one by Agrawal (2016) attempted research to identify the factors influencing employee engagement by a studying a diverse workforce. Agrawal (2016) conducted a survey of 254 managerial employees through a structured questionnaire that could be completed either online or offline by the respondents. The finding of the study showed that the employees like the nature of work that they are assigned to therefore; they are highly engaged in their work. The employees who are engaged welcome responsibility and challenge. They see work as a source of social identity and a medium for self-expression as well as attainment of perfection in life. Most of the respondents considered sincerity, hard work, and integrity as the golden keys to success in the pursuit of their career.

Demirtas, Hannah, Gok, Arslan, and Capar (2017) examined a proposed model where ethical leadership positively influenced the level of meaning that followers experience in their work and in turn positively impacts the followers' level of engagement. Demirtas et al. found that ethical leadership has positive direct and indirect effects on employees' engagement and organizational identification as well as a direct effect in reducing envy in the workplace.

Transformational leadership. Many scholars and practitioners have presented different leadership theories and approaches. In the course of time, as the "change" phenomenon has become a focus issue for contemporary organizations, more scholars have been attracted to the area of transformational leadership. Burns (2003) is generally recognized as the founder of transformational leadership theory. Burns initially approached the theory of transformational leadership through making comparisons with transactional leadership model. Transactional leadership requires an exchange of demands between leader and follower (Burns, 2003).

While Burns claimed that transactional and transformational leadership theories are at opposite ends, Bass and Avolio (1994) argued that transformational leadership is "an expansion of transactional leadership" and it is built on the foundations of transactional leadership. A key assumption of Bass' (1985) theory of transformational and transactional leadership was that transformational leadership helps to explain some of the variance present in outcome variables after controlling for the influence of transactional leadership.

According to Bass and Avolio (1994), a transformational leader forms a vision for the organization which goes beyond existing systems and practices. In this scenario, the leader is prepared to take risks in order to encourage change and innovation in the organization. Additionally, leaders support and motivate followers so that the followers exceed their desired goals and create an organizational climate which respects individual needs and differences.

Through this collaborative culture, leaders and followers focus on the common good and the accomplishment of the organization's goals.

In a study by Hall, Johnson, Wysocki, and Kepner (2008), transformational leadership refers to a process which changes and converts individuals and organizations. Specifically, transformational leadership refers to the ability of a leader to prompt individuals to want to change and improve. It includes the evaluation of individual motives and needs of members of the organization and how to best satisfy these needs. Transformational leadership is the process through which an individual will commits himself or herself to the well-being of the organization and creates connections which increase the level of motives and morale of subordinates (Eliophotou-Menon & Ioannou, 2016). It is the leadership style which takes into account the needs of employees while being sensitive to the differences that exist in an organization.

In transactional leadership, the leader stimulates the followers to achieve the organizational goals as expected. In one study, for instance, the results suggest that followers' psychological empowerment like competence, self-determination and meaning has an effect on their acceptance of organizational identification. On the other hand, transformational leader motivates people to perform more beyond the formerly anticipated organizational objectives than originally expected.

Leaders employ one or more of the four components of transformational leadership to achieve their agreements with their followers. Bass conceptualized these factors as (Seyhan, 2013):

1. Idealized influence or the degree to which followers consider their leaders trustworthy and charismatic with a clear and attainable mission for the organization.

2. Inspirational motivation or the behavior of the leaders that serves as inspiration for followers by providing them with meaning

3. Intellectual stimulation where leaders encourage followers to be creative and innovative so that they may adopt a stance related to assumptions

4. Individualized consideration where leaders focus on individual needs and focus on followers on a one-on-one basis.

In their study, Geer et al. (2008) hypothesized that an organizations commitment to the operating standards of codes of professional conduct, standards in the industry, or ethical codes should positively impact the accountability of the organization as measured by Brody's (2001) four elements:

1) Fiscal responsibility

2) Good governance

3) Adherence to mission

4) Program effectiveness

They also hypothesized that leadership style, particularly transformational leadership would positively affect organizational accountability (Geer et al., 2008). Transformational leadership has been linked to the commitment of employees to the organization, their trust in their leader, their job satisfaction and their motivation to learn. In their study of transformational leadership in education, it seems to affect teachers' attitudes towards their school, and their commitment to change and learning (Hallinger, 2003). Transformational leadership seems to affect the confidence in the leader of the organization. Confidence or trust in the leader is an important feature of transformational leadership (Jung & Avolio, 2000; Yukl, 1999).

Regarding leadership their results indicated that the level of transformational leadership practiced by chief executive officers of nonprofit organization does have a strong positively relationship with the accountability within the organization. Finding professional development opportunities for nonprofit leaders to increase their transformational leadership skills would be an appropriate strategy to increase organizational accountability and performance.

In their study on the effectiveness of transformational leadership on nonprofit leader engagement, Freeborough and Patterson (2016) found that nonprofit leaders who want to increase employee engagement in their organizations may benefit from using transformational leadership practices. Freeborough and Patterson (2016) found a strong positive correlation between transformational leadership and engagement suggesting that organizations may want to focus on hiring leaders who practice transformational leadership and training employees to become future transformational leaders in the organization.

Transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is centered on leader follower exchanges. Followers perform according to the will and direction of the leaders and leaders positively reward the efforts (Riaz & Haider, 2010). The baseline exchange is positive or negative reward. Negative rewards include punitive actions if followers fail to comply with or it can be positive such as praise and recognition, if employees comply with the wishes and directives of a leader and achieve the given objectives (Riaz & Haider, 2010). Four core facets of transactional leadership as described by Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn (2000) are:

1. Contingent rewards. Contingent reward as a leadership principle is a leadership style where there is an active and positive exchange between leaders and followers where leaders grant rewards or recognition to followers for accomplishing previously defined objectives (Han, Bartol, & Kim, 2015).

2. Active management by exception. Active management-by exception is leaders anticipating mistakes being made and enforcing rules in order to prevent the mistakes from happening (Breevart et al., 2014).

3. Passive management by exception. Passive management by exception refers to leaders confronting individuals about their mistakes and voicing disapproval about the mistakes that were made (Breevart et al., 2014).

4. Laissez-faire. Laissez-faire leadership is characterized by the leaders' avoidance and inaction when followers are experiencing a situational need for leadership (Skogstad, Hetland, Glaso, & Einarsen, 2014).

In their study on daily transformational and transactional leadership and how each related to employee's work engagement, Breevar et al. (2014) found that transformational leadership as a whole positively influenced employee's daily autonomy and in turn, their work engagement. Transactional leadership had a positive relationship with employee engagement when focusing on the contingent reward element (Breevart et al., 2014) despite these leaders lacking in charisma and inspirational appeal. Active management by exception was unrelated to employee's work engagement, lending some support to the claim of Bass (1985) that transformational leadership may expand on transactional leadership while controlling for transactional leadership variables.

In a study exploring nonprofit organizations, Ross-Grant (2016) found that overall, transactional leadership is not considered a preferred leadership style based on the follower's perception of what behaviors a leader should exhibit (Ivey & Theresa, 2010). Transactional leadership at times produces results, focusing only on organizational goals and outcomes, but it ignores the goals or needs of the follower. While the needs of the organization might be met the

needs of the employee are left unsatisfied. The cited studies and the review of much of the academic literature on transactional leadership serve as a basis for the hypothesis in this study that there is a statistically significant relationship between transactional leadership and employee job satisfaction.

Servant leadership. Greenleaf (1977) suggested that leaders could legitimize their power through individual service (Spears, 1996). It was his belief that through this desire to serve, leaders could help build a serving society. This concept became known as servant leadership. Servant leaders are servants first before they are leaders first with a feeling that one wants to serve and to serve first (Greenleaf, 1977). This is distinct from the individual who wishes to be a leader first who later develops a choice to serve, once leadership has already been established.

Much of contemporary literature on leadership theory focuses on transformational leadership and transactional leadership dimensions (Riaz & Haider, 2010), however, the concept of servant leadership has been building academic interest and research on servant leadership and how it can help benefit an organization has increased. Greenleaf's view of servant leadership begins with a central meaning where "the great leader is first experienced as a servant to others" (Spears, 1996, p. 33). This servant leadership consists of these characteristics:

1. Listening: Servant leaders listen receptively to what is being said or not said. Coupled with reflection, listening is essential to the growth of the servant leader (Blanchard & Bronwell, 2018).

2. Empathy: The servant leader strives to understand and empathize with others, assuming the good intentions of them, refusing to reject them as people.

3. Healing: The servant leader has potential to heal one's self and one's relationships with others (Blanchard & Bronwell, 2018).

4. Awareness: Awareness helps the individual understand issues with power, ethics, and values and enables the leader to view situations from an integrated, holistic position.

5. Persuasion: The servant leader seeks to convince others rather than push for compliance and is effective at building consensus within groups.

6. Conceptualization: Servant leaders seek to nurture their abilities to dream great dreams and the ability to look at a problem from a conceptualizing perspective means that individuals should think beyond daily realities (Blanchard & Bronwell, 2018).

7. Stewardship: Stewardship is defined as holding something in trust for another (Block, 2016). Servant leadership assumes a commitment to serving the needs of others and places an emphasis on persuasion rather than control (Blanchard & Bronwell, 2018).

8. Commitment to the growth of people: Servant leaders believe in the intrinsic value of people beyond their value as a worker and is deeply committed to growing individuals within the organization.

9. Building Community: Servant leaders believe community can be created among those who work in any profession by servant leaders demonstrating liability for a specific community-related group (Blanchard & Bronwell, 2018).

In their study, Linda Parris and Welty Peachey (2012) found that nonprofit leaders who exhibited servant leadership styles by displaying unconditional love and a moral calling to serve along with inspiring others to serve through his or her love by committing to them, not the organization lead to increased nonprofit volunteer motivation. The study identified three

mechanisms of servant leadership that nonprofit organizations can use cultivate long-term volunteer motivation:

1. Generate a shared vision dedicated to helping others

2. Build a caring and loving community

3. Create the freedom and resources for follower to become servant leaders themselves.

The Linda Parris and Welty Peachey (2012) study is a great demonstration of how servant leadership in the nonprofit sector can lead to the development of motivated, long-term volunteers who then become servant leaders themselves. This could help reduce volunteer turnover in the nonprofit sector and increase moral and motivation to deliver services, a problem highlighted previously in the nonprofit sector. The ability to breed future servant leaders out of those receiving servant leadership can leader to sustainable servant leadership practices that will continue to provide the leadership benefits to the organization.

The influence of leadership in an organization is a strong predictor of how successful the organization is at achieving outcomes. In understanding one's place within a hierarchal structure, either the benefit or challenges are experienced within an organization. The importance of servant leadership in nonprofit organizations is evident, forcing self-serving leaders to set aside their own understandings and bring forth the need for service and modeling leadership attributes after the servant leadership model is successful and obtainable.

In their study of leadership style in nonprofit organizations, Riggio, Bass, and Orr (2004) found that nonprofit organizations that hire and develop their own effective leaders that are responsible for guiding employees and volunteers are more likely to succeed in sustaining long term success and remain effective during weak economies.

Growth of employees is determined by those who are in leadership positions in the organization and how they lead. Regardless of what level of management a leader is "there is a strong commitment to treat each individual respectfully, with awareness that each person deserves" (van Dierendonck, 2011, p. 1231). The affective attitude values the individual's emotions, giving room for participation and sustenance of each person. The successes of the organization depend on the individuals within being the working platform of the business. Encouraging the individuality and unique benefits of each person, emphasizes the "general attitude toward the people...and motivation to be a leader" (van Dierendonck, 2011, p. 1231). This does not mean that leadership should consider handing over the organization's decision making to all employees, it simply means, leadership and servanthood become interchangeable, allowing "a person to lead" and "being a leader implies a person serves" (van Dierendonck, 2011, p. 1231).

Servant leaders are conscious leaders (Blanchard & Broadwell, 2018). Conscious leaders are conscious leaders and can be defined by the acronym SELFLESS (Blanchard & Broadwell, 2018):

1. Strength: Servant leaders are strong, resolute, and resilient and have moral fiber, self-confidence, and have courage with their convictions.

2. Enthusiasm: Servant leaders are connected to power because of their commitment to a higher purpose and a righteous patch.

3. Love: Servant leaders possess the fundamental leadership quality that is the ability to operate from love and care.

4. Flexibility: Flexibility is the capacity to switch modes seamlessly and bend without breaking as the situation or context requires.

5. Long-term orientation: Servant leaders operate on a timeline that stretches beyond their time as a leader and their lifetime by preparing employees to prosper and perform long after the servant leader is gone and the business possesses the essential elements of success.

6. Emotional intelligence: Servant leaders have high levels of emotional intelligence that combines self-awareness (the ability to understand oneself) as well as empathy (the ability to feel and understand others).

7. Systems intelligence: Systems intelligence is an intelligence that focuses on the way the system's constituent parts interrelate and how systems work over time with other systems. Servant leaders strive to be systems thinkers.

8. Spiritual intelligence: Spiritual intelligence is the intelligence with which leaders access their deepest meanings, values, purpose, and higher motivations.

Servant leadership can be implemented at the executive level in an organization or by individuals themselves. Irving and McIntosh (2010) found that there is significant evidence that servant leadership is growing in popularity in the United States and outside the United States. Southwest Airlines and Starbucks are two companies that have implemented servant leadership practices to improve the development of their employees and to increase the ability to operate as learning organizations.

Transactional versus Transformational Leadership. Transactional leadership has roots in social psychological social exchange theory (Burns, 1978) with a reliance on the reciprocal and deterministic relationship between the leader and his or her followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Burns (1978) believed that leadership occurs in two ways transactional and transformational. Transactional leadership gives both leaders and subordinates power and

influence due to the mutually beneficial exchange that takes place within transactional leadership (Vito, Higgins, & Denney, 2014). Transformational leadership theory always has provisions for power and influence, however, unlike transactional leadership where power and influence are based one bargaining and a mutually beneficial exchange, power in influence between the leader and follower in transformational leadership is based on emotion (Vito et al., 2014). Transformational leaders use trust and confidence that the follower has in the leader to motivate the followers' behaviors.

Transformational versus servant leadership. Some researchers have suggested that transformational leadership and servant leadership are too similar to be differentiated. This is probably due to the fact that both theories describe inspirational and people-oriented approaches to leadership (Washington, 2007). Transformational leadership and servant leadership both have roots in charismatic leadership theory (Graham, 1991) which suggests that leaders should exercise power through the followers' belief in the personality of the leader and the ability to identify with it.

Both transformational and servant leadership rely on inspirational leaders that can motivate their employees to action and better performance by using supportive behaviors. The difference between servant leadership and transformational leadership primarily lies in the motivations of the leader (Melchar & Bosco, 2010). Transformational leaders' primary goal is to better the organization and is their primary motivating factor whereas the well-being of individuals is the primary motivator of the servant leader.

Both transformational and servant leadership theories incorporate respect, vision, influence, modeling, trust, and delegation of tasks (Stone, Russell, & Patterson, 2003).

Table 1

Leadership Style Basis

	Basis
Transformational Leadership	Inspirational, empower, charismatic, bottom up Concern for tasks, authoritarian
Transactional Leadership	Exchange relationship, top-down
Servant Leadership	Concern for people, non-authoritarian

Leadership style in nonprofit organizations. The existence of nonprofit organizations to deliver services is vital to our economy. Nonprofit organizations often serve as a subcontractor to deliver budgeted government services. In order for them to perform efficiently and effectively, nonprofits should be able to implement good strategies and have controls in place to support these strategies. Sometimes attracting top managers and leaders for nonprofits is difficult given the financial constraints they endure.

In a study on nonprofit leadership, Eady-Mays (2016) discovered many limitations with nonprofit leadership. This study chronicled many challenges that nonprofit leaders face, and how these challenges are affected by economic down turns (Agard, 2011). A review of existing literature recognizes the unique challenges of leading a nonprofit, however, the academic literature is limited. There was not a large amount of research that has been conducted that explored ways to mitigate the challenges that nonprofit leaders face and help them improve their leadership. Dym and Hutson (2005) suggested was that the nonprofit literature lacked the descriptive element of how leaders went about their business to demonstrate effectiveness. Existing academic literature details a lot on the shortfall of nonprofit leadership and how this has a major effect on the performance of the nonprofit organization, however, there lacks much literature on why this exists.

Due to the unique composition of nonprofit organizations and their need in society the expectation of the public about what constituted ethical behavior in and by nonprofits differs from that of their for-profit organization counterparts (Bonitto & Noriega, 2012). The American public disapproved of nonprofit leaders' misappropriations of funds. The very existence of many nonprofit organizations, their capacity to garner resources, and carry out their missions depends on perception of their high moral standing and integrity (Agard, 2011). Agard wrote about the laws in place that maintain that nonprofit board leaders and executives are stewards of the public interest and have a duty of care. Additionally, the public expectation of nonprofit organizations is that they will honor a set of widely accepted moral and humanitarian values (Bonitto & Noriega, 2012).

The significance of management control in nonprofit organizations may be greater than that of for profit organizations due to funding agencies and government requiring increased accountability in evaluating the efficiency and effectiveness with which nonprofit organizations deliver services (Tucker & Parker, 2013). This results in demand for improved management control in the nonprofit sector. Also, due to the need to manage a very diverse mix of constituents and stakeholders, nonprofit organizations must accommodate multiple complex and sometimes conflicting sets of goals and objectives.

A considerable body of knowledge about the ways in which strategy and control combined is present in much literature however the majority of this has been geared toward the for-profit sector (Tucker & Parker, 2013). Although research on the similarities and differences between for-profit and nonprofit organizations is vast (Heinrich, 2000), the question of how strategy and control combine within a nonprofit context has rarely been explicitly considered,

despite the considerable social and economic impact the nonprofit sector has on most Western economies (Tucker & Parker, 2013).

The nonprofit sector plays a large role in the quality of life in the communities in which they serve (Smalley, 2011). The sector faces annual challenges within their communities and also must deal with fluctuations in funding and legislative policies that challenge their ability to survive and continue to provide services. Because of this, there is a necessity for nonprofit leadership to prepare their organizations to overcome these challenges by providing high level leadership that will enable their organizations to achieve high-levels of performance (Smalley, 2011).

A study by Spector (1985) used a Job Satisfaction Survey to measure employee job satisfaction in the nonprofit sector. Findings included a strong correlation between job perceptions, the supervisor, and employee's intentions of quitting along with modest correlations with employee absenteeism and turnover. The average turnover rate for 300 nonprofits participating in a survey reported by Schipp (2014) was 16%, with a staggering 35% rate coming from arts, culture and humanities organizations. Additionally, 60% of nonprofits participating in the study identified staff turnover as an organizational problem. Organizational change is orchestrated and put in action by the leadership at all levels of the organization and the goals of this research will provide organizations with information on the type of leadership that is needed to help reduce turnover levels.

For society to be innovative and accommodate the swift changes, in its environment the nonprofit sector needs to be inspired by transformational and servant leadership to share in their visions and objectives. Research shows that leaders with transformational leadership characteristics in their leadership style do lead to positive change results through changing

processes though idealized influence, employee motivation, and individual consideration.

Motivating nonprofit employees and volunteers and leading them to contribute and participate in charitable activities urges the presence of effective leadership accomplishments, yielding positive results in terms of changing process through idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration. Motivating nonprofit followers and getting them through contribution in charitable activities urge the presence of effective leadership accomplishments. Two rationales can be extended for transformational leadership for nonprofit organizations:

1) due to the voluntary nature of nonprofit activities and practices, they are more open to internal pressure of change

2) the necessity of holistic change approach in third sector due to vibrant and active interaction among their subunits and entities

Rowold, Borgman, and Borgman (2014) conducted a study focusing on six leadership constructs about which has been significant research:

1) Transformational

2) Transactional

3) Laissez-faire

4) Consideration

5) Initiation Structure

6) Leader-member exchange.

One of the main goals of their study was to explore potential differences of leadership constructs' relative importance between profit and nonprofit organizations (Rowold et al., 2014). Scholars have noted that the organizational context represents a strong boundary condition for

the leadership process (Yukl, 2006). Leaders in for-profit organizations have tasks, requirements, and resources that can differ quite substantially from that of nonprofit organizations (Yukl, 2006). However, researchers have not yet compared the differences in the effectiveness of leadership styles in the two sectors (Rowold et al., 2014). Their results showed that transformational leadership was more important in the nonprofit sector than it is in the for profit sector.

In a study on leadership styles and ethics of nonprofit leaders, Eady-Mays (2016) found that the investigation of a leader's style used to influence behavior was dissimilar to previous methods described in the research literature to evaluate leadership. The investigation of leadership styles marked a major shift in the focus of leadership research and helped expand the definition of leadership to include the leader's influence on followers and the behaviors of leaders (Eady-Mays, 2016). Theorists attempted to identify the distinguishing styles leaders used to engage followers. Understanding of the leadership style expanded leadership study to include leaders' actions toward followers in various contexts. Blake and Mounton (1978) and Stogdill (1974) supported that leadership behaviors had a more significant influence on follower motivation than a leader's personality or traits. Two general classes of leader behaviors were discerned (Blake & Mounton, 1978; Stogdill, 1974). The behaviors identified in this research were task behaviors and person or relationship behaviors (Chemers & Ayman, 1993). The task behaviors were associated with the leaders' emphasis on accomplishing tasks by explaining followers' roles and leaders' expectations (Howell, 2013). The relationship-oriented behaviors were useful to discern the efforts that leaders used to develop followers' capabilities (Howell, 2013). The central investigation of the leadership styles was to draw conclusions on the most effective behaviors (task or relationship) that influenced followers to goal attainment. Theories

abounded about the best leadership styles to attain goals. Through research studies seminal work on leadership styles such as situational leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership styles were produced (Burns, 1978; Hersey et al., 2013). Leadership styles manifest in both obvious and subtle ways. The discriminating aspects of leadership styles are where the decision-making rests and who uses the power. In the study conducted by Lewin and Lippitt (1939), the authoritarian leader was coached to actively engage in behaviors that dictated the specific steps of followers to achieve goals. The authoritarian leadership style characterized leader behaviors that controlled followers and their work (Northouse, 2015). Authoritarian leaders emphasized their position and decided for the group (Rue et al., 2013). The findings from the study extended knowledge to better understand the behaviors leaders who used an authoritarian leadership styles engaged in and how followers responded (Stogdill, 1974). The classification of the authoritarian leader in research literature was as task-oriented. The authoritarian leader indicated an orientation toward task accomplishment rather than addressing relationship matters. The authoritarian leader pressured or harshly persuaded followers into compliance to avoid undesired outcomes (Bass, 2008). The directive style of leadership could adversely affect the follower's individual ethical judgment. Cohen (2013) argued ethical judgment was a necessary ingredient in ethical organizational performance. According to studies within the last five years, authoritarian leadership behaviors had varying effects in organizations. Ramchunder and Martins (2014) compared authoritarian leaders to transformational leaders. Through empirical inquiry, Ramchunder and Martins (2014) formulated the conclusion that authoritarian leaders were less effective leaders. The indication from the Ramchunder and Martins (2014) research study was that the authoritarian leader adversely affected the organization's bottom line, and negatively affected follower behaviors. Zopiatis and Constani

(2010) observed an association between burnout and leadership styles in their study of

hospitality managers. Employees under authoritative leaders experienced increased levels of

emotional exhaustion. Dissimilar to the studies described above, directive, authoritarian

leadership was of benefit in two studies of the literature reviewed. Yehezkel and Lerner (2009)

concluded that the authoritarian leadership style increased employee productivity in the

organizations they studied. A point to note from Yehezkel and Lerner's study is that the

increased productivity arose only when the leader issued written directives, rather than verbal

directives to employees of technology start-up companies. Gustainis (2007) noted in his research

findings an increased productivity of followers under an authoritarian leader. The increased

productivity transpired only when the leader was present; productivity dropped in the leader's

absence. These two studies were in the minority of research literature reviewed that indicated

positive associations between the authoritarian leadership style and follower satisfaction or

effectiveness.

Lewin and Lippitt (1939) analyzed behaviors of leaders using democratic leadership

style. The democratic leaders were instructed to engage in behaviors that were relationship-

oriented. The democratic leaders encouraged group members, were explanatory in nature toward

goal attainment, and praised followers (Lewin & Lippitt, 1939). The investigation into

leadership behaviors illustrated how followers responded when leaders engaged followers using

a democratic leadership style. Democratic leadership style reflected a relationship-oriented

leader. The foundation for democratic leadership style was similar to MacGregor's Theory Y

leaders, who engaged in high relationship behaviors (Howell, 2013). The conclusion was that

democratic leaders used participative procedures for decision-making and the leader allowed

input from the followers (Yukl, 2011). Democratic leaders promoted the importance of follower

input in decision-making and shared responsibilities in leadership (Mishra et al., 2014). Mary (2005), in her research, illustrated how democratic leaders, much like transformational leaders, sought to empower followers to achieve organizational and personal goals. The democratic leader behaved in a manner to hone in on inclusivity of followers in the decision-making process. The review of the literature uncovered significant findings regarding the democratic leadership style. One research study's conclusions noted that the democratic leadership style positively correlated with successful leadership outcomes in the human service organizations studied (Mary, 2005).

In another study, the findings suggested that democratic leadership styles had a significant and positive correlation with organizational performance (Mishra et al., 2014). Yehezkel and Lerner (2009) did not find that democratic leaders performed any better than leaders with other leadership styles. The research by Lewin, Lippitt, and White on leadership behavior was in the early stages in the study of the laissez-faire leadership style (Bass, 2008). In the Lewin and Lippitt study, the laissez-faire leaders were instructed to not engage followers, and not to provide direction (Lewin et al., 1939). The investigation determined there was a difference between laissez-faire leadership style and the democratic leadership style (Stogdill, 1974). Laid back, engaged, and laid back, and unengaged was the classification of democratic and laissez-faire leaders (Northouse, 2015). The description of laissez-faire leadership style in the literature was the least effective of the three leadership styles (Saeed, Almas, Anis-ul-Haq, & Niazi, 2014). The distinction of laissez-faire leaders was as leaders who avoid leadership responsibility and try to remain neutral. Laissez-faire leaders did not take on an active role as the leader, leaving their followers to figure out the task and measure effectiveness on their own (Saeed et al., 2014). The explanation of the laissez-faire leadership style in academic literature

was as a lack of leadership or a failure to take responsibility to manage (Northouse, 2015). Evaluation of the literature paved the way to the conclusion that leaders using the laissez-faire leadership style made little or no effort to help their followers achieve goals or grow. Laissez-faire leaders showed the least leadership activity (Northouse, 2016). Study of the laissez-faire leadership style in various areas of society ensued since the initial observation of Lewin and Lippitt on leadership styles. Research findings revealed a negative association between laissez-faire leadership and productivity (Bass, 2008). A study on self-efficacy and leadership styles by Ramchunder and Martins (2014) produced findings to support that self-efficacy scores of their population negatively correlated with laissez-faire leaders; supporting prior research that laissez-faire leaders are less effective than leaders who use other leadership styles to engage followers.

Research findings were similar for laissez-faire leaders in industries outside of business. In a study of the nonprofit industry, Lutz Allen, Smith, and Da Silva (2013) distinguished laissez-faire ministers from ministers who used other leadership styles. Their conclusion was that laissez-faire ministers were harmful to churches that wanted to engage in organizational change. The finding in a study in education was that a negative relationship existed between laissez-faire principals and school performance (Nir & Hameiri, 2014). Only limited amount of research supported the use of laissez-faire leadership style. Whitehead, Weiss, and Tappen (2009) defended the behaviors associated with the laissez-faire leadership style when dealing with mature or older followers. The older and more experienced followers of the study demonstrated the ability to thrive under the laissez-faire leadership style. Yehezkel and Lerner (2009) also justified the use of the laissez-faire leadership style in very specific situations. Yehezkel and Lerner's (2009) research findings revealed that followers of laissez-faire leaders in technology startups (TSUs) in Israel showed a positive effect on performance. Yehezkel and

Lerner (2009) justified their research findings with an explanation. Once TSUs became formalized and established centralization, the workers could successfully work autonomously without the requirement of direction from the leader, hence, why the laissez-faire leadership style was sufficient in the TSU environment. Since the inception of theory on authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership scholarly analysis materialized on an array of leadership styles. The assessment of Carter and Greer (2013) was that the research efforts on leadership styles contributed to a better comprehension of the influence of leadership in the individual, team, and group performance outcomes. An empirical analysis of the nonprofit sector revealed the use of other leadership styles. Investigations began on transactional (Ng & Sears, 2012), transformational (Zhu, Avolio, Riggio, & Sosik, 2011), charismatic (Bligh & Robinson, 2010), authentic (Cianci, Hannah, Roberts, & Tsakumis, 2014), and servant leadership styles (Greenleaf, 1977; van Dierendonck, 2011). There was little empirical inquiry or literature of the particular leadership styles most often used by senior executive leaders. Specifically, leadership styles of nonprofit executives were underrepresented in the literature.

Job Satisfaction

There has been much research done on employee motivation in the private sector, but little in the public and nonprofit sector. There are many motivational factors within each person. Research studies on employee job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are predominantly caused by the theories of motivation proposed by Maslow and Herzberg (Islam & Ali, 2013). Job satisfaction is the outcome of diverse tendencies of an individual toward his or her job. These outlooks or tendencies may be related to a whole host of job factors such as job security, policies of the organization, type of supervision, job environment, and type of work, salary, chances of advancement and growth, and sense of responsibility (Islam & Ali, 2013). An employee's

developed feelings regarding how good his or her job offers possibilities to fulfill needs determines his or her attitude toward the job. Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction as the pleasurable emotional state that results from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values.

Job satisfaction is important because it can be a predictor of employee performance (Saari & Judge, 2004). Phillips and Gully (2012) suggested that each of the variables of job satisfaction should be managed effectively so that positive results can be achieved with performance levels. High quality relationships between supervisors and employees are related to intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (Stringer, Didham, & Theivananthampillai, 2006). Job satisfaction also impacts turnover rates due to the fact that if employees are dissatisfied, they will usually begin to look outside the organization for new employment and usually leave when presented with an opportunity that offers them better rewards.

Lawler (2006) suggested that if the dissatisfied employee does not leave or is unable to find other opportunities, they become disgruntled employees who may seek to change their current situation with their organization by organizing unions, filing lawsuits, or engaging in other behaviors harmful to the organization. When employees are satisfied, the rate of absenteeism and turnover rate yield lower frequencies (Lawler, 2006).

In their study of motivation and organizational commitment of volunteers in non-profit sports organizations, Bang, Ross, and Reio (2012) studied retention efforts involved in keeping volunteers in non-profit sports organizations. Volunteers' organizational commitment is an important element involved in retaining volunteers as it seems to differentiate between those that sty and those that leave (Griffeth, Horn, & Gaertner, 2000). Bang et al. (2012) sampled 214 participants ranging in age from 18 to 74 using the affective commitment scale (Meyer & Allen,

1997) to measure affective organizational commitment. This instrument was adjusted to reflect the context of volunteers in a nonprofit sports organization. Clary et al. (1998) developed the volunteer functions inventory to measure volunteer motivation and this was used by Bang et al. (2012) in this study. Four dimensions of the volunteer functions inventory were used in the study: values, understanding, social, and enhancement.

Hackman and Oldham's (1980) job satisfaction scale was used to measure job satisfaction. Their findings were consistent with prior organizational research suggesting that volunteer motivation predicts organizational commitment if the volunteer's motivation is satisfied (Clary et al., 1998; Dorsch, Riemer, Sluth, Paskevich, & Chelladurai, 2002; Penner, 2002).

Nonprofit employees job satisfaction versus public employees. Lee (2016) conducted research comparing job satisfaction factors between nonprofit employees and those working in the public sector. Traditionally, when attempting to understand the nonprofit workforce and motivating factors toward job satisfaction, comparisons are made with the nonprofit sector and its for-profit counterparts (De Cooman, De Gieter, Pepermans, & Jegers, 2011). This approach resembles the approach of public management scholars as they are interested in the distinction between public and private sector organizations. Public management research suggests that the public–private differences involve important differences in organizational environments, constraints, incentives, and organizational culture (Fottler, 1981; Whorton & Worthley, 1981), and therefore, a "one size fits all" approach provides limited understanding of these public sector organizations. Public management theory also demonstrates that individuals who are attracted to public sector jobs differ in terms of their motivations and other characteristics compared with private sector workers. Research also suggests that nonprofit and public sector employees share

many motivational traits, as both nonprofit and public organizations seek values outside of the market and have outcomes that are not readily measurable (Gabris & Simo, 1995). Rotolo and Wilson (2006) commented that "nonprofit workers are much like public sector workers in having more prosocial motivations for doing their job" (p. 24). Many scholars have adopted this perspective, as evidenced by publication of HRM textbooks for public and nonprofit organizations collectively (Nahavandi, Denhardt, Denhardt, & Aristigueta, 2013; Pynes, 2017).

More recently, however, scholars have pointed out the limits of the simple dichotomy in examining various types of organizations (Borzaga & Tortia, 2006; Chen, 2014). Chen (2014) warns that the dichotomy based on intrinsic motivation argument is misleading and oversimplifies incentives that differ across sectors. Additionally, whereas the traditional public management approach regards public and nonprofit organizations somewhat identically in terms of employee motivations, recent research provides reasons to suspect differences between the two types (Chen, 2012; Lee & Wilkins, 2011). Overall, the research suggests that the differences in governance, clientele, and organizational imperatives cause public and nonprofit organizations to have distinctive organizational structures and employee incentives (Lipsky & Smith, 1989; Mirvis & Hackett, 1983), and in turn, attract different types of individuals to each sector. Also, provided that the effects of job characteristics vary depending on the individual work environment (Oldham & Hackman, 2010), the differences between public and nonprofit organizations imply that understanding employee job satisfaction in the two types of organizations requires distinctions between the two.

Given both the similarities and differences in motivations of the two types of organizations, it is important to understand both the differences between the two and their lines of continuity. Nonprofit and public organizations share many similarities. First, they both

pursue values outside of the markets. Nonprofits exist to pursue their mission, maximize profits. Public agencies also exist to achieve the ultimate goal of serving citizens. Second, public organizations and many nonprofit organizations provide public goods and services, although the types and to what extent vary. Nonprofit organizations carry out many services that were traditionally delivered by government creating the term "third party government" (Salamon, 1995). Finally, and perhaps most importantly, research finds that employees in both organizations are more likely to be motivated by intrinsic rewards and less likely to be motivated by extrinsic rewards compared with for-profit sector workers (Lewis & Frank, 2002). Given these similarities, the existing literature has applied the same approach to managing nonprofit and public organizations. In terms of job satisfaction, research has emphasized the importance of intrinsic motivations of employees in these organizations (Borzaga & Tortia, 2006). Despite some commonalities, however, literature suggests differences between the public and nonprofit sectors. First, there is the fundamental public–private distinction. Even though a majority of nonprofit organizations provide public goods and work in partnership with government, they are private in nature, not a part of government. Public organizations are governmental entities established by legislation or executive powers, whereas most nonprofits are private organizations established by voluntary efforts. Therefore, nonprofits lack not only the straightforward performance measures of the for-profit sector but also the electoral control available in the public sector (Mirvis & Hackett, 1983). Second, the character of services provided by nonprofits and government agencies tends to differ (DiMaggio & Anheier, 1990). Given that government actions require majority support, government services will cater to the needs of the median voter or the dominant political coalition (Buchanan & Tullock, 1962), leaving minority opinions not reflected in policies. In contrast, many early nonprofit organizations served people whose needs

had been unmet by government. Some economists, therefore, argue that the nonprofit sector is a response to "government failures" (Weisbrod, 1977). Third, as a consequence of policy priorities in each sector, public and nonprofit organizations differ greatly in terms of their organizational imperatives.

According to Lipsky and Smith (1989), public organizations are "overwhelmingly driven by concerns of equity," whereas responsiveness to clients' need is the top organizational priority in nonprofit organizations (p. 643). Therefore, public agencies are required to have elaborate rationales for aiding some groups but not others, whereas nonprofits are more tolerant of client selection. The differences between nonprofit and public organizations result in unique job contents and tasks which, in turn, may attract distinctive types of individuals to each sector (Lee & Wilkins, 2011). Given the differing employee motivations, various aspects of organizational and work context may have distinctive effects on employees' job satisfaction.

The results of the study by Lee (2016) suggest that nonprofit managers' authority over their tasks affect their job satisfaction. In other words, they need independent work environments where they can exercise discretion. These findings imply that a nonprofit CEO must establish clear roles and responsibilities for the managers and provide autonomous work environment to minimize their turnover. In the public sector, results suggest that organizational stability positively influences job satisfaction of public managers. These findings are consistent with the literature that public employees are more risk averse than nonprofit sector workers (Chen, 2012). Research also finds that job security is one of the strongest attractions of public sector jobs (Lee & Wilkins, 2011; Lewis & Frank, 2002) and that those who have strong preferences for job security are risk averse. These distinctions in job satisfaction attributes

between the nonprofit and public managers suggest that these organizations may take unique approaches to employees' job satisfaction.

Servant leadership and job satisfaction. Those who have researched and written about servant leadership since the 1970s hold the belief that servant leadership has a positive effect on job satisfaction. Greenleaf (1977), Kouzes and Posner (1993), and Spears (2002) cited examples of company after company whose leaders changed the culture and enjoyed the benefits of a happier workforce as a result of servant leadership. Empirical evidence supported their claims. Across many sectors, researchers have found a statistically significant, positive correlation between servant leadership practices in an organization and employee job satisfaction. Goh and Zhen-Jie (2014) found a positive correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction at all levels of an institution, and that servant leadership also had a significant effect on organizational commitment.

In their study of business centers, Darwish and Nusairat (2008) found a strong correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction. In a study investigating servant leadership and job satisfaction in a public school setting, Svoboda (2008) also found a strong positive correlation between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction and Chu (2008) found a positive correlation between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in a call center setting. Johnson (2009) found a very strong correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction among high technology employees. Little research exists that does not show a positive correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction in sectors where servant leadership has been measured, but researchers have not yet tested servant leadership in some organizational settings. Servant leadership has also had positive effects on other employee attributes. Organizational trust has been higher in servant-led organizations (Rezaei, Salehi,

Shafiei, & Sabet, 2012). Higher levels of organizational trust were a significant factor in why servant-led organizations had higher organizational commitment and loyalty from their employees (Jaramillo, Grisaffe, Chonco, & Roberts, 2009). In addition to enhancing employee quality of life across many sectors in the United States, servant leadership has also increased job satisfaction internationally (Darwish & Nusairat, 2008).

Henning (2016) conducted research on servant leadership with a purpose to test the theory of servant leadership, testing to see if there is a statistically significant relationship between servant leadership (independent variable) and job satisfaction (dependent variable) for employees in a Colorado nonprofit organization. There were five key findings for this study using the Organizational Leadership Assessment (OLA) to measure both servant leadership and job satisfaction: (a) the OLA overall mean score (252.59) with item mean score (4.21) for servant leadership and the associated organizational health level (Org 5, Servant, Excellent Health), (b) the overall mean score (27.01) with item mean score (4.50) for job satisfaction and the associated organizational health level (Org 6, Servant, Optimal Health), (c) the statistically significant Pearson's correlation coefficient between servant leadership and job satisfaction ($r = .680$, $p < .001$, 2-tailed), (d) the coefficient of determination for servant leadership and job satisfaction ($r2 = .463$), (e) and the statistically significant Pearson's correlation coefficient between the demographic category level in organization and job satisfaction ($r = -.225$, $p = .033$, 2-tailed). These key findings are consistent with the findings in past research with some of the highest scores for servant leadership and job satisfaction from the OLA survey. The high scores for servant leadership and job satisfaction from the OLA survey, coupled with the statistically significant correlations between job satisfaction and servant leadership and job satisfaction and level in the organization, indicate that servant leadership is a prominent variable affecting job

satisfaction. Based on this overall conclusion, leaders in nonprofit organizations could focus on implementing servant leadership principles and behaviors in their respective organizations, with the associated increasing levels of job satisfaction and positive organizational outcomes.

Intrinsic needs. Intrinsic needs were explained by Maslow's (1954) needs theory. Maslow's needs theory suggested five categories of needs. At the base, humans have physiological needs such as breathing, food, and water. They then have safety needs, the needs to be loved and belong, esteem needs, and finally self-actualization needs.

When individuals obtain their intrinsic needs, they should be satisfied and there should be no tension. If these needs are not met, individuals can become very dissatisfied. Intrinsically motivated behaviors are those whose motivation is based in the inherent satisfactions of the behaviors rather than in contingencies or reinforcements that are operationally separable from those activities (Ryan & Deci, 2002). Intrinsic motivation represents a form of self-determined activity, in that, when intrinsically motivated, people engage in activities freely, being sustained by the experience of interest and enjoyment (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

Hygiene theory. Hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1986), also referred to as two-factor theory uses a designation that has rationale in the dual nature of its approach to the sources of job satisfaction and job motivation. Job satisfaction is positively correlated with job performance levels. Herzberg derived that mental health is not just the observance of mental illness but rather a totally separate process. Herzberg developed the hypothesis that a similar discontinuity exists in the field of job satisfaction and developed a list of factors that lead to job satisfaction (motivational factors) and a separate set that lead to job dissatisfaction (hygiene factors).

Five factors considered closely related to job satisfaction (motivational factors):

1) Achievement

2) Recognition

3) The work itself

4) Responsibility

5) Advancement

Dissatisfiers (Hygiene factors):

1) Company polity and administrative practices

2) Supervision

3) Interpersonal relations

4) Physical working conditions

5) Job security

6) Benefits

7) Salary

Good hygiene should be provided, but it will yield benefits only up to a certain point. After that the focus should be on intrinsic aspects of the work itself, not its context (Herzberg, 1968). The individual should have some measure of control over the way in which the job is done in order to realize a sense of achievement and personal growth. In the context of this proposed project, leadership style is the context for the job itself (hygiene factor). Does it allow the individual to have any measure of control over the way the job is done and motivate the individual to want to be present to work?

Extrinsic needs. Extrinsic motivation refers to a broad array of behaviors that are similar in the fact that activities are engaged in for instrumental reasons (Vallerand & Rattelle, 2002). Ryan and Deci (2002) differentiated the four types of extrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation-external regulation refers to behavior that is determined through means that are

external to the individual. This suggests that rewards and constraints regulate these behaviors. For example, an employee who performs an activity to satisfy the external demands of his manager (e.g., a tangible reward or punishment) or social contingency is externally regulated. Such is the case in transactional leadership.

Next along the continuum is the construct of extrinsic motivation-introjected regulation (Ryan & Deci, 2002). These behaviors are controlled in part by the environment, but also by internal reward/punishment contingencies (e.g., ego enhancement, guilt, shame, or obligation). An example is a students who performs his or her schoolwork because they do not want to disappoint their parents rather than for any tangible reward. Introjected regulation encompasses a moderately low degree of self-determination (Ryan & Deci, 2002).

Expectancy theory. In expectancy theory people believe their behavior is associated with certain outcomes and these outcomes or rewards have different values (Lawler, 2006). Expectancy theory believes that people associate their behavior with certain probabilities of success (Vroom, 1964). Hackman and Oldham's (1980) work blended the two concepts of Maslow's need theory and the expectancy theory in order to directly focus on the relationship between job or work design and worker satisfaction. Hackman and Oldham (1980) concluded that there are three primary psychological states that significantly affect worker satisfaction:

1. The worker experienced meaningfulness of the work itself.

2. The worker assumed responsibility for the work and its outcomes.

3. The worker was given knowledge of results or performance feedback.

Hackman and Oldham's (1980) belief is that employees are more satisfied with their jobs when the work is designed to enhance the meaning of the work, the employee's responsibility for

the outcomes of their work, and the employee's knowledge of the manager's response to the outcomes that the employee produces.

Transition and Summary of Section 1

The focus of this study was to determine the relationship between executive leadership style and job satisfaction at nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. Transformational, transactional, and servant leadership will be studied to determine if one is better than the other at predicting the job satisfaction of nonprofit employees in Southwest Virginia. Two research questions are addressed and hypotheses generated to test the relationship between the independent variable of executive servant leadership and the dependent variable of job satisfaction. A quantitative descriptive cross-sectional design was used to study the relationships between leadership style and employee job satisfaction. The SOLA survey instrument will be used to determine the level of servant leadership. The Job Satisfaction Survey (Specter, 1985) will be used to measure level of employee job satisfaction.

Section 2: The Project

The ability for nonprofit organizations to maintain an engaged and productive workforce can be the difference between success and extinction. Low employee engagement leads to a deterioration of organizational productivity and employee turnover (Johnson, 2014). Nonprofit leaders' ability to consistently achieve strong results depends more on the quality of their people than on any other single variable (Tierney, 2006). Yet, today nonprofit organizations struggle to attract and retain the talented senior executives they need to fulfill their missions and over the coming decade, this leadership challenge will only become more acute (Tierney, 2006).

This study expanded on the existing research of executive servant leadership in the human serve nonprofit sector by determining if there is a relationship between executive servant leadership and job satisfaction in human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. Details of this study are presented in the following:

a) Purpose Statement

b) Role of the Researcher

c) Participants

d) Research Method and Design

e) Population and Sampling

f) Data Collection

g) Data Analysis Technique

h) Reliability and Validity

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative study was to determine if there is a relationship between executive servant leadership and job satisfaction in human service nonprofit organizations in

Southwest Virginia. The nonprofit sector plays a large role in improving the quality of life for low-income individuals in many communities (Smalley, 2011) and is often times an organization delivering government services. The nonprofit sector faces many challenges such as fluctuation in economic resources, maintaining a strong image in the community, and the constant threat of legislation that may threaten its well-being. Nonprofit leaders must be able to efficiently strategize, control, and motivate their organizations to be able to overcome these challenges. The research focused on 501(c)(3) nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia and used a Job Satisfaction Survey (Specter, 1985) to collect information from employees at these organizations. The Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment Instrument (SOLA; Laub, 1999) leadership style surveys were used to determine the leadership traits that are present in managers at these organizations.

Role of the Researcher

The researcher of this study performed three roles in this study. First, the researcher distributed the SOLA and Job Satisfaction Survey to nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. The survey instruments were distributed via online methods as well as in person. Second, the researcher collected the data from the distributed surveys. Third, the researcher interpreted and analyzed the results of the surveys as they related to the stated hypotheses.

Participants

Participants in the study were comprised of full-time employees of nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. Access to participants was gained through approval from the Liberty University Internal Review Board (IRB) and the IRB of the Southern California Christian University. The researcher also gained permission from the executive leadership of the nonprofit organizations surveyed to have access to their employees. The survey was anonymous

and all of the data that were collected were coded and analyzed in an aggregate manner. Minimal risk or discomfort was expected for participants in this study.

Research Method and Design

A quantitative study was chosen for this project to investigate a research question as this project is seeking to determine a relationship by using scientific procedures. Quantitative studies make it possible for conclusions to be drawn with a specifiable level of probability (Davies & Hughes, 2014). A correlational research design was chosen as it is a type of organizational study that analyzes data from a population at a specific point in time (Dorgham & Al-Mahmoud, 2013). The Job Satisfaction Survey and SOLA were chosen as instruments to survey participants due to their ease of use and history of reliable and valid results in similarly structured research projects.

Discussion of method. This study involved collecting data from a population of 83 members of nonprofit human service organizations in Southwest Virginia, each having executive leadership levels. Laub's (1999) SOLA survey will help to assess the level of servant leadership present in the selected nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. The SOLA is a survey researchers use to evaluate whether participants feel an organization is servant led. SOLA questions are posed with responses given on a Likert-type scale from 1 to 5. A score of 5 indicates that the member feels the organization is aligned with the principles of servant leadership. The Job Satisfaction Survey helps to assess job satisfaction levels. The Job Satisfaction Survey uses 36 questions to measure all elements of job satisfaction (both intrinsic and extrinsic). The SOLA and the Job Satisfaction Survey each provided one overall score for each participant, and the Job Satisfaction Survey provided additional values for intrinsic and

extrinsic job satisfaction for each participant. These SOLA and Job Satisfaction Survey scores for each participant were the variables used for the correlational analysis in this study.

Discussion of design. The researcher selected a correlational research design to determine the relationship of executive servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in nonprofit human service organizations in Southwest Virginia. This quantitative study described relationships between variables and provide support for or against a theoretical framework (Brink & Wood, 1998). Self-reporting questionnaires were used to assess independent and dependent variables (Portney & Watkins, 2000). The independent variable in this project were the level of executive servant leadership. The dependent variable was employee job satisfaction. The SOLA (Laub, 1999) was used to assess servant leadership levels in an organization.

Summary of research method and design. This study aimed to expand on the existing research of executive servant leadership in the nonprofit sector and its relationship with employee motivation. A quantitative study was chosen in order to make it possible for conclusions to be drawn with a specifiable level of probability (Davies & Hughes, 2014). A descriptive cross-sectional research design was chosen as it is a type of organizational study that analyzes data from a population at a specific point in time (Dorgham & Al-Mahmoud, 2013). The Job Satisfaction Survey and SOLA were chosen as instruments to survey participants due to their ease of use and history of reliable and valid results in similarly structured research projects.

Population and Sampling

The population from which the sample was drawn was from a population of full-time employees of human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. The researcher hoped to receive at least 69 returned surveys from a total population being sampled of 83 employees.

Discussion of population. All members of the population were briefed on the study and received information on how they could participate in the study. A consent form was presented to each participant to read before the start of the study. This form outlined the study to ensure the participants understood that their responses to the surveys were confidential and anonymous. After participants acknowledge that they understood the confidential and anonymous nature of the study, they could proceed to take the surveys. The surveys were administered by the researcher in a way which minimized interference and maximized anonymity. The researcher's access to personally identifiable information was prevented by the general nature of the survey questions.

Discussion of sampling. Human service nonprofit organizations in southwest Virginia were selected to participate in this study. Of the organizations being studied, 83 total employees were invited to participate with 69 surveys being required to be completed and returned in order to test at the 95% confidence level and a 5% margin of error. This was arrived at using the equation

$$n_0 = \frac{Z^2 pq}{e^2}$$

Where:

"n_0"=the population size

"z"=1.96, 95% confidence level with a 5% margin of error

"p"=.5, estimated proportion of the population

"q"=.95 (1-P)

Solving for n, you arrive at n=385

Since the population being studied in this experiment is small, the equation can be modified to:

$$n = \frac{n_0}{1 + \frac{(n_0 - 1)}{N}}$$

Where

"n"=desired sample population

"n_0"=385

N=total population

Solving for n you arrive at n=68.43 or 69

Summary of population and sampling. All members of the population were briefed on the study and were administered the SOLA instrument and Job Satisfaction Survey by their Executive Director. Surveys were returned to the employees' executive director who then returned them to the researcher. Surveys were sent out as many times as necessary until enough data were collected to properly analyze. Eighty-three (83) total individuals were invited to participate and at least 69 surveys were required to be returned. All data collected were completely anonymous and the researcher's access to personally identify information was prevented by the nature of the survey questions. In order to test the data at a 95% confidence level and 5% margin of error, at least 69 surveys were needed to be collected and returned.

Data Collection

Participants were recruited from existing nonprofit human service organizations in southwest Virginia. Each organization in this study had full time personnel and executive leadership levels in the organization. All full time employees at each organization were invited

to participate. Permission was obtained from executive leadership in these organizations to allow their employees to participate in the study. The study targeted participation from at least 69 employees for both the SOLA survey and the Job Satisfaction Survey. All personnel in the organization were asked to participate to ensure the target number of surveys was reached. Participants received a brief on the study. The brief explained the study, confidentiality procedures, informed consent, ethical protection, and required level of involvement. The surveys were presented to all participants via online methods or in person via their executive director and the survey instructions direct participants to take both surveys in order, in an effort to prevent participants from going to the next survey without completing the previous survey. The participants were asked to complete the SOLA to rate their perception of executive leadership within their organization. They were asked to complete the Job Satisfaction Survey to assess their level of job satisfaction.

Instruments. The SOLA has several constructs that it correlates to servant leadership: values people, develops people, builds community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership. The SOLA uses a sum of participant responses to 60 questions. Each question is assigned a value between 1 and 5, with 5 being the most closely aligned to servant-led principles. The SOLA takes the sum total of all the questions (between 60 and 300) and averages them to provide a resultant score of between 1 and 5 (60 is equal to 1.00 and 300 is equal to 5.00). This resultant score will be the independent variable in this study. Researchers have found the SOLA to be both reliable and valid in previous studies (Laub, 1999; Ledbetter, 2003; Miears, 2004). The SOLA has been in use for over 14 years, and researchers have chosen it for more than 40 servant leadership studies.

The MSQ short form has 36 questions that measure intrinsic job satisfaction and six questions that measure extrinsic job satisfaction. Individual questions are evaluated using a Likert-type scale of 1-6, with the following choices: disagree very much, disagree moderately, disagree slightly, agree slightly, agree moderately, and agree very much. The answers are operationalized with very satisfied equaling 5, and very dissatisfied equaling 1. The sum total of the question values results in an overall score between 36 and 216. The overall job satisfaction score is the sum score of all 36 questions.

Data collection techniques. The researcher submitted copies of the SOLA instrument and the Job Satisfaction Survey to executive directors at the organizations being studied in order to collect data for this study. Respondents received the survey tools along with the consent form and instructions on submitting completed surveys back to their executive directors. The executive directors returned completed surveys to the researcher. The researcher analyzed the data from the respondents and then imported the data into SPSS for further analysis.

Data organization techniques. Data were collected by submitting surveys via email to executive directors at the organizations being studied. Data were returned to the researcher and imported into SPSS once data collection was complete. Data were secured in the SPSS software by the researcher having a unique username and password available only to him. The paper copies of the returned surveys were stored electronically on the researcher's computer and backed up to a thumb drive. There was no need to shred any paper copies as there were no identifying information on any of the returned surveys.

Data Analysis

The data collected from the surveys were entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software, and a Pearson product–moment correlation were used to

examine the direct correlation between the SOLA scores (servant leadership) and the Job

Satisfaction Survey scores (intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction) for the participants.

The Pearson correlation was chosen by the researcher due to its reliability and usage in similar

published research. The hypothesis was that executive servant leadership is directly correlated

(positively) with job satisfaction in human service nonprofit organization in Southwest Virginia.

In seeking to detail the strength of the relationship between servant leadership and job

satisfaction in human service nonprofit organizations, the study involved comparing the variables

using quantitative research methods. Both sets of survey data (SOLA and Job Satisfaction

Survey) were analyzed using correlational analysis in the interpretation phase to determine if

they indicated a correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction.

Variables used in the study. The independent variable in this study was the level of

executive servant leadership present in an organization. The dependent variable was the level of

employee job satisfaction in these organizations. The independent variable was collected using

the SOLA instrument and the dependent variable was collected using the Job Satisfaction Survey

(Specter, 1985).

Hypotheses 1.

- $H1_0$: There is no statistically significant relationship between servant leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

- $H1_A$: There is a statistically significant relationship between servant leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

Summary of data analysis. SPSS software was used to analyze the collected survey

data from the Job Satisfaction and SOLA survey instruments in order to test the hypothesis that

executive servant leadership is directly positively correlated with job satisfaction in human

service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. A correlational analysis was used to determine the strength of the correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction

Reliability and Validity

The use of reliability and validity in quantitative research is common and are two factors which any researcher should be concerned with when designing, analyzing, and judging the quality of a study (Patton, 2001). If the validity can be maximized then the more credible and defensible the result (Johnson, 1997) and therefor, the reliability of the study. The following sections address the reliability and validity of this study and the data collection instruments involved.

Reliability. The Job Satisfaction Survey has been an appropriate tool used in similar studies investigating the relationship between employee job satisfaction and leadership practices. In a study investigating the relationship between job satisfaction of full-time business faculty in the Wisconsin Technical College System and the leadership practices of their direct supervisor, Klein (2007) used the Job Satisfaction Survey and found positive correlations between job satisfaction and leadership practices of employees' direct supervisor. Correlation of Job Satisfaction Survey scores with criteria of employee perceptions and behaviors for multiple samples of nonprofit organizations has been found to be consistent with findings involving other satisfaction scales and with findings from the private sector (Spector, 1985).

The SOLA has been a tool used in many studies investigating the level of servant leadership present in the organization. Persaud (2015) used the SOLA instrument in the correlational study of servant leadership and job satisfaction in New York City public hospital emergency rooms. The study found a statistically significant relationship between servant leadership and employee general job satisfaction. In the original field test, Laub (1999) found a

reliability score of .9802 for the SOLA using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The SOLA instrument was created using Develli's (1991) guidelines for scale development consisting of eight steps:

1) determine clearly what it is you want to measure

2) generate the item pool

3) determine the format for measurement

4) have initial items reviews by panel of experts

5) consider inclusion of validation items

6) administer items to administrative sample

7) evaluate the items, and

8) optimize the scale length.

Validity. Validity can be defined as determining whether the research truly measures that which it is intended to measure or how truthful the results are (Joppe, 2000). The survey instruments were validated as reliable data collection instruments as previously discussed. An experiment is deemed to be internally valid when cause and effect relationships are established if the results of the experiment are due only to the manipulated independent variable and possess external validity when the results are generalizable to certain groups, environments, and contexts that reside outside of the experimental settings (Onwuegbuzie, 2000). The researcher minimized internal validity threats by not having a control group in this experiment. In their study, Steckler and McLeroy (2008) suggested that four categories of external validity information were identified including study participant recruitment and selection procedures, participation rates, and the representative nature at the levels of individuals were the same. The researcher considered the external validity of the Job Satisfaction Survey and the SOLA instrument and

minimized external validity threats by restricting the claims to which results could be generalized.

The validity of the Job Satisfaction Survey was verified by using discriminant and convergent validity by using a comparative analysis of the Job Satisfaction Survey to the Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969), which measures job satisfaction and had previously passed reliability and validity tests. The correlation between the two scales was high enough to determine that the Job Satisfaction Survey was a valid instrument to measure employee job satisfaction (Spector, 1985).

Construct validity of the SOLA tool with regard to essential characteristics of servant leadership was determined by an expert panel using a Delphi process to being consensus among the experts as to what constructs represent the servant minded organization (Persaud, 2015). Fourteen (14) recognized experts in the field of servant leadership were involved in a three-round Delphi Survey (Anderson, 2005) whereupon from the experts answer six established definitional constructs, resulting in 74 characteristics of servant leadership being determined. Based on the Delphi process and expertise of the panel members, the validity of the SOLA was noted as strong (Laub, 1999).

Summary of reliability and validity. The intent of this quantitative study is to determine the relationship between the dependent variable and independent variable. The researcher will use SPSS software and correlational analysis involving the SOLA and Job Satisfaction Survey to answer the hypotheses in this study. The results of this study will be generalized to human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia.

Transition and Summary

Servant leadership continues to be an emerging field of study in the field of leadership. This researcher designed this study to fill the gap in the literature regarding executive servant leadership in the nonprofit sector and what relationship exists between this leadership style and employee motivation. A quantitative study was chosen in order to make it possible for conclusions to be drawn with a specifiable level of probability (Davies & Hughes, 2014). A descriptive cross-sectional research design was chosen to answer the hypotheses as it is a type of organizational study that analyzes data from a population at a specific point in time (Dorgham & Al-Mahmoud, 2013). The Job Satisfaction Survey and SOLA were chosen as instruments to survey participants due to their ease of use and history of reliable and valid results in similarly structured research projects. The surveys were completed anonymously by full time employees working at human service nonprofit organizations in southwest Virginia. The results of the surveys were analyzed using SPSS software. In the following section the findings of this study are presented along with the application of these findings to nonprofit organizations, recommendations for future action and study, reflections by the researcher and conclusions.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Research since the 1970s suggests that servant leadership has a positive effect on job satisfaction. Greenleaf (1977), Kouzes and Posner (1993), and Spears (2002) cited examples of company after company whose leaders changed the culture and enjoyed the benefits of a happier workforce as a result of servant leadership. Empirical evidence supports their claims. Across many sectors researchers have found a statistically significant, positive correlation between servant leadership practices in an organization and employee job satisfaction. Goh and Zhen-Jie (2014) found a positive correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction at all levels of an institution, and also found that servant leadership had a significant effect on organizational commitment. The researcher expanded the study of servant leadership and employee job satisfaction by examining the relationship between executive servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia.

The findings of this study, which will contribute to the body of research on the topic of executive servant leaderhip and its relationship to employee job satisfaction in human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia, are presented in this section. The findings are presented in the following subsections: (a) overview of the study, (b) presentation of the findings, (c) applications to professional practice, (d) recommendations for actions, (e) recommendations for further study, (f) reflections, and (g) summary and conclusions of the study.

Overview of the Study

This study was conducted to examine the relationship between executive servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. The research on leadership influence in the nonprofit sector is limited and the

examination, specifically of servant leadership and its relationship with employee job satisfaction in human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia has rarely, if ever, been studied.

The recruitment letter, which contained copies of the SOLA survey and Job Satisfaction Survey was sent to the executive director at the organizations being studied. Participants also received a brief on the study. The brief explained the study, confidentiality procedures, informed consent, ethical protection, and required level of involvement. The surveys were presented to all participants via online methods or in person via their executive director and the survey instructions directed participants to take both surveys in order in to prevent participants from going to the next survey without completing the previous survey. The participants were asked to complete the SOLA to rate their perception of executive leadership within their organization. They were asked to complete the Job Satisfaction Survey to assess their level of job satisfaction.

The sample population being studied in this study was drawn was from a total population of full-time employees at the organizations being studied. Each organization has full time personnel and executive leadership levels in the organization. All full time employees of each organization were invited to participate. Permission was obtained from executive leadership in these organizations to allow their employees to participate in the study. The total number of employees that received the surveys was 83. The surveys were distributed twice between the dates of 5/13/2019 and 6/14/2019. Participants completed the surveys and the researcher collected them anonymously from a return box at the organizations. Sixty-nine (69) surveys were returned, resulting in an 83% response rate. The results of the surveys were entered into SPSS statistical software where the researcher used the Pearson correlation bivariate test to examine the research question and hypotheses.

The results of the study found a moderate-strong significant statistical relationship that exists between executive servant leadership and employee job satisfaction among employees of human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia.

Presentation of the Findings

This section contains the findings of the study. The researcher designed the study to answer one research question. The results of the study are organized by the research question, the relationship of theoretical frameworks and study findings, and correlational analyses. The researcher included references relevant to outcomes in Section 2 and related the findings of this study to the larger body of literature on servant leadership and employee job satisfaction.

The population used in this study consisted of full-time employees at two human service nonprofit organizations in southwest Virginia. The SOLA survey to measure servant leadership levels in an organization and the Job Satisfaction Survey to measure employee job satisfaction were distributed twice between the dates of 5/13/2019 and 6/14/2019. The researcher sent the recruitment letter, along with the surveys, to executive directors at the organizations who distributed them to 83 full time employees among the two organizations. The researcher received a total of 69 completed surveys (n=69). The results of the surveys were entered into SPSS statistical software, where the researcher used the Pearson correlation bivariate test to examine the research question and hypotheses.

Hypotheses 1

- $H1_0$ There is no statistically significant relationship between servant leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

- $H1_A$ There is a statistically significant relationship between servant leadership style and employee job satisfaction.

Relationship of hypotheses to research questions. This project explored executive servant leadership in nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia and how this leadership style related with employee job satisfaction. Employees were given an anonymous Job Satisfaction Survey to determine how satisfied they are with their job. They were given the SOLA survey to determine the level of servant leadership present in their organization. A specific researchable question for this project and the question the hypotheses sought to answer was:

1) Does executive servant leadership have a statistically significant relationship with employee job satisfaction?

Data collected from the surveys were entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software, and a Pearson product–moment correlation was used to examine the direct correlation between the SOLA scores (servant leadership) and the Job Satisfaction Survey scores (intrinsic, extrinsic and overall job satisfaction) for the participants. The independent variable in this study was the level of executive servant leadership present in an organization. The dependent variable was the level of employee job satisfaction in these organizations. The independent variable was collected using the SOLA instrument and the dependent variable was collected using the Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985). Responses from the SOLA survey were scored using a 1-5 Likert-scale with 1 indicating the individual strongly disagreed with the statement and 5 indicating the individual strongly agreed with the statement. An overall servant leadership score for each participant was computed resulting in a mean score of 4.16 with a standard deviation of .4985 (Figure 1). Data for the overall servant leadership score for each participant can be found in Appendix A. The Job Satisfaction Survey was scored using a 1-6 Likert-scale with 1 indicating the individual disagreed very much with the statement and 6 indicating the individual agreed very much with the statement. An overall job satisfaction score

for each participant was computed resulting in a mean score of 4.45 with a standard deviation of .496 (Figure 1). Data for the overall job satisfaction score for each participant can also be found in Appendix A. The Job Satisfaction Survey had negatively worded items for questions 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 19, 21, 23, 24, 26, 29, 31, 32, 34, and 36. For these questions, responses were reverse scored. If an individual returned a 1, the question should be scored with a 6. For a 2, the question should be scored with a 5, and so on. The mean scores for each question were computed (Appendix A) and then a bivariate Pearson correlation was run using these numbers.

Job Satisfaction			SOLA	
Mean	4.446667		Mean	4.156837945
Standard Error	0.05971		Standard Error	0.060014498
Median	4.444444		Median	4.151515152
Mode	4.555556		Mode	3.560606061
Standard Deviation	0.495987		Standard Deviation	0.498517858
Sample Variance	0.246003		Sample Variance	0.248520055
Kurtosis	-0.17611		Kurtosis	-0.566272059
Skewness	0.535834		Skewness	0.212539632
Range	2.07		Range	2.113939394
Minimum	3.75		Minimum	3.106060606
Maximum	5.82		Maximum	4.98
Sum	306.82		Sum	286.8218182
Count	69		Count	69
Confidence Level(95.0%)	0.119149		Confidence Level(95.0%)	0.119757065

Figure 1. Descriptive statistics.

The Pearson correlation was chosen by the researcher due to its reliability and usage in similar published research. Pearson's product–moment correlation test was suitable to determine the magnitude and direction of the relationship between organizational member perceptions of servant leadership and overall job satisfaction. This test is appropriate if four assumptions are met: interval or ratio level variables, normally distributed, linearly distributed, and having no significant outliers (Nikolic, Muresan, Feng, & Singer, 2012).

A scatterplot for each of the variables was plotted and analyzed to verify linearity (Figure 2). Based on the line of fit falling in a straight line, the data were linear and appropriate for use with the Pearson's coefficients of correlation test.
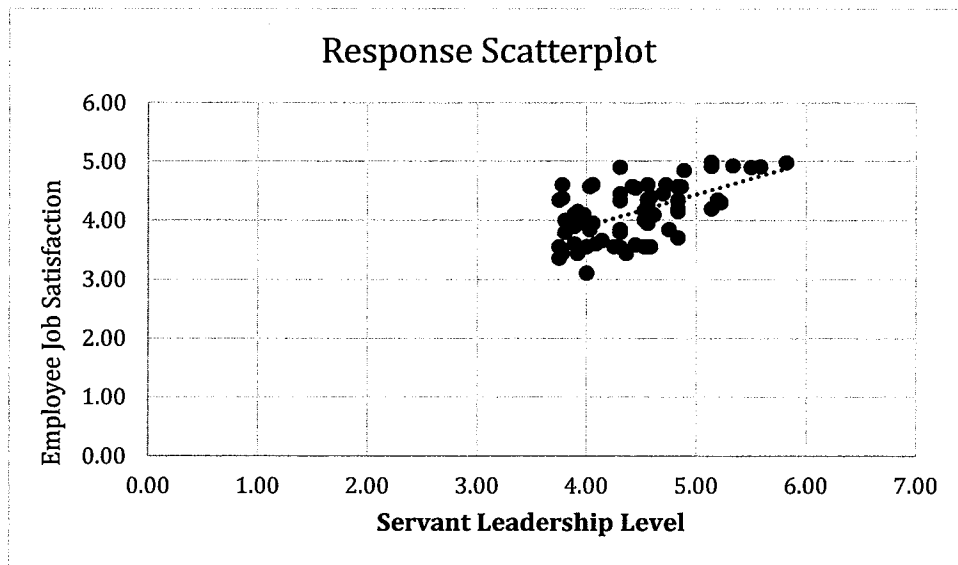
Figure 2. Response scatterplot.

The data on the scatterplot were free of any significant outliers, thus satisfying the final assumption required for use of the Pearson product-moment correlation as there were no cases with standardized residuals greater than ±3 standard deviations. The Pearson correlation coefficient, r, can take a range of values from +1 to -1. A value of 0 indicates that there is no association between the two variables. A value greater than 0 indicates a positive association; that is, as the value of one variable increases, so does the value of the other variable. The closer r is to 1, the stronger the correlation between the two variables. The hypothesis was that executive servant leadership was directly correlated (positively) with job satisfaction in human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. In seeking to detail the strength of the relationship between servant leadership and job satisfaction in nonprofit organizations, the study involved comparing the variables using quantitative research methods. Both sets of survey data

(SOLA and Job Satisfaction Survey) were analyzed using correlational analysis in the interpretation phase to determine if they indicated a correlation between servant leadership and job satisfaction. The results of the study showed a Pearson correlation coefficient of .569, r(69) = .569, p <.00005 indicating a moderate-strong statistically significant relationship (Table 2) at the .00 level of significance between executive servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. With a significance level of .00, which is less than .05, the null hypothesis can be rejected at the .05 level of significance, as well as at the .01 level and .005 level of significance. With the level of significance in this study being very close to 0, the results suggest that there is a very high level of significance in the results or virtually zero probability that the results are due to chance.

Table 2

SOLA and Job Satisfaction Survey Results

		SOLAScore	JobSatScore
SOLAScore	Pearson Correlation	1	.569**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	69	69
JobSatScore	Pearson Correlation	.569**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
	N	69	69

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

Summary of the findings. Using the Pearson product-moment correlation test as the appropriate test to investigate the hypothesis, the researcher was able to accept the $H1_A$ that there was a statistically significant relationship between executive servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. Additionally, the $H1_0$ that states there is no statistically significant relationship between servant leadership style and employee job satisfaction can be rejected at the .05, .01, and .005 level of significance. This research was able to support the theoretical framework of this quantitative correlational study

that there is a relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction at nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. In this study, servant leadership style was reviewed and analyzed and how this leadership style relates with employee motivational factors. Previous research has come to the conclusion that transformational leadership is more closely related to employee job satisfaction than other leadership styles, however not all research has come to this conclusion (Burns, 2007). There have been studies that have shown that employee job satisfaction might possibly be more closely related to transformational leadership than it is to transactional leadership (Chen & Baron, 2006), however, there is no demonstration that transformational leadership is any more correlated with employee job satisfaction than transactional or servant leadership (Burns, 2007). There is no evidence of any previous studies that examined leadership style and employee job satisfaction in nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. The researcher was able to apply the results of this study to the theoretical framework of executive servant leadership and its correlation with employee job satisfaction in nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia.

The Job Satisfaction Survey has been an appropriate tool used in similar studies investigating the relationship between employee job satisfaction and leadership practices. In a study investigating the relationship between job satisfaction of full-time business faculty in the Wisconsin Technical College System and the leadership practices of their direct supervisor, Klein (2007) used the Job Satisfaction Survey and found positive correlations between job satisfaction and leadership practices of employees' direct supervisor. Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey has also been tested for reliability by Spector (1997) using serval measures. The coefficient alpha was used to measure the internal consistency of the survey with the coefficients of each of the nine variables in the survey ranging from .60 to .91 for overall satisfaction.

Nunnally (1967) suggested that researchers should seek coefficients above .50. Using this criteria, the Job Satisfaction Survey passes the reliability test.

The validity of the Job Satisfaction Survey was verified by using discriminant and convergent validity by using a comparative analysis of the Job Satisfaction Survey to the Job Descriptive Index (Smith et al., 1969), which measures job satisfaction and had previously passed reliability and validity tests. The correlation between the two scales was high enough to determine that the Job Satisfaction Survey was a valid instrument to measure employee job satisfaction (Spector, 1985).

The SOLA has been a tool used in many studies investigating the level of servant leadership present in the organization. Persaud (2015) used the SOLA instrument in the correlational study of servant leadership and job satisfaction in New York City public hospital emergency rooms. The study found a statistically significant relationship between servant leadership and employee general job satisfaction. In the original field test, Laub (1999) found a reliability score of .9802 for the SOLA using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Horsman (2001) conducted reliability tests on the SOLA using Cronbach's alpha coefficient with each obtaining a reliability score of .98 or higher thus leading Laub (1999) to contend that the SOLA is a reliable instrument to conduct servant leadership research with a reliability measure of .98.

Construct validity of the SOLA tool with regard to essential characteristics of servant leadership was determined by an expert panel using a Delphi process to being consensus among the experts as to what constructs represent the servant minded organization (Persaud, 2015). Fourteen (14) recognized experts in the field of servant leadership were involved in a three-round Delphi Survey (Anderson, 2005) whereupon from the experts answer six established definitional constructs, resulting in 74 characteristics of servant leadership being determined. Based on the

Delphi process and expertise of the panel members, the validity of the SOLA was noted as strong (Laub, 1999).

Applications to Professional Practice

The findings in this research can be applied to the professional practice of leadership in nonprofit organizations. Findings related to servant leadership and employee job satisfaction can be applied to academia, human resource management, nonprofit leadership, and organizational behavior. This section applies this research to the professional practice of leadership in nonprofit organizations and how these findings can help in improving nonprofit leadership practices. This section will also apply the findings of this research in a biblical context as outlined in the first section.

Practice of business. The existence of nonprofit organizations to deliver services is vital to our economy. In order for them to perform efficiently and effectively, nonprofits should be able to implement good strategies and have controls in place to support these strategies. Sometimes attracting top managers and leaders for nonprofits is difficult given the financial constraints they endure.

Research on nonprofit leadership by Eady-Mays (2016) brought to light many limitations facing leaders in the nonprofit sector. This study chronicled many challenges that nonprofit leaders face, and how these challenges are affected by economic down turns (Agard, 2011). A review of existing literature recognized the unique challenges of leading a nonprofit, however the academic literature is limited. There was not a large amount of research that has been conducted that explore ways to mitigate the challenges that nonprofit leaders face and help them improve their leadership. Dym and Hutson (2005) suggested that the nonprofit literature lacked the descriptive element of how leaders went about their business to demonstrate effectiveness.

Existing academic literature details a lot on the shortfall of nonprofit leadership and how this has a major effect on the performance of the nonprofit organization however there lacks much literature as to why this exists. Nonprofit leaders' ability to consistently achieve strong results depends largely on the quality of their people than on any other single variable (Tierney, 2006). Research further suggests that the differences in governance, clientele, and organizational imperatives cause nonprofit organizations to have distinctive organizational structures and employee incentives (Lipsky & Smith, 1989; Mirvis & Hackett, 1983), and in turn, attract different types of individuals versus that of the public or private sector and the differences between public, private, and nonprofit organizations imply that understanding employee job satisfaction in the organizations requires distinctions (Oldham & Hackman, 2010).

The findings of this study suggest that servant leadership style in nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia does have a positive correlation with employee job satisfaction. These findings can be applied to human service nonprofit organizations the deliver services to those in need. Examples include community action agencies, foster care agencies, social service programs, or most other types of agencies that serves people through programs that are funded by or are affiliated with local, state, and federal government human service agencies.

Biblical implications. The parallels between God's plan for business and how he used his apostles, prophets, evangelists, pastors, and teachers to serve as leaders in service to others and the role of executive leaders are hard to miss directly relate to this study. Executive leadership moving from a transactions based approach toward an approach where employees are served and empowered is a role that is more defined by God's purpose for His creation and for business. Talent management, recruiting, leadership, and training were all identified as four of the eight best practices used to evaluate an organization's strategic HR abilities. Each of these

are present in the following passage from Exodus where Moses is given instruction on how to lead in accordance with God:

Teach them his decrees and instructions, and show them the way they are to live and how they are to behave. But select capable men from all the people—men who fear God, trustworthy men who hate dishonest gain—and appoint them as officials over thousands, hundreds, fifties and tens. (Exodus 18:20-21)

Humankind was created with a purpose to work. In life and in business, those that are identified as leaders and given the authority to reign over a selected group of individuals should be held accountable that their leadership is in service to others and the organization, that each may prosper and be sustained in the future. God's purpose for his Creation is for them to serve. Servant leadership then can be said to be a leadership style closest to that of Jesus Christ, one where service to others is its foundation. As the findings of this study suggest, servant leadership is also a model with a significant correlation to job satisfaction in the nonprofit sector of Southwest Virginia

Recommendations for Action

The results of this study indicate that servant leadership style has a strong relationship with employee job satisfaction in human service nonprofit organization in Southwest Virginia. Leadership style is a variable that affects employee job satisfaction in other research (Schneider & George, 2011) and this study further supports that claim. Since there was a statistically significant positive relationship between servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia, applying this leadership style in other nonprofit organizations in Virginia could be of interest to leaders and employees of these organizations. The scores for servant leadership and job satisfaction and the strong correlation

between the two indicate that servant leadership is in fact a strong variable that affects employee job satisfaction. The recommended action from this study is for nonprofit organizations that were not included in this study to assess what level of servant leadership currently exists in the organization and focus on shifting their leadership style toward one that implements servant leadership principles and behaviors. The SOLA measures six key areas of servant leadership: (a) values people, (b) develops people, (c) builds community, (d) displays authenticity, (e) provides leadership, and (f) shares leadership. Organizational leaders can use these six key areas to develop new strategies to better serve their employees. The highest mean score for responses on the SOLA survey in this study came from the statement that managers in the organization "say what they mean and mean what they say," suggesting that employees strongly believe in the authenticity of top management in these two organizations.

Recommendations for Further Study

The results of this study contributed to the very limited body of existing literature on the topic of servant leadership and its relationship to job satisfaction in human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. Studies can be furthered in these areas and the following section contains recommendations by the researcher for future studies.

First, the study could be expanded to include human service nonprofit organizations in other areas of the state of Virginia. There were two nonprofit organizations selected for inclusion in this study, both in Southwest Virginia. Other nonprofit organizations could be included for study from Southwest Virginia as well as other parts of Virginia to see if the correlation between executive servant leadership level and employee job satisfaction is significant such as it was in this study. Since there were no additional variables in this study, broadening the survey to other locations would help to provide stronger support to the results of

the correlation between executive servant leadership and job satisfaction in nonprofit organizations with results from a larger population in a broader area.

Second, this study could examine specific areas of servant leadership and job satisfaction and what sort of relationship exists. The SOLA survey measures the servant leader as to how they develop people, build community, displays authenticity, provides leadership, and shares leadership. The survey could be constricted to see what level of shared leadership is present in an organization how this relates to employee job satisfaction, for instance. The different characteristics of a servant leaders could be studied to see the strength in relationship between each and job satisfaction.

Third, this study could be duplicated and given to organizations outside the realm of human service nonprofit organizations. Similar motivating factors for employee job satisfaction may be present in nonprofit organizations that differ in mission and makeup from that of human service nonprofit organizations. Examples of these types of organizations include religious organizations, educational institutions, organizations that help animals, and more.

Reflections

The researcher began this study with little understanding or knowledge of servant leadership and how it can impact an organization and the job satisfaction of employees. Southwest Virginia nonprofit organizations were chosen to study due to the researcher's knowledge of high turnover levels present in these organizations. Research on servant leadership and motivating factors leading to job satisfaction for employees in the nonprofit sector lead the researcher to believe that there would be a statistically significant correlation between servant leadership present in an organization and reported job satisfaction of employees in the organization.

The results of this study validated the researcher's belief that there is a statistically significant correlation between servant leadership levels and employee job satisfaction among employees in human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. While the correlation was moderate-strong statistically significant, the researcher believed it would be even stronger. The expectation that there would be a strong correlation between servant leadership in an organization and employee job satisfaction is based on the characteristics of servant leadership: stating a leader's desire to motivate, guide, offer hope, and provide a caring experience for employees by establishing a quality relationship with the followers and subordinates (Choudhary et al., 2013). These findings support the theoretical framework that servant leadership is a motivating factor for employees to be satisfied with their jobs.

The researcher reflected upon biblical principles in conducting this study. Nonprofit organizations are organizations with a mission to serve others. Just as man is created with a purpose to serve others through Jesus Christ, businesses also exist with a purpose to serve (Van Duzer, 2010), be sustainable, and work in concert with others to support one another as each pursues the common good. Work itself is a divine vocation (Hardy, 1990) and executive leadership should be designed in line with this, where the employees are served to help fulfill their vocation and prosper. According to the apostle Paul, Jesus Christ called those who would serve as the foundation stones of his church:

> So Christ himself gave the apostles, the prophets, the evangelists, the pastors and teachers, to equip his people for works of service, so that the body of Christ may be built up until we all reach unity in the faith and in the knowledge of the Son of God and become mature, attaining to the whole measure of the fullness of Christ. (Ephesians 4:11-13, NIV)

Summary and Study Conclusions

The researcher designed this study to explore the relationship between executive servant leadership and employee job satisfaction in human service nonprofit organizations in Southwest Virginia. The results of the study found a moderate-strong statistically significant relationship between the level of executive servant leadership that exists in an organization and employee job satisfaction. The moderate-strong significant relationship between the two variables was positive and this was consistent with the theoretical framework of the study. This can be interpreted as the more servant leadership that is present in an organization, the more satisfied employees should be with their job.

The results of the study help to fill the gaps in the literature on servant leadership and job satisfaction within nonprofit organizations. In reviewing the existing literature during this study, limited research was found that explores ways to mitigate the challenges that nonprofit leaders face and help them improve their leadership. Nonprofit literature lacked the descriptive element of how leaders went about their business to demonstrate effectiveness. While existing academic literature details a lot on the shortfall of nonprofit leadership and how this has had a major effect on the performance of the nonprofit organization however there lacked much literature as to why this exists. This study helped to fill these gaps.

As nonprofit leadership continues to find ways to motivate employees and keep them satisfied with their jobs so that they want to perform, it is important to understand the elements of employee job satisfaction and leadership characteristics that best support this. The findings of this study are useful for nonprofit organizations delivering human service programs to clients in Southwest Virginia as well as nonprofit organizations outside of the geographic area involved in this study. Additionally, organizations outside of the human service nonprofit industry may find

this study useful. Similar motivating factors for employee job satisfaction may be present in nonprofit organizations that differ in mission and makeup from that of human service nonprofit organizations such as religious organizations, educational institutions, and other various types of nonprofit organizations.

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Appendix A: Job Satisfaction and SOLA Survey Data

Table 1.1 *Job Satisfaction and SOLA Raw Scores*

Job Sat	SOLA
3.75	3.36
4.56	4.61
4.83	4.56
3.78	4.61
4.03	4.58
4.56	3.56
4.31	3.85
3.89	3.61
5.22	4.30
4.56	4.33
4.83	4.33
3.75	4.35
4.00	3.11
4.14	3.67
4.31	3.55
3.89	4.11
5.19	4.35
4.56	4.36
4.83	3.71
3.78	4.38
4.08	3.61
4.56	4.27
4.31	4.33
3.89	3.90
5.14	4.20
4.56	4.00
4.83	4.20
3.75	3.56
4.03	3.90
4.53	4.02
4.31	4.45
3.92	4.00
5.14	4.99
4.58	4.40
4.83	4.35
3.81	4.00
4.06	3.95
4.53	3.56
4.31	3.80
3.92	4.15
5.14	4.92
4.44	3.59
4.83	4.15
3.81	3.80
4.00	3.56
4.56	3.95
4.31	4.90
4.53	4.17
4.72	4.61
5.58	4.91
4.83	4.58
4.06	4.61
4.44	4.55
4.69	4.45
5.50	4.90
4.86	4.58
3.97	4.10
4.42	4.58
4.61	4.10
5.33	4.93
4.89	4.85
3.78	3.44
4.25	3.56
4.75	3.85
3.92	3.44
4.58	3.56
4.03	3.85
4.36	3.44
5.82	4.98

The Liberty University Institutional
Review Board has approved
this document for use from
10/3/2018 to --
Protocol # 3464.100318

Consent Form

Exploring the Relationship Between Executive Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction Among Employees of Human Service Nonprofit Organizations in Southwest Virginia

Carson Ward - Liberty University School of Business

You are invited to be in a research study on nonprofit leadership and employee job satisfaction. You were selected as a possible participant because you are a full time employee of a human service nonprofit organization in southwest Virginia and are 18 years of age or older. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

Carson Ward, doctoral candidate in the School of Business at Liberty University, is conducting this study.

Background Information: The purpose of this study is to determine if there is a relationship between executive servant leadership and job satisfaction in human service nonprofit organizations in southwest Virginia.

Procedures: If you agree to be in this study, I would ask you to do the following things:
      1. Complete and return a Job Satisfaction Survey and a Servant Organizational Leadership Assessment. It should take approximately 1 hour to complete.

Risks: The risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.

Benefits: Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from taking part in this study.

Benefits to society include increasing the literature on servant leadership in the nonprofit sector and its relationship to employee job satisfaction.

Compensation: Participants will not be compensated for participating in this study.

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private. In any sort of report I might publish, I will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a subject. Research records will be collected by executive directors at participating organizations and returned anonymously to the researcher.

- Surveys will be distributed via email to the executive director at each organization to distribute to employees. The executive director will collect completed surveys and return via email to the researcher.
- Participant survey responses will remain anonymous.
- Data will be stored on a password locked computer and may be used in future presentations. After three years, all electronic records will be deleted.

<div align="center">
The Liberty University Institutional
Review Board has approved
this document for use from
10/3/2018 to --
Protocol # 3464.100318
</div>

Voluntary Nature of the Study: Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time, prior to submitting the survey, without affecting those relationships.

How to Withdraw from the Study: If you choose to withdraw from the study simply do not return your surveys to your executive director. Your responses will not be recorded or included in the study.

Contacts and Questions: The researcher conducting this study is Carson Ward. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you are encouraged to contact him at 540-599-2382 or at cward25@liberty.edu. You may also contact the researcher's faculty chair, Dr. Scott Quatro at saquatro@liberty.edu.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher **you are encouraged** to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 2845, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at irb@liberty.edu.

Please notify the researcher if you would like a copy of this information for your records.

Statement of Consent: I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.